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STORYTELLING
AND VOCABULARY ACQUISITION
AT THE ELEMENTARY LEVEL

*Dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements
for the Magister degree in
Linguistic Science and English Language Teaching*

By: FADEL Mohamed Rafik

Supervisor: Prof. ABDERRAHIM Farida

Board of Examiners:

Chairwoman: **Dr. Hocine Nacera**
Supervisor: **Abderrahim Farida**
Member: **Dr. Moumene Ahmed**

MC **Badji Mokhtar University. Annaba**
Prof. **Mentouri University. Constantine**
MC **Mentouri University. Constantine**

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DEDICATION

To my parents for their love and affection.

To my brother and sister for their encouragement and kindness.

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ABSTRACT

A fairytale, a fable, or a mere narrative story has the advantage of creating a magical, but also a meaningful context for learners, especially younger ones. However, this type of literature has been considered an old-fashioned way of widening children's imagination and knowledge.

This research work aims at evaluating the importance of the introduction of storytelling for children in the teaching of English as a foreign language at the elementary level and how this can be a useful means as input for the acquisition of new foreign vocabulary items.

To achieve such an aim, we relied on two means of research: the questionnaire and the test. First two questionnaires were handed to both learners and teachers. The learners' questionnaire was to investigate their strategies of learning vocabulary and their behaviour towards storytelling as a reading material. The teachers' questionnaire was to collect data about the techniques they use when dealing with unknown words in their lessons. These two questionnaires helped in designing the test that took place before and after the learners were exposed to selected fairytales to be read at home in order to see whether they had any effect on their acquisition of unknown vocabulary items. The results of this investigation confirmed the hypothesis and showed that the learners – subject to the study – proved to have learnt nearly all the unfamiliar vocabulary items selected by their teachers after being presented four stories including them. They have also manifested a great enthusiasm in this type of material.

Thanks to these conclusions, we propose some pedagogical implications for the teaching of English as a foreign language through reading for pleasure, which concern both textbook writers and teachers. We show that it is a more comprehensible input for language acquisition: in that it facilitates comprehension and creates a favourable environment for the acquisition of new components of a foreign language.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

-AF: Année Fondamentale

-SL : Second Language

-CEM : Collège d'Enseignement Moyen

-CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

-EFL1: English as a First Foreign Language

-ESL: English as a Second Language

-FL: Foreign Language

-FL1: First Foreign Language

-FL2: Second Foreign Language

-N: Number

-O: Observation and Measurement of the Effects of the Treatment

-O1: Pre-test

-O2: Post-test

-SLA: Second Language Acquisition

-X: Treatment

-XO: One-shot Design

- %: Percentage

-Transliteration of the Arabic Writing System used in the representation of Arabic script in the dissertation. (Saad, 1982)

Consonants

Arabic Letter	Transliteration
ء	ʔ
ب	b
ت	t
ث	th
ج	j
ح	h
خ	x
د	d
ذ	dh
ر	r
ز	z
س	s
ش	sh
ص	s
ض	d
ط	t
ظ	z
ع	c
غ	gh
ف	f
ق	q
ك	k
ل	l
م	m
ن	n
ه	h
و	w
ي	y

Vowels

اَ	a	ا	Ā
اُ	u	و	ū
اِ	i	ي	i

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INTRODUCTION

1. Statement of the Problem

2. Aim of the Study

3. Hypothesis

4. Assumption

5. Means of Research

6. Structure of the Study

1. Statement of the Problem

Text-book designers have been aware, since a long time, of the need to introduce storytelling at the elementary level in teaching for different purposes. In the field of foreign language teaching, this type of texts has not been well exploited although it would be of great benefit to create a good environment for the acquisition of a foreign language. We have noticed that the introduction of the type of texts called sometimes “children literature” in Algerian textbooks is not well considered by teachers; and if dealt with in the classroom, they are rather to relax the learners.

Through our experience in teaching, we have remarked that children enjoy reading tales or listening to the teacher telling them sometimes as an extra activity in the classroom. We think that this activity could be an excellent means to enhance children’s acquisition of different aspects of the foreign language, especially the acquisition of new vocabulary items. The question we would ask in this context is whether the teaching of a foreign language through the use of storytelling as a reading for pleasure activity helps young learners acquire new vocabulary items.

2. Aim of the Study

This research aims at evaluating the importance of the introduction of storytelling for children under the form of fairytales in the teaching of English as a foreign language at the elementary level as a reading for pleasure activity at home to enable learners understand and ultimately acquire new vocabulary items incidentally.

3. Hypothesis

The following study is related to the nature of the relationship between storytelling and the acquisition of vocabulary items. We hypothesize, then, that such texts grouped in what we call children literature or fairytales like those by Perrault, Brothers Grimm, La Fontaine and others contribute to the development of foreign learners' vocabulary acquisition at the elementary level.

4. Assumption

In this research, we will investigate the acquisition of vocabulary of learners aged between 14 and 16 who learn English as a first foreign language at the level of the Middle School after they have been exposed to the English language as a foreign language in a classroom situation for more than five years. In this context, we assume that even if these learners are still at the elementary level, they have already developed some competence which can help them in their learning.

5. Means of Research

To achieve the aim of our study, we rely on two means of research: the questionnaire and the test.

First, two questionnaires are administered: one for teachers and the other for learners to investigate the area of vocabulary teaching and learning and the use of children literature as a context for teaching / learning.

Second, a test is held through the administration of a pre-test and a post-test to the learners to measure the degree of influence of storytelling on the acquisition of new vocabulary. The first takes place before the learners are exposed to some fairytales, and the second after.

6. Structure of the Study

This study consists of five chapters. In chapter one, we review the scope of second language acquisition, investigating some areas of research related to our study, mainly the discussion of some important views on acquisition as opposed to learning in the field of teaching on the one hand and the consideration of second language and foreign language on the other. This chapter also investigates some factors which play an important role in second language acquisition and which are in immediate relation with our research.

Chapter two is related to vocabulary teaching at the elementary level: approaches, methods and techniques used by teachers, and to vocabulary learning: the different strategies used by the learners.

Chapter three deals with storytelling in second language and foreign language learning and its impact on the teaching / learning situation.

Chapter four is devoted to the presentation of the results obtained from the analysis of the different means of research after introducing each of them, how they were administered and in what circumstances.

In Chapter five, some pedagogical instructions and implications for the teaching of English as a foreign language through reading for pleasure are presented to help teachers make their learners develop the understanding and acquisition of the vocabulary of the foreign language they are learning.

Chapter One

Second Language Acquisition

1. Introduction

2. General Definitions

2.1. Acquisition versus Learning

2.2. Second versus Foreign Language

3. Factors Affecting Second Language Acquisition

3.1. Age

3.2. Motivation

3.3. Input

3.3.1. The Role of Input in Second language Acquisition

3.3.2. Types of Input

3.4. Learning Strategies

4. Conclusion

1. Introduction

Tracing the history of language teaching and research on second language (SL) teaching, we could go back “25 centuries” as posited by Kelly (1969). This field has known a vertiginous development in the last century. During this period, we were introduced to different approaches; from the Grammar Translation to the Audio-lingual to the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) to Second Language Acquisition (SLA). Each of these approaches has its supporters and critics who consider them as success or failure in the field of teaching.

Early attempts to propose pedagogical practices on the basis of the very first SLA findings were brought out in the late 1970’s (see for example Hatch, 1978): the field of SLA did not gain much concern until late 1970’s and the beginning of the 1980’s.

In 2000, it was no longer correct to say that changes in the teaching of foreign language (FL) / SL have not been influenced by SLA research. The influence of the SLA research is now evident in textbooks and teacher training programmes and in proposals for curriculum design (see for example, Long and Crookes, 1992).

This chapter reviews SLA in terms of general definitions in the field and general factors that play an important role in the area, namely age, motivation, the role of the input and learning strategies. Other factors also play a role in SLA, but these are not of the same importance to the study as the ones presented above.

2. General Definitions

2.1. Acquisition versus Learning

Krashen (1977,1987) makes the distinction between linguistic abilities which learners develop in the absence of awareness about the language, which he calls acquisition, and what they come to know about the language thanks to formal instruction or metalinguistic analysis, which he calls learning. Concerned with acquisition, Lightbown (2000) adds that classroom research has presented additional support for the conclusion that some linguistic features are mostly “acquired” without intentional effort or pedagogical instructions and that this is applicable to informal learning environments. There is a wide agreement now that learners come to learn language elements that were never the object of any explicit teaching, and that this takes place without their awareness.

According to Krashen’s Monitor Model and his acquisition / learning hypothesis, there must be a kind of differentiation between these two processes. Acquisition is a subconscious process based on using language in informal situations for meaningful communication when learners do not focus on form but on communication. It is characterized by an unconscious internalization of linguistic rules without any formal instruction, in other words, a subconscious learning which is not influenced by any explicit tuition. In such a process, the learners stay unaware of the linguistic rules and structures they are using, and this would result in linguistic competence development. Learning is a conscious process based on formal instruction. It takes place in contexts in which there is a conscious emphasis on the structure of language, such as a classroom. What identifies it as opposed to acquisition is the presence of feedback or error correction resulting in the development of metalingual knowledge about the language.

We can summarize Krashen’s distinction between acquisition and learning in the following table:

Acquisition	Learning
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - subconscious process - informal situation - no focus on form - unconscious internalization of linguistic rules - linguistic competence development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - conscious process - formal instruction - emphasis on the structure of language - presence of feed back and error correction - development of metalingual knowledge about language

Table 1: Krashen’s Distinction between Acquisition and Learning

Ellis (1990) suggests a similar distinction between Learning and Acquisition. He calls the former “formal” training, which according to him takes place in the classroom and includes intentional planned trials to give form to the learning development and the latter “apprenticeship” which takes place thanks to observations and practice in a kind of informal setting. Classroom research has provided additional support for the incidental learning of some linguistic features. These are “acquired” without intentional effort or pedagogical guidance.

Therefore, we can say that SLA is sometimes contrasted with SL Learning on the supposition that they are different processes. The term “acquisition” is used to refer to picking up a SL through exposure, whereas the term “learning” is used to refer to the conscious study of a SL. However, some researchers, and among them Ellis (1985), kept an open mind about whether this is a real distinction, and use both

terms interchangeably, irrespective of whether a conscious or subconscious process is involved.

2.2. Second versus Foreign Language

Researches in language acquisition have widely studied the question of whether it is more correct to use the terminology “second” than “foreign”, or which is more appropriate to use in some learning situation: “second” or “foreign”, or whether we just consider both terms as alike so that they can be used interchangeably. According to Littlewood (1984), the distinction made between “second” and “foreign” concerns more the function of the language in society. He explains that a SL has social functions within the community where it is learnt. In other words, it is used in administration, or as a medium of communication in some situations. The term “second” then indicates mostly that the language has communicative functions inside the society where the learner lives (the case of English in Nigeria or French in Algeria in postcolonial years). In some countries, the SL can even reach the status of a lingua franca, whereas a FL, always according to Littlewood (ibid), is learnt mainly for contact outside one’s own community. This means that the language has no established functions inside the learner’s community but is used primarily for communicating with outsiders.

Some researchers made the distinction “second” versus “foreign” because of the situation in which the language is learnt or acquired. They feel it necessary to distinguish between a language acquired in a “natural” setting that is to say among native speakers in their native environment, and a language acquired in a tutored setting – in a classroom – whether with a native speaker or not. In sum, they referred to the language learnt after one’s mother tongue in a natural environment as “second” and the one learnt in the classroom as “foreign”.

Ellis (1985), in his study of SLA, suggests that the latter is not meant to be different from FL acquisition or contrast with it in any way. In fact, he maintains that SLA is used as a general term that includes both naturalistic acquisition and classroom acquisition. What is important according to him is not the situation in

which acquisition takes place but the process of acquisition itself. He posits that it is an open question to find out whether the way in which someone acquires a language other than his mother tongue in these two situations (natural versus tutored) is the same or differs from one situation to another.

Ellis (1997) proposes “second language” as being any language that is learned subsequent to the mother tongue. Following this view, all other languages an Algerian learner, for example, is exposed to after acquiring his mother tongue (Algerian Arabic or Tamazight) would be a second language. He indicates again that “second” is not intended to contrast with “foreign”, and explains that whether one is learning a language naturally, or learning it in a classroom through instruction, it is generally speaking of SLA .

Lightbown (op.cit.) tackles the question, exposing the factor of time (or rather lack of time) available for contact with the language. She explains that children living in a SL environment are in a daily contact with the target language community: they have thousands of hours of contact with it, through friends as well as school; when FL learning is limited in classroom instruction, and the number of hours of contact with the language is much more limited.

Through the investigation of the different points of view and hypotheses concerning the field of language acquisition, it has been shown that there is no real agreement about the use of these terms (SL / FL). The different studies and researches have given rise to many hypotheses that were based on several facts. However, these hypotheses neither converge nor contradict each other. This is mainly due to the nature of their subject matter: language. So, more investigations and studies are needed to comfort one hypothesis or another, or even bring out new ones so that they can help understand the way in which people learn a language other than their mother tongue.

3. Factors Affecting Second Language Acquisition

Studies based on the idea of individual differences in learning agree on the factors that play a role in developing the faculty for learning languages. For example, Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991), list as the most common ones – and we think are the most important ones: age, motivation, input and learning strategies.

3.1. Age

The decision about how and what to teach is mainly related to the age of the learners. This is why age is one of the most under discussion matters in SL / FL acquisition. There are different views about the role of age and its importance in this field, and many explanations of how it affects this process have been exposed.

Someone can learn a SL / FL either in a classroom environment or in a natural one at any age. The question which has generated much argumentation is whether the age at which a learner starts to be in contact with a SL / FL affects her / his acquisition of that language or not. Some people claim that SL / FL acquisition is the same process and just as successful as whether the learner begins as a child or an adult. Others put the emphasis on the differences of learners in terms of category of age. They differentiate between children's learning, that of adolescents and adults, in relationship with their different needs, competences and cognitive skills. The strategies used in learning by the different categories are also considered as different.

It has been widely observed that children learn second languages more easily and in a more proficient way than adults do. This phenomenon has led to the hypothesis that there is an optimal age, or a critical period (Lenneberg, 1967) or a sensitive period (Oyama, 1976) for SL learning. Penfield and Roberts (1959) observed brain-damaged patients, following a disease or an injury. They noted that complete recovery of language was possible only when the brain damage happened before the age of nine to twelve. From this, they concluded that this is due to neural plasticity of the brain when the areas of this one adapt to different functions that cannot be subject to any alteration. They pointed that this period falls within the first

ten years of life after which native like mastery of a first language or a SL becomes difficult, if not impossible.

Lenneberg (ibid) followed the same path as Penfield and Roberts and found that injuries to the right hemisphere caused more language problems in children than in adults. He also found that in the case of children who underwent surgery in the left hemisphere, no speech disorders resulted, whereas with the adults almost total language loss occurred. He developed, the Critical Period Hypothesis, and added that the difficulty in language mastery was due to the lateralisation of language function in the left hemisphere of the brain. The evidence supporting this argument is that damage to the left hemisphere of children's brain before they reach twelve would result in the transfer of language function to the right hemisphere, whereas after this age, such transfer would rarely take place if never.

Steinberg (1993), also, defines the critical period or the critical age for SL / FL learning as a period or age beyond which learning a language would be difficult if not impossible. His view is mostly based on neural studies of the flexibility of the brain. He argues that once the critical period is over, language learning would no longer be based on the specific innate capacities available to the young child, and responsible for the first language acquisition but would depend on general learning abilities becoming thus "an artificial, laborious process" as proposed by Littlewood (op.cit.), or "learning" instead of "acquiring" as suggested by Krashen (1977) who refers to the critical period as an incident of "shift" from acquisition to learning. Krashen adds that adults do not necessarily stop acquiring; they continue doing it at least to some extent. Seliger (1978; cited in Ellis, 1990) believes that there are different critical periods for the acquisition of different aspects of language. Long (1981; cited in Ellis, 1990) holds the same view and suggests a critical period for the acquisition of every aspect of the language. However, Genese (1987) regards what was adopted as the Critical Period Hypothesis as just concerning first language competence and do not necessarily apply to SL / FL. He suggests that in SL / FL learning, a new set of skills is learned for the first time.

The Critical Period Hypothesis is often confused with the notion that “Younger is better” (young children acquire a SL / FL easier than adults do) in SL / FL acquisition. However, teaching a foreign language at a very early age can sometimes result in poor mastery of that language and in educational difficulties with long term negative consequences. In the context of the FL classroom, the relevance of the Critical Period Hypothesis is questionable. The reality is that perfect mastery of a target language is rarely attained even when learners begin at an early age, and this for many reasons. One of them is that learners in a FL environment usually have only the teacher as a model of a proficient speaker, and even the latter may not offer a native-like language model. All other input or contact with language, mainly oral, comes from the other learners. Thus, learners who hear and understand each other’s interlanguage varieties inevitably reinforce some of the non-target aspects of that interlanguage (Lightbown 1985).

For many years, classroom-based research has suggested that, in instructional settings, the age at which instructions begin is less important than the intensity of the instructions and the continuation of exposure over a sufficient period of time. In addition, evidence suggests that age does not affect the way in which language is acquired but it shows that learners appear to process linguistic data in the same way, irrespective of how old they are. Therefore, the starting age has no effect on the route of acquisition, even if there may be differences in the acquisitional order because these are not considered as being the result of age. In fact, the starting age affects the rate and degree of success in learning. For example, in terms of grammar and vocabulary, it was shown that adolescent learners do better than both children and adults when the period of the exposure is the same. As a result, we can say that both the number of years of exposure and the starting age affect the level of success.

It has been proved true that children have a faster emphatic capacity than adults in learning a new language; they have no negative attitudes towards speakers of that language. However, adult learners have some cognitive and affective advantages over children especially when languages are learned in a classroom situation with much emphasis on formal correctness. Empirical evidence showed as complementation to

the notion “Younger is better” that younger is better but older is faster, and this is not in agreement with the Critical Period Hypothesis predictions.

Long-term studies have revealed that younger learners are better at what concerns the final level of attainment, especially at native-like pronunciation which is only achieved by those who start at an early age (Larsen-Freeman and Long, op.cit.). However, Neufeld (1979), through an experiment he held in Canada with adult learners aged between nineteen and twenty, suggests that adults do not lose their ability to attain a perfect accent. Besides, it was shown by Snow and Hoefnagel-Höhle (1978) that when the teaching situation was the same, older children were better than both adults and younger children even at pronunciation. In fact, by consciously studying linguistic rules and applying them, older learners can learn about language, which is not the same for children who consider language as a tool for expressing meaning, and as Halliday (1973) showed, the young child responds not so much to what language is as to what language does. A cognitive explanation to language learning can help understand why adolescents learn more rapidly than children do. The meta-awareness that comes with formal operation (Piaget) may facilitate learning that is more efficient. The adolescent cannot only “pick up” language as a child would do, but he can supplement this process by conscious study.

Everybody in research education agrees with the importance of the study of age as one of the major factors in the field of language acquisition. However, there is not one view of the real role that it may have in helping acquiring or learning a SL / FL or explaining the process.

3.2. Motivation

People have different reasons that cause them to do some actions or to refuse doing others. This construct belongs to the sphere of psychology of learning, and psychologists refer to it as motivation.

Corder (1967) states that in language teaching, given motivation, a human being will inevitably learn a language if s /he is exposed to data of that language. Motivation, then, is that energizer which drives forward the learning operation for

success. However, MacNamara (1973) suggests that in matters of motivation, the one that takes place in a classroom is completely different from that found in a natural setting. Therefore, each one has to be treated and studied differently. It is widely recognized that motivation is of an immense importance for successful SL / FL acquisition. It affects the degree of attainment to which individual learners persevere in learning the SL / FL, the types of learning behaviour and their real achievement, as proposed by Ellis (1994). However, there is less argument about what motivation really consists of.

The principal point in researches is the one associated with Gardner and Lambert's works (1972) based on the assumption that the basic determinants of motivation are the learner's overall goals and orientations. This corresponds to the learner's attitudes to the target language called integrative motivation, and the need to learn it, that is instrumental motivation. With an integrative motivation, the learner is interested in the language of a community to the point s/he wishes to identify with the people's culture and adopt distinctive characteristics of their behaviour, whether linguistic or non- linguistic. With an instrumental motivation, a person learns a language as a tool for some pragmatic purposes. The learner may make efforts to learn a SL / FL for some mainly functional reasons, for example, learning directed at passing an examination, furthering career opportunities or facilitating study of other subjects through the medium of the SL / FL. An instrumental motivation is widely observed in settings where learners think the SL would open up educational and economic opportunities for them. Concerning English, the fact that it has the status of an international language, the language of technology, and the first language in the matter of use, would perhaps explain the effectiveness of the instrumental motivation in most FL settings where learners feel they belong to an international community and learn English as an international language, and not with any reference to a community of speakers of English. Littlewood (op.cit.) believes that the two kinds of motivation are not mutually exclusive, since a mixture of both integrative and instrumental reasons motivates most learners.

Another assumption of research is that motivation can be the cause of achievement of a successful learning. When having such effect on learning, it is said to be causative. This same learning can also influence it. In this case, it is considered as resultative. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) indicate that students who have experienced success in learning develop confidence in their ability to learn, and those who have not been successful, would develop a negative attitude towards their ability to learn. This explains the behaviour of some learners who believe that their failure is due to the fact that they are "not good at languages" or "not interested in learning languages". Therefore, they make no effort to improve their language learning.

In some learning situations, it may not be the learners' general reasons for learning a SL / FL that are crucial in determining their motivation; it is rather other intrinsic aspects to the learner that rise up as the learning happens. In this sense, we usually describe two kinds of motivation referred to as "intrinsic motivation" and "extrinsic motivation". Researches in learning languages have emphasized them as necessitating a need for investigation (see for example, Crookes and Schmidt, 1990; cited in Ellis, 1994). Intrinsic motivation has to do with the self; learners tend to take pleasure and enjoy learning a language for its own sake. Extrinsic motivation comes from outside the self; the learning would be the result of interest in the rewards or fear from punishment that would follow success or failure. Both kinds of motivation can be found in the same situation.

Motivation can also be caused by variety in the classroom: task motivation. Learners may find the kinds of learning tasks they are asked to do enjoyable and thus motivating. We can say that, in this case, motivation involves the arousal and maintenance of curiosity and interest on the part of the learners who feel personally involved in learning activities. So that this takes place, learning activities should not only consider content and structures, but also process which is mainly a matter of time organization. Very often, teachers are so concerned with the lessons being completed in the set time that they do not allow their students time to learn in their way. What is suggested is that there should be more time to accomplish a learning task, with some kind of warmth that welcomes learners to contribute and give the task

of learning serious consideration. Crookes and Schmidt (1991: 498-502) define motivation as being:

Interest in and enthusiasm for the materials used in class; persistence with the learning activity, as indicated by learners' level of attention or involvement for a longer period, and levels of concentration and enjoyment.

Such a definition highlights the delicate role of a good teacher to enhance his learners' motivation (McDonough, 1981). The teacher has to be dynamic and lively to involve the students in the learning situation and make them feel that they are part of it if not the most important one since the success of any lesson depends on the learners' participation.

Motivation is thus clearly a highly complex phenomenon. The different types of motivation cited should be seen as complementary rather than as distinct and in opposition. Furthermore, motivation is dynamic in nature; it is not something that the learner has or does not have, but rather something that varies from one moment to the next, depending on the learning context. It is the role of the teacher to create a motivating context, to exploit it in a way that makes his learners enjoy learning and as thus learn.

3.3. Input

The term input has become specific to language teaching. It stands for the language that is addressed to the SL learner by either a native speaker, or a teacher or another SL learner. This language can either be spoken or written which means that the interaction can be either through speech (direct or indirect) or through texts to be written or read.

3.3.1. The Role of Input in Second Language Acquisition

We are most of the time confronted to the view that one has “to live in the country” in order to achieve a full contact with its language and so, reach a real proficiency in that SL. It is widely believed that the informal real world environment is always superior to the classroom or the formal environment. In fact, if the SL classroom benefits from an input that is favourable for acquisition, it would be possible to overcome the informal environment, and give a better learning at least up to an intermediate level. Therefore, there is a need to investigate the input in both environments and try to find out how each of these two affects the learner’s acquisition. In this context, many researchers agree on the fact that we acquire language via input and as a result, several approaches have been developed, studying its nature and its role; namely the behaviourist, the mentalist and the interactionist approach.

The behaviourist view emphasizes the importance of the linguistic environment which is treated in terms of stimuli and feedback. The learner is considered as “a language-producing machine”. According to this model of learning, input comprises the language made available to the learners in the form of stimuli and that which they receive as feedback and reinforcement. This approach emphasizes the possibility of shaping SLA by manipulating the input to provide suitable stimuli and by ensuring that adequate feedback is always available. Acquisition is thus controlled from outside by external factors, and the learner is viewed as a passive medium.

The mentalist or the nativist view minimizes the role of the input and explains language development primarily in terms of the learners’ internal processing mechanism. In this approach, the learners are considered as “good initiators”, and their brains are equipped to learn language; they need only minimal exposure to input in order to trigger acquisition by activating the internal mechanism.

Interactionists emphasize the importance of both input and internal language processing. They argue that the acquisition of language is the result of an interaction of the linguistic environment and the learner’s internal mechanisms. Thus, whereas, a

behaviourist view of language acquisition seeks to explain progress purely in terms of what happens outside the learner and the mentalist one emphasizes learner-internal factors, the interactionist combines both views and sees language development as the product of both input factors and innate mechanisms.

3.3.2. Types of Input

Research has shown through different studies that the language used in natural settings and that used in classroom settings are different; they represent two different registers. What has caused this differentiation is the claim of many researchers, among them Ellis (1990), that we cannot build our understanding of the acquisition of a SL in a classroom on the basis of what has been obtained from naturalistic SLA research. Following this position, we started to make a difference between what we call “Foreigner talk”, “Teacher talk” and “Interlanguage talk” and how a comprehensible input facilitates language acquisition.

According to Long (1981), “Foreigner talk” is of two types: simplifications, without affecting grammatical rules and an oversimplification leading to ungrammatical speech. It is used by native speakers when they address SL learners, not considering them as “learners” but just as non-native speakers. Foreign talk is said to resemble “motherese”, the kind of communication the mothers use with their children.

After the rejection of the language teaching method as being the principal determinant in successful learning, more interest has been directed to the study of the language used by the teacher, the “Teacher talk”. This language is treated as a register with its own specific formal and interactional proprieties. Some adjustments made by the teacher happen at all language levels: pronunciation, lexis and grammar, but in general, ungrammatical speech modifications do not occur. Such interactional adjustment as repetition and prompting are widely used (Gaies, 1977, 1979). Studies of “Teacher talk” can be divided into those that investigate the kind of language that teachers use in language lessons and those that investigate the language they use in subject lessons (for example, Biology or Mathematics) involving SL learners.

“Interlanguage talk” consists of the language that learners receive as input when addressed by other learners. It is sometimes considered as the primary source of input for many learners, but this depends greatly on the type of the classroom, whether it is a classroom in a natural environment or a classroom in a foreign environment. From the available literature, we could deduce that it is certain that a classroom in a natural environment differs greatly from that in a foreign environment in many aspects. For example, in a natural environment, in a formal teaching of the SL, the learners receive an input that is part of their everyday life out of the classroom and which they may apply at once. Therefore, they feel it necessary to use it among each other, especially if the class is composed of learners with different mother tongues. This is not the case in a foreign environment where learners, most of the time, communicate using their mother tongue, even within the classroom. So, each of the two settings of teaching has to be treated and studied differently.

A number of researchers have considered how the input is made comprehensible in order to help acquisition. The first of the most influential researchers in this domain is Krashen. In his theory of SLA, he explains how the learner acquires a SL. He puts forward “The Input Hypothesis” which considers that the learner progresses along the natural order of acquisition when s/he receives SL input that is one step beyond her / his current stage of linguistic competence. If a learner is at a stage i , then acquisition takes place when s/he is exposed to “comprehensible input” that belongs to level $i+1$. Krashen (1987: 27) writes:

a necessary (but not sufficient) condition to move from stage i to stage $i+1$ is that the acquirer understands input that contains $i+1$, where “understands” means that the acquirer is focussed on the meaning and not the form of the message.

In this context, Krashen emphasizes linguistic competence, but also the use of context, our knowledge of the world and our extra linguistic information that help us understand language. Long (1983, 1985) suggests three steps to explain how

comprehensible input affects acquisition. In the first step, we have to show that linguistic adjustments promote comprehensible input. In the second step, we have to demonstrate that comprehensible input promotes acquisition. In the third step, we deduce that linguistic adjustments promote acquisition. By linguistic adjustments, Long means mainly how input is comprehensible, and according to him, this may be done by the recourse to the use of structures and vocabulary which the learner already knows. Although linguistic modifications, for example simpler syntax and vocabulary, help comprehension, they do not do so consistently. On the contrary, elaborative modifications (those that contribute to redundancy such as repetition, paraphrase, use of synonyms and other speech) have a consistent effect on comprehension. Comprehensible input facilitates acquisition, but it is not a necessary condition for it; it does not guarantee that acquisition will take place. There is considerable evidence relating comprehensible input to acquisition, but much of it is controversial; there is little in the way of direct evidence, and what there is relates mostly to the acquisition of vocabulary rather than syntax or morphology.

3.4. Learning Strategies

In the early studies of SLA, research emphasised the acquisition of the syntax and morphology of the SL. Nowadays, more emphasis is directed towards the study of the strategies that learners use to facilitate their understanding and learning.

Faerch and Kasper (1980) define “strategy” as being a plan for controlling the order in which some operations are to be performed to improve learning. In this sense, learning strategies are the particular techniques that learners use when they try to learn a SL. In other words, they are the means by which the learners handle the SL input in order to improve the linguistic knowledge. These strategies are mainly problem solving, that is, learners employ them when they are faced with some problems, such as how to remember a word. They can be behavioural like repeating words, or mental like using the linguistic or situational context.

The investigation of learner strategies emphasized the relationship between the input and internal processing in order to discover how each one affects the other. An

optimal input is the one that learners can handle by means of learning strategies which cannot be observed directly; they can only be inferred from language learner behaviour. Inevitably, the literature on learning strategies can only be based on guessing and on theory. Early studies of learner strategies were based on Error Analysis. One of the main types of errors this field takes into consideration is transfer errors. These errors are very significant in the sense that they help learners to learn, tell the teachers how learning is taking place and especially give the researcher a view on how the FL is learned and what strategies are used by the learners. Efforts in research concentrated on the “good language learner”. Rubin (1975) and Naiman et al. (1978) have identified strategies reported by students or observed in language learning situations that appear to contribute to learning.

Various kinds of strategies are used by learners at different stages to acquire a SL / FL: transfer, for example, carrying over rules from the native language to the SL / FL; overgeneralization – the generalization of an already acquired rule to all the items in the SL / FL; inference – the means by which the learner forms hypothesis by attending to input; memorization through repetition drills and other devices. Transfer and overgeneralization are both seen as manifestations of the same basic strategy for relying on prior knowledge to facilitate new learning (Taylor, 1975 and McLaughlin, 1978). Not all researchers agree on this, For example, Faerch and Kasper (op.cit.) argue that this kind of strategies is of non learning since they prevent the formation of hypotheses.

There are different explanations of how the learners receive the input and relate it to their existing knowledge so that it would be part of it. Generally, in order to learn a SL and use it, learners may use cognitive strategies which are part of their procedural knowledge – the “Knowing how” used to deal with SL input for acquisition and for use (Ellis, 1985). Cognitive strategies are of two types: learning strategies used for SL / FL learning (devices for internalizing or automatizing SL / FL and knowledge); and production and communicative strategies used for the speaking and the writing of the SL / FL (devices for using existing resources automatically or for compensating for inadequate resources). As posited by Tarone (1980), learning

strategies are different from production and communicative strategies; they even contrast with them in the sense that the first are considered mainly as reception strategies through which the learner adds new items to his / her knowledge of the SL / FL, while through production and communicative strategies, the learner overcomes some difficulties in using the SL / FL. Learning strategies explain how learners acquire language, while production and communicative strategies how learners use the language.

The study of learning strategies is of potential value to language teachers. If those strategies that are crucial for learning can be identified, it may prove possible to train students to use them. However, research on training SL learners to use learning strategies has been limited almost exclusively to application with vocabulary tasks (O'Malley and Chamot, *op.cit.*).

4. Conclusion

The field of SLA has been the subject of tremendous studies and investigations, but many aspects still need more inquiry. Researchers have postulated different views and theories that have given rise to different terminology which is still a matter of discussion. They sometimes converge on some aspects of acquisition, in which case the different terminology is used interchangeably, but sometimes they diverge in their views about other aspects, and so the terminology used is not always agreed on. What, perhaps, is a matter of agreement is the existence of different factors which influence SLA in a way or another, like age, motivation, input and learning strategies, factors covered in this chapter, which are the most commonly cited factors in the different empirical studies in the field.

Chapter Two

Vocabulary Teaching / Learning

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- 2. Definition**
- 3. Vocabulary Description**
 - 3.1. Lexicography**
 - 3.2. Lexicology**
 - 3.2.1. Word Classes**
 - 3.2.2. Word Formation**
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- 4. Teaching Vocabulary**
 - 4.1. Vocabulary in the Major Teaching Methods**
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- 5. Learning Vocabulary**
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- 6. Conclusion**

1. Introduction

It would be impossible to learn a language without learning its vocabulary, its words. River (1968) posits that language is not dry bones but a living, growing entity, clothed in the flesh of words. A view that meets Harmer's (1991) who states that if language structures make up the skeleton of language, it is vocabulary that provides the vital organs and the flesh. Therefore, an ability to use grammatical structure does not have any potential for expressing meaning unless words are used.

Beginners often manage to communicate in English using individual words; and they can most of the time convey meaning without necessarily having acquired grammar. This is evidence that in learning a language, grammar is not sufficient and, thus, more importance has to be given to vocabulary. However, vocabulary instruction and learning have always been secondary to grammar, and vocabulary has been considered as only a means and not an end in language teaching and learning. Classroom blackboards are often littered with masses of new lexical items and learners often compile word lists rarely helpful in their learning.

Vocabulary has been the object of scientific studies, namely lexicography and lexicology and the concern of development in methods investigating how vocabulary can best be handled by the teacher and the learner in the SL / FL classroom.

2. Definition

The term “vocabulary” is interchangeably used with the term “lexis” – a technical term used in the linguistic study of this aspect of language and which draws a distinction between lexical items, syntactic words and phonological words.

Vocabulary is known as evolutionary in the sense that constant changes are made all the time because of the introduction and omission of words in a language. It is for that reason that Rivers (op.cit.) defines it as that aspect of language which continues to develop and evolve for as long as one has contact with a language whether it be one’s first, second or third language.

The definition of vocabulary often relates to the different views about the nature and use made of vocabulary. The Oxford Dictionary (1989) defines vocabulary as the total number of words that make up a language. In the Longman dictionary (1995), vocabulary is defined as all the words that someone knows, learns or uses. Hatch and Brown (1995) consider “vocabulary” as a list or set of words for a particular language or a list or set of words that an individual speaker of a language might use.

Todd (1987) argues that there is no one satisfactory definition. He explains that there is an orthographic, morphological, lexical and semantic aspect to the word. The orthographic word has a space on either side of it. A morphological word considers form only. A lexical word considers all the forms a word can take and which are clearly related by meaning as one. A semantic word considers the distinction between items that may be morphologically identical but differ in meaning.

3. Vocabulary Description

In order to describe and study vocabulary in a convenient way, we must have recourse to lexicography and lexicology: two branches of Linguistics that are concerned with the study of vocabulary and its different forms and uses.

3.1. Lexicography

The act and practice of compiling, comparing, defining and grouping lexical items in a book form is known as lexicography. It is in other words, the act of making the inventory of the words of a language and gathering it, composing a book called a dictionary. In a dictionary, the list of the lexical items of a language is put in an alphabetical order with information about the spelling, the pronunciation, the meaning, the usage... Since lexicography has the objective of realizing dictionaries – practical works intended for use by all categories of people – it tries to make a synthesis of different fields of knowledge from etymology, lexicology and semantics. The lexicographer has the function of providing to a semantic description of words that serve as a lexical entry and that are followed by a definition and examples illustrating the different situations of use. The definition has to take into consideration the polysemy and the homonymy of the lexical units as well as their use and usage in different contexts, either literary or extracted from the ordinary language. It also distinguishes between the formal and the informal use of the language.

This inventory of words varies according to the function the dictionary is designed for. The most common one is the language dictionary – giving information about spelling, pronunciation, meaning, usage, grammar. Another very used type is the encyclopedic dictionary that treats different domains of knowledge defining concepts. Other dictionaries are specific to certain specialized domains like medicine, data engineering and other scientific, technical fields, some other dictionaries deal with only synonyms and antonyms or with idioms. Dictionaries can be monolingual

(using one language), bilingual (using two languages), or multilingual (using more than two languages) to explain the lexical item or give the translation.

3.2. Lexicology

Lexicology – that branch of Linguistics that studies and analyses the vocabulary items of a language as well as their meanings and evolution (Hartman and Stork 1972) – is mostly concerned with how words are classified (word classes), how they are formed – by affixation or compounding – (word formation), and how the different meanings of words are recognized (word meaning).

3.2.1. Word Classes

Lexical items referred to as parts of speech in every language are of a limited number. In Linguistics terminology, they are called “word classes” since they classify words according to the way they function. The English language is classified in eight major different “parts of speech”: nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, prepositions, determiners and conjunctions.

- **A noun** is a word or a group of words that represents:
 - A person: “Michael”, “teacher” or “police officer”.
 - An animal: “tiger”.
 - A place: “England”, “London”, “school”.
 - A thing or activity: “coffee”, “tennis”.
 - A concept: “happiness”.

A noun can be:

- The subject of a verb: “**The film** started.”
- or - The object of a verb: “We liked **the film.**”
- **A verb** is a word or a group of words that expresses:
 - An action: - John **has helped** me.
 - He **will fly** tomorrow.
 - A process: John **became** angry.

- A state: John **resembles** his brother.

A verb form varies in terms of tense and mood.

• **An adjective** is a word that describes a noun; it refers to:

- A quality of a person: “an **old** man”

- A quality of a thing: -“a **cold** day”, or

-“this apple seems **rotten**”

As shown in these examples, adjectives occur next to a noun or they are separated from the noun by a verb.

• **An adverb** is a word that describes:

- A verb: - He speaks **loudly**.

- I live **here**.

- An adjective: It is **too** heavy.

- Another adverb: She walked **very** strangely.

- The whole sentence: **Today**, we have chosen our representative.

As seen in the above examples, the information added is generally about manner, place, degree, and time.

• **A pronoun** is a word that can be used instead of a noun or a noun phrase:

- **He** (John) met **her** (his wife) on **a train**.

• **A preposition** is a word or a group of words which usually shows:

- Location: The baby was asleep **in the bed**.

- Time: -The film will begin **at 7p.m.**

-We stayed in a cottage **for the summer**.

- Cause and purpose: - They died **from exposure**.

- She is applying **for a better job**.

They are always followed by:

- A noun: Does this train stop **at Oxford?**

- A noun phrase: They will finish the work **in the present month**.

- A pronoun: He put his money **in it**.

Sometimes, they follow a verb: They **laughed at** the idea

- A **determiner** is a word that qualifies the noun. A determiner is:
 - An article: - Definite Article: “The”
 - Indefinite Article: “A / An”
 - A Demonstrative Adjective: “This / These”, “That / Those”
 - A Possessive Adjective: “My, Your, His, Her, Its, Our, Your, Their”
 - A Determiner of quality: For example; “some, any”
- A **conjunction** is a word that joins two units in a sentence. Conjunctions are of two types:
 - 1- Co-ordinating conjunctions which join units of equal significance in a sentence like words, phrases or sentences:
 - Jack **and** Ann are married.
 - Give the letter to Jack **but** give the present to Ann.
 - 2- Subordinating conjunctions which subordinate a clause to a main one:
 - He said **that** he was tired.

3.2.2. Word Formation

Sometimes, a word is subject to change in its form, something that would also cause a change in its meaning and class. This phenomenon, called “word building” or “word formation”, takes three forms: affixation, compounding and conversion.

Affixation is the operation of adding a letter or a group of letters to the beginning of a word called prefixation and/or to its end called suffixation, in order to modify its meaning and at times change its form from one class to another.

- Prefixation: un + true → untrue
- Suffixation: true + ly → truly
- Prefixation + Suffixation: dis + taste + ful → distasteful

Compounding consists of joining two or more separate words (with separate meanings) to form a new word very different in meaning from the ones which make it. We have:

- Adjective compounds: hard + working → hardworking.
- Verb compounds: to baby + to sit → to baby-sit

- Noun compounds:

- Noun + noun: table + tennis → table tennis
- Possessive noun + noun: friend + brother → friend's brother
- Prepositional structure: a book + fear → a book of fear

Other word classes can also combine to form a new word:

- Noun + verb → Noun: hair + do → hairdo
- Adjective + noun → Noun: blue + bell → bluebell
- Adjective + verb → Adjective: wide + spread → widespread
- Verb + noun → Noun: scare + crow → scarecrow
- Verb + adverb → Noun: come + back → comeback
- Adverb + verb → Noun: down + fall → downfall

Sometimes, the two parts of the compound are separated by a hyphen, but this is used only in new compounds: the hyphen is generally dropped when the compound starts to be familiar, but when two vowels come together, it is maintained: co-operation, take-off.

Conversion – also called zero affixation – is the fact that an item may be used in different word classes without changing its form. For example, the word “swim” is a noun “a swim” or a verb “to swim”.

In some cases of conversion, the words have the same form but a different pronunciation which makes them belong to different word classes. For example, “present” /'preznt/ (noun or adjective) and “present” /pri'zent/ (verb).

Some may involve pronunciation and spelling changes. For example, “advice” /əd'vais/ and “advise” /əd'vaiz/.

3.2.3. Word Meaning

The meaning of words and their relationship is often transmitted through the use of polysemy, synonymy, antonymy, or hyponymy.

- Polysemy:

In a language, the same arrangement of sounds and letters can have several meanings, polysemy, which means “many meanings”. The precise meaning of the word is derived from the context it is used in; for example, fair hair, country fair, a fair person.

- Synonymy:

Synonyms are words that have different forms but identical meanings. However, it is rarely found that two words would have exactly the same meaning on every occasion because if they were, it would be nonsense to have both words in the language. According to Rinoluceri (1993; cited in Bowen and Marks, 1994), no word can ever be synonymous with another in just the same way as identical twins are not carbon copies of one another. Sometimes, sharing a general sense, some words can be used with the same meaning in some contexts but on closer inspection, they can reveal conceptual or even emotional differences. Palmer (1976) states that an apparent synonym with a similar or identical denotation may on examination prove to have a different connotation. For example, the words “single” and “spinster” have the same conceptual meaning that of “unmarried” and both are used for women, but the word “spinster” has a series of associations which would not be true of a “single woman” like old, isolated or a sad figure. Some words can be considered as synonyms, but cannot be used interchangeably in some contexts, for example, “big” and “large” are considered as being synonyms, but we say a “big” man not a “large” man, and a “large” amount, not a “big” amount. Therefore, it is preferable to talk about synonyms as being those words that have nearly the same meaning and add that this depends most of the time on the context they are encountered in.

-Antonymy:

Most of the time, we define a word, generally an adjective, by referring to its opposite. We usually try to identify the feature on which the two words contrast. For example, we explain the meaning of “full” by saying that it is the opposite of “empty”; we understand the meaning of “cheap” thanks to its opposite “expensive”. Other forms of antonymy are what is referred to as converses, for example, “sell /

buy” or “push / pull” or gradable antonyms, for example, “hot / cold” which can be represented as two poles between which we can add other words as “warm, cool”.

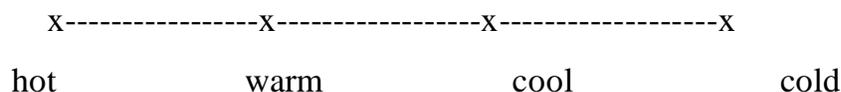


Figure1: Gradable Antonyms “hot / cold”

- Hyponymy:

Sometimes, the meaning of a word is included in the meaning of another one. For instance, words like “banana”, “apple”, “orange” are all hyponyms of the superordinate “fruit”; in other words, they all share a common sense. We can imagine these words as the members of one family and the superordinate as the family name, as represented in the following tree diagram:

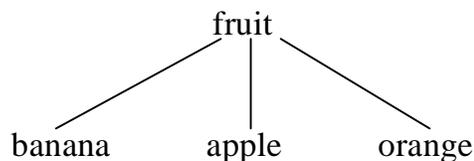


Figure 2: Hyponyms of the Superordinate “fruit”

Both Leech (1974) and Lyons (1977) observe that the meaning of words (their sense and denotation) is internal to the language to which they belong. Therefore, every language has its own semantic structure in the same way as it has its own grammatical and phonological one. In language learning and teaching, sense relations or word meanings are of a primary importance. Teachers argue that grouping items together by polysemy, synonymy, antonymy or hyponymy helps them in getting an appropriate meaning to some words in the context of their lessons.

4. Teaching Vocabulary

4.1. Vocabulary in the Major Teaching Methods

In language teaching, there have been various directions in FL teaching from Grammar Translation, to Direct, to Audio-lingual Method, to CLT. Each of these directions has its own view on how a FL has to be taught and has treated the question of vocabulary teaching / learning according to its beliefs and principles.

In the Grammar Translation Method, great accumulation is set by the learning of many FL words. Lexis is not presented in context but in bilingual lists that are to be memorised; the arrangement of these lists and the classification of lexis follows the grammatical ordering of word classes. Textbooks, following this method, begin each lesson with very long bilingual vocabulary lists. The students have to learn these lists by heart and try to translate these words from the FL or vice versa into very complicated sentences which are most of the time beyond their level. However, it is noticed that the vocabulary learned for one unit is not reinserted in other units, and as a result, students rapidly forget a great amount of it. In addition, vocabulary teaching through the Grammar Translation Method does not allow the learners to get the meaning of words easily or at all because they are not put in any context. However, this method can, at least, help the learners have their equivalents in the mother tongue or target language.

The Direct method posited by Berlitz by the twentieth century, whose basic tenet was that SL learning is similar to first language learning, involved the students in the learning of words referring to many objects about which they can talk and to many actions they can perform. In other words, the method focuses on the learning of everyday vocabulary. The words students learn are combined not with first language equivalents but with pictures, actual objects (realia) or actions. This combination is used relying on the exclusive use of the target language.

In the 1940's, the movement of Structuralism in Linguistics has given rise to structural approaches that have relegated the learning of vocabulary behind the scene and have downgraded it to a secondary level in the learning and teaching process of a FL. The belief at that time was that in learning a new language, it is more important to master its sounds and its grammatical structures than learning its vocabulary. All what learners need, at first, is just enough elementary vocabulary to

practise the syntactic structures. At that time, different views and orientations in Linguistics and Psychology from Structuralism to Behaviourism helped the progress of the Audio-lingual Method, which was primarily for the mastery of structure. Vocabulary learning in this method is given a minor role until the students achieve a complete mastery of the elementary structural patterns and are able to express themselves freely within a limited area of language. Vocabulary teaching is contextualised; but while pronunciation and intonation are given high credit, meaning is disregarded. The view that saw vocabulary as mainly a problem of grading and selection in the teaching of foreign languages largely dominated up to the 1960's. At that time, the emergence of different works dealing with word lists knew a large success, for example, "A General Service List", a book produced by Palmer and West in 1953 which proposed a list of 2000 words that offers the opportunity of comprehension of 80 per cent of any written text.

The decline in emphasis on vocabulary learning was accelerated by movements in Linguistics that concentrated on Phonology, Morphology, or Syntax with a corresponding neglect of Semantics. However, an aspiration seemed to emerge with the advancement of notional syllabuses: notions, topics and settings seemed to bring a new life for the word. Wilkins (1972:111), deplored the neglect of vocabulary in the period dominated by the audio-lingual approaches, and wrote that if "without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed". Therefore, by the mid 1970's, we started to take care of the word and insist that it has to be learned in "context". Semantics started to play a very important role in the teaching of vocabulary; we have even started to regard vocabulary as a skill that should not be subsumed by other aspects of language. By the 1980's, came the time to assert, "If we have the vocabulary we need, it is usually possible to communicate, after a fashion" (Wallace, 1982). Following the development of CLT, many researchers (for example, Wallace, op.cit.) supported the teaching of vocabulary in relation with situations and contexts, encouraging inferences and activation of learners' previous knowledge. Allen (1983) was for the introduction of the social and

cultural components; Rivers (1983), and Gairns and Redman (1986) stressed the importance to make learners learn by themselves.

Thus, vocabulary, which was considered as a Cinderella in the teaching of foreign languages and suffered neglect for a long time, started to benefit from theoretical advances in the linguistic study of the lexicon. Nevertheless, it is not always given the consideration it deserves in the teaching programmes.

4.2. Vocabulary Selection

Several authors have proposed diverse criteria to help textbooks writers and teachers make valid decisions on the right vocabulary items to teach at every educational level. For example, Gairns and Redman (ibid.) have proposed frequency, need and level, cultural factors and expediency as being the criteria that would assure a good understanding and thus an adequate learning of vocabulary items, and that a teacher has to take into consideration in her / his teaching. High frequency words are those items that are used in different occasions either in speech or in writing. Gairns and Redman (ibid.) state that the most frequently used words should be taught first, and add that they should appear in a wide variety of texts. As concerns need and level, the vocabulary taught should correspond to the students' level and respond to their needs. For example, at an elementary level, learners will show limitations in their use of lexis, something which correlates with their needs, which is not the case of advanced learners who have wider perspectives and need to develop a larger selection. When teaching vocabulary, we also have to take into consideration that in certain countries there are topics and thus words that are very important in the SL / FL environment but have no importance in the learners' society and vice versa. Therefore, the learners' socio-cultural dimension of the language needs great consideration by teachers. Expediency is important because, in the classroom, the learners are always in need for specific types of vocabulary in order to understand the teacher or fellow students and to deal with the activities proposed to them. Hence, certain vocabulary such as grammatical terminology and activity instructions are required in a classroom.

When considering a language teaching or learning situation, we generally stress the importance made by the teacher or the material writer about which items are to be learned, and more stress is put on whether they are learned for productive use or only for purposes of recognition. Haycraft (1978) defines active or productive vocabulary as the type of language items students understand, can produce correctly and use constructively in speaking and writing, and passive vocabulary as vocabulary items that the learners recognize and understand in the context of reading or listening. However, since comprehension is not a passive activity, the term receptive is

preferred to that of passive. According to these two definitions, we perceive that there is no dichotomy between productive and receptive vocabulary but rather a continuum of knowledge. Often, an item may transit from the learners' receptive vocabulary to their productive one. This transition is described as being a gradual process depending on the times the item is encountered through learning or reading over a period of time.

Harmer (1991) points out that concrete words should be taught at lower levels, and abstract words at higher levels taking as argument for this choice the cognitive development of the learner. Besides, he considers that a word that covers many aspects; in other words, a word with multi-meanings is more useful than if it has only one very specific meaning. Thus, it has to be taught first because of its wide use in different contexts and its generation of more language.

4.3. Techniques for Teaching Vocabulary

Vocabulary teaching is often planned in the sense that the teacher chooses specific vocabulary items to be taught. Most of the time, they select high frequency words, use little slang and introduce few idioms. In their explanation of lexical terms, they make use of synonymy, antonymy or definitions. The latter are either explicit (for example, "This means x", "It's a kind of x" – using hyponymy), or implicit – through the use of intonation to convey the meaning (for example "A triangle?" – with a rising tone – "It's a geometric figure; it's got three sides." – with vocabulary adjustment, which Chaudron (1982) shows that they are major components of teacher talk. Vocabulary teaching can also be unplanned; it takes place when the need arises in the classroom for the words that have not been anticipated. During an SL / FL lesson, it often happens that learners ask for the meaning of a word or the word that expresses a given meaning. Such questions, as "What does x mean?" or "What is the word for x?" are very familiar in the SL / FL classroom. In these situations, the teacher generally supplies the needed word or meaning and goes on with the main topic of the lesson. On other occasions, when s / he feels that the vocabulary item that has just come up is unknown to her / his learners and needs to be clarified, s / he

takes the opportunity to supply the word and explore it. In most cases, s / he analyzes its form and studies its meaning(s) in different ways mainly through examples or pictures in order to make the learners record it systematically.

Bunker (1988) found that the following teaching techniques help the learners develop vocabulary:

1- Use of common and familiar words so that other new words would be easily grasped and the message understood.

2- Consistency in the use of terms: the teacher must make sure to use the same words in the same contexts in order to emphasize the meaning of these words.

3- More than five repetitions of word: it has been noticed that the number of times a word appears counts in learning it. Some researchers agree that five repetitions are enough, while others are for a repetition of a word between seven and ten times in order to develop learning.

4- Definitions of words in contexts: words cannot have a full sense unless they are put in context; explanations of words in isolation cannot help the learners' understanding and acquisition.

Bunker also argues that, some adjustments dealt with by teachers do no contribute to understanding. These are:

1- Use of short words: it is considered as arbitrary and not important whether the words used to communicate a message to the learners are short or long. Length does not affect meaning, and thus understanding.

2- Use of fewer synonyms: there is no proof that the fewer synonyms we use, the better learners understand and retain meaning.

3- Repetitions of words fewer than five times have proved not enough for retention.

Using different techniques of presentation brings variety and helps the retention of new vocabulary items. Techniques of vocabulary presentation in the classroom are divided into two groups: visual techniques and verbal techniques (Gairns and Redman, op.cit.). Visual techniques include the use of realia (real objects), pictures,

mime and gestures in order to promote the understanding and the meaningful retention of new vocabulary items. Verbal techniques are represented by the use of definitions and illustrative sentences (oral or writing), synonyms and antonyms, explanations and translation which has to be used only when other means have failed to represent meaning adequately or would be time consuming if used.

5. Learning Vocabulary

When we learn our first language or mother tongue, we develop concepts and general notions. At the same time, we learn all the ways our language community expresses these concepts and general notions. Therefore, when we approach another language, we are already in possession of many concepts; we only look for the ways to express them in the new language. In other words, we seek the right vocabulary to label them.

5.1. Learning Strategies

Language teachers must arouse interest in lexical items and teach their learners how to learn vocabulary. They must train and prepare them to deal with whatever words they may encounter after the class time and to tackle any situation in their lives. This can be achieved through guidance in the form of strategies, which can provide the language learner with the advantages of the possibility to improve vocabulary development once s / he has an access to a diverse number. Upshaw (1995) suggests four basic categories of strategies: translation, repetition and reinforcement, association and internalization. For translation, she favours the dictionary work, rather than asking the teacher or a friend (considered as human dictionaries) because such work would develop self-reliance on the part of learners. In repetition and reinforcement strategies, teachers must make learners drill themselves, every one at her / his pace in order to reinforce the meaning of a given word. In terms of associations, learners are shown how to make links between new words and old ones, or with words from their mother tongue, even if they do not have

the same meaning because the first aim is to retain them. Internalization would be the result of these strategies, which the learner has to be conscious of and should take into consideration. Rivers (1968) states that vocabulary cannot be taught. It can be presented, explained, included in all kinds of activities but ultimately, it is only the individual who learns it. She urges teachers to make learners learn how to learn vocabulary and enable them to find their own ways of expanding and organizing their word store (Rivers 1983).

5.2. Intentional Versus Incidental Learning

Vocabulary can be learnt intentionally or rather incidentally. Intentional learning results from a planned activity, intended by the teacher or the student. Incidental learning is the product of doing or learning something else; it happens without any preparation or intention on the part of the learner.

In intentional learning, the intention of the learners to learn vocabulary can be planned through different activities where the primary concern is vocabulary. These activities require the learners to:

- Make up charts and memorize them.
- Learn words in contexts.
- Learn words that are associated.
- Use new words in phrases.
- Use a dictionary when necessary.
- Carry a notebook to write down new items.

Naiman et al (1978) and Pickett (1978) cited in Ellis (1985), report how the learners develop their SL vocabulary. According to them, some learners prepare and memorize vocabulary lists by keeping a notebook where the English word, its pronunciation and its equivalent in the mother tongue are written. The arrangement of these lists is held in an idiosyncratic way. Some learners referred to the use of alphabetical lists, or associations of words by themes or topics or simply writing the words at random. Others did not attempt to keep lists; they relied on picking out key

vocabulary items from the contexts in which they were used. Others reported that they drilled themselves deliberately putting words into different sentences or reading or playing word games. The techniques – used for learning vocabulary – are similar to those used for learning other aspects of language learning such as grammar and pronunciation, but vocabulary seems to be the area that learners are most conscious of. Naiman et al. (op.cit.) concluded that the techniques associated with vocabulary learning were the most frequently used.

In incidental learning, the assumption is that new vocabulary will be picked up “incidentally”, through exposure to dialogues, reading passages and other materials without deliberate memorization being involved (Singleton 2001). According to Schmidt (2000; cited in Singleton, 2001), incidental vocabulary learning is learning through exposure when one’s attention is focused on the use of language, rather than on learning itself. Context, then, plays a very important role in assisting such learning. The general argument in favour of the notion that we acquire SL vocabulary without “special teaching” or any planned work is the same as that proposed by Nelson (1981; cited in Singleton, 2001) which is in relation with first language vocabulary acquisition. He posited that the amount of vocabulary we assimilate “by chance” doing something else than really learning is much greater than the one we are taught. Hatch and Brown (op.cit.) suggest assuring success of incidental learning. According to them, it is essential to encounter new words; that is having a source for words. This source can be any kind of material learners are used to, but what is important about it is that it has to be of interest and related to the actual need of the learners. It is also proposed that there must be variety in material: learners need various encounters with the same word in multiple sources in order to ensure its learning. However, Hulstijn (1992) supports the view that a very small number of words seemed to be acquired incidentally from any given context on any given occasion.

The term incidental has been given a more general educational meaning since it is considered as no longer specific to vocabulary only. It refers now to general learning of one thing when the learner’s focus is on doing something

else, for example to communicate (Schmidt 1994). It is in this meaning, that incidental learning has become known in the field of SL / FL pedagogy. The most frequently quoted example is learning as the by-product of reading (Krashen 1989). In many classrooms, learners have very few opportunities to acquire vocabulary through constant listening, and teachers are aware of this. Learners consider that the phase of rapid vocabulary expansion is when they move into reading. They think that the more they read, the more their knowledge of vocabulary increases. What often happens is that learners see a reading text as a very rich source of new vocabulary and generally react to any text accordingly. Clearly, this can be very beneficial since learners are exposed to new vocabulary items, especially if they encounter them in interesting reading material in which a context of familiar words helps to understand the meaning of the new vocabulary. Learning vocabulary is in a direct relationship with success in reading and vice versa. Constructing text meaning and understanding a text depends in part on the success in understanding the individual words since they are the building blocks of that text. In order to comprehend reading texts, some necessary words are to be included. These are “high frequency sight” words: those that occur so frequently in printed matter, “selection critical” words: those items necessary to the understanding of a particular selection, and old / familiar words presented with new meanings (Johnson and Pearson, 1984; cited in khairi, 1995). Krashen’s (1989) studies show that the mere reading of a text in the SL / FL causes vocabulary acquisition. This view was supported and confirmed by surprise vocabulary tests on which the readers in question performed better than those who had not seen the texts.

6. Conclusion

In the process of acquiring a FL / SL, learners need to learn to understand a large amount of words. This seems self evident, but it was not many years ago that the vocabulary content of language lessons was deliberately restricted until students had developed a certain mastery of basic structures, or it was taught in an inadequate

way; the learners were not required to understand. Vocabulary teaching / learning has greatly developed: many strategies and techniques for teaching / learning vocabulary have been introduced. Vocabulary is now given more importance as a detached aspect from teaching grammar. Learner centred approaches in teaching have taken over teacher centred ones in language teaching. Nowadays, we concentrate more on the learners and how we can make them develop strategies in learning by themselves. The most important one has proved to be that of incidental learning where reading texts is one of the most appropriate means to achieve effective vocabulary learning.

Chapter Three

Storytelling in

Second Language / Foreign Language learning

1. Introduction

2. Nature of a Tale

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2.3. The Oral and the Written Form of Tales

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5. Conclusion

1. Introduction

“Once upon a time” – a formula which sense is lost – is the sesame which opens the marvellous world of the tale. Reading, listening to a tale, a legend, a myth or a fable is an activity which appeals to all ages. Great teachers like Plato, Confucius and others used stories to connect with their listeners. In our times, parents and teachers alike know how children, particularly, derive great pleasure from these types of narratives.

In the context of classroom language teaching, there are many reasons why we want to present stories. We tell stories to come to terms with the world: they provide a perspective to understand what has happened in the past and what is happening in the present. They can also help us come to terms with language. SL / FL learners caught up in the characters, aroused by the plot, can be energized through stories and make connections with the language. They are provided with opportunities to have contact with the language in context rather than in bits and pieces. They are also introduced with new vocabulary and language forms within rich networks of associations: words are often remembered within the context of the particular story or situation in which they were first encountered (Bowen and Marks, 1994). The memorization of fairytales bears witness to this. The presentation of vocabulary items through stories is, then, of great benefit to learners.

The present chapter sheds light onto the nature of such type of teaching material and its impact on the FL / SL learners on both the emotional and educational levels. It also highlights the field of reading for pleasure and its effect on FL / SL

vocabulary acquisition in particular and language acquisition in general. It also gives an overview of the use of storytelling as a teaching material in the Algerian context.

2. Nature of a Tale

2.1. Definition

A tale is an invitation for a trip in the imaginary world of the child in us. It is the root of all fiction, so of humanity. Some of the topics of tales go back to centuries before Christ.

A tale can be defined as fiction. It is sometimes referred to as a story, but what differentiates it from the story is that it is generally short and deals with the supernatural world of magic, fairies, witches, elves; elements that play an important role in a tale. Under the superordinate tale or fairytale – a term implying magic, morality, wisdom and fun –, we can mention some of its different categories: the myth, the legend and the fable. A myth is a story that originated in ancient times dealing with ideas or beliefs which are sometimes fictitious. A legend is a story handed down from the past and that may not be true. A fable is a short story not based on facts, often with animals as characters; it conveys a moral.

A tale generally starts with “once upon a time...”, “There was once...” or “Once there was...” a formula that has become specific to the tale and this is found in no other literary form. The themes of a tale deal mostly with morality and teaching the principles of good behaviour. Most of the time, in a tale, the hero is not named; s/he is usually known only as “a young boy”, “a little girl”, “a princess”, “a king”. In some tales, we may refer to her / him using a nickname, for example: “Tom Thumb”, “Cinderella”, “Sinbad”, “Little Red Riding Hood”, and “Rose-bud” (“Snow-White” in some versions), a name we always find the significance of in the tale, and which is in relation with the height, the build, the colour of the skin of the hero, his clothes, his behaviour or other features specific to her / him. These characteristics are sometimes related to the fate of the hero / heroine and the development of the events. From experience, it was noticed that children do not request that the hero or the heroine in a

tale is named, but it would be better to do so to facilitate the identification with them. It is worth mentioning that tales that teach morality do not only concentrate on heroes who are beautiful, intelligent, kind...; sometimes there are antiheroes. If most of the tales have a good and happy end as “and they all lived very happy for many many years”, some of them show the bad fate of the protagonist as a result of her / his mischief or bad behaviour – implying that such a bad example is not to be followed.

There are different types of tales. Depending on the topics and the cultural background in which they are used, they are fairytales, marvellous tales, tales of nurses, fears, tales of animals, fables. There are tales that report conflicts between the good and the bad, the kind and the naughty where a good fairy, a magician or an old woman would help the good to overcome the plots of the bad and the naughty. At other times, we find that the hero is fighting against the magic of a witch, the strength of an ogre or the cunning of some men whom s/he defeats, thanks to his intelligence, good luck or simply her / his honesty. In a fable or a tale of animals, the theme is usually the same as in a fairytale. However, instead of characters, there are “figures”, or “personified animals”; in other words, animals showing human behaviour: they speak, think, wear clothes. In sum, they do like human beings. The choice of animals in fables is not an arbitrary one; through an animal, we seek to represent in fact a human characteristic which is supposed to be present in that animal, for example, a fox stands for a cunning person, a lion for a noble one.

2.2. The Universality of Tales

A tale contains goal-oriented events. Each event is related to what happens in a society and aims at something precise, for example reporting history or teaching moralities. Those matters are also in immediate relationship to culture. For this reason, some stories are reorganized without alteration of the meaning. Many of the stories told at school (and sometimes at home) are a world heritage. These stories bear universal values: children all over the world receive the moralities found in them from their immediate environment. Such values as honesty, justice, mutual help,

fidelity and others are not specific to a given culture; they are universally found in all cultures and communities.

We notice that in different communities, we can find the same tales, with different character names, but with the same topic and organisation, even if we know that at the time these stories were worked out, these communities have not been in contact. For example, in “Little Red Riding Hood”, the little girl with the red hood resembles the little girl “Ghriba” in “Chêne de l'ogre” (Oak of the ogre) in the Algerian culture. Both girls go to visit a grandparent (grandmother / grandfather) and take with them some food, an important detail about the tight family relations. Both girls also are faced with a danger. In the European version, a wolf makes the girl follow another path to trap her, and at last eats her; a woodcutter who killed the wolf saves her and her grandmother. In the Algerian version, an ogre traps “Ghriba” in the same way the wolf trapped Little Red Riding Hood, and she is saved by the countrymen who put fire at the cottage of the grandfather and kill the ogre inside. The two stories belong to different cultures, but the situation, the setting, the characters and even the message of the morality do show something common to all human beings. The tight relation between the tales makes us say that they belong to the same family: the universe of the tale. Otherwise, how can we explain that a character in Arab tales called “Djeha” has a ‘twin’ in Europe called “Nasreddine” who plays the same tricks on people, and in other communities where the same character with different names does the same thing? The same character “Aladdin” is said to be an Arab in the European translation of “The One Thousand and One Night”, and he is the son of a Chinese tailor in the Arabic version.

In her preface to “*Perrault les Contes*” (Tales by Perrault), Ali-Benali (1993) states that even in matters of organization and structure, different tales from different origins follow the same pattern. There is always a beginning where we encounter a danger, an ordeal, a misdeed, or a departure, and an end where the danger is over and there is recovery or coming back. Thus, tales are not in relationship in matters of themes and topics only; their universality goes beyond to reach the characters and even the organization and structure.

2.3. The Oral and the Written Form of Tales

It is an acknowledged fact that storytelling is present in all cultures. It belongs to the oral literature or oral tradition of any society. The terms “tale” in English, “conte” in French or “hikaya” in Arabic all refer to a story told by a narrator to another person or to a group of people. Once these terms are pronounced, everybody thinks of those popular types of narratives conveyed orally from one generation to another.

The tradition of storytelling goes farther back to the early civilisation that did not know writing. These civilisations had a very rich oral literature, a type of literature that always exists in our times in different places of the world under many forms among which storytelling where a tale is narrated at different places: a popular market, a general place, at home and sometimes at school. The most known of these is “The One Thousand and One Night”, tales originating from Persia or Arabia or India or Egypt depending on the tales and gathered in a collection of popular stories, legends, and fables drawn from the oral tradition. It is said that a legendary queen named Scheherazade used to tell tales to the king in order to delay her execution by keeping the king’s interest in her stories. The first written extracts of these tales goes back to the 800’s. Then, it reached its actual form written in Arabic by the end of the fourteenth century. “The One Thousand and One Night” tales were well welcomed in Europe thanks to Antoine Galland who translated them into French between 1704 and 1717.

In Europe, the same oral tradition of storytelling prevailed but it was until 1697 that tales started to appear in the written form thanks to Charles Perrault who published his tales known nowadays in their printed form as “Tales by Perrault” (Perrault: Les contes). The beginning of the nineteenth century knew great interest for the popular tales after the publication of a collection of tales by Jacob and Wilhelm Grimm between 1812 and 1815 entitled “Kinder-und-hausmärchen” (Children’s and Household Tales) that remains the most famous collection of folk-tales in the world

translated into many languages. This work has given rise to the collection and publication of tales from different folklore.

The Algerian culture has a strong tradition of storytelling. Such stories as “Loundja bent Lghoul” (Loundja the ogre's daughter), “Djazia wa Soltan” (Djazia and the king) and others have always enchanted children when told by grandmothers at home. Nowadays, parents no longer tell stories, but buy written ones to their children. Mouloud Maameri (1980) describes this transformation in our culture with great precision. Speaking about the tales, he writes in his preface in the “Machaho Collection” that tales have crossed tens of generations to come to us, that other modes of saying and revealing or even dreaming have replaced them and therefore, it was high time to give them this life of “half-dead” of the written form that reduces their impact and importance, but at least saves them.

The function of a writer is to collect and fix the words of the teller. This allows us to have access to the world of the tale since the line of good tellers, the masters of the word is disappearing. Parents and teachers alike have lost that gift of narration, and now is the time for the written form and the solitary deciphering of popular tales and stories that are still recommended by and for a public primarily composed of children. Storytelling is neither new nor strange to Algerian learners: Adventure stories of Sinbad or Ali Baba that have interested them and taught them moralities have always been told at home or at school. However, it is no longer given the same importance as in the past, neither at home nor at school. Nowadays, at school, it seems that there is no time for such a tradition and that the written form has taken over the oral one.

3. The Effects of Storytelling

Storytelling is both life experience and linguistic experience. It has the power to reach deep within the learners, into those areas that regular teaching may not visit. The story mirrors the surrounding world and constructs a reality of its own, meeting

the emotional and the cognitive, psychological (educational) needs of the child (Malkina, 1995).

3.1. Emotional Effects

Tales are that type of material in which we can find altogether sadness, joy, surprise, curiosity, such emotional states which once we are confronted to, we cannot remain indifferent.

Most of the learners have grown up in a learning context full of narrative stories, whether real or fictitious. These narratives have as a basic aim entertainment. Then, comes what Deacon and Murphy (2001) call the deep impact of storytelling. They explain that stories can have effects on a person's construction of knowledge and self. They help learners make sense of the world surrounding them and the life they lead. Storytelling is a material for teaching that can reach into the emotional and affective realms of learners. The child can have a mental participation or active perception that enables her/ him to enter the story, identify with its characters and actively participate in all its events. Learners may be moved by a story and thus change beliefs, attitudes, and behaviours after hearing or reading a story. Bettelheim (1976) applied psychoanalytic analysis to tales meant for children and concluded that through such gripping tales like "The Three Little Pigs" (the tale he based his analysis on), the child can come to very important conclusions about its proper development. He explained that when identifying with one of the protagonists, the child learns that when using his intelligence, s/he can succeed in eliminating her / his opponents. According to him, every pig represents a stage in the development of the child's personality, dominated first by the id, then, the manifestation of the superego and last controlled by the ego. The power of the ego helps to protect oneself and to come over dangers like the wolf. The deep impact that tales have makes language learning an enriching experience.

Hence, learners usually prefer storytelling to other types of material, teachers can exploit this situation to come to terms with some difficulties in language learning

or to improve their learners' level at some aspects of language, particularly vocabulary.

3.2. Educational Effects

Listening to and reading stories can no longer be considered a recreational activity and an escape from reality to a world full of fantasy and wonders. It is fully recognised now that stories must have a very important role to play in teaching especially languages. Teachers can use that type of material either in SL / FL teaching or in first language teaching and for different purposes. Stories are generally used as a comprehensible input in teaching a language. Garvie (1990) presents the view that storytelling can be a major component in an acquisition-based teaching approach. The best way to realize this is to introduce storytelling as a reading input, especially the type of pleasure reading which is not well exploited, if not inexistent in the Algerian EFL teaching.

3.2.1. Storytelling and Pleasure Reading

We cannot disassociate storytelling from pleasure reading. Reading a story is essential to create a relaxed and secure atmosphere in order to involve the pupils in the reading activity by keeping their interest in the topic. In the Kita et al.'s study (1995), it was found that the use of "a series of readers", often familiar to the pupils in their first language kept them interested in the reading. The study also proved that storytelling sessions in English lessons improved the children's motivation for extensive reading later on. More books were read by pupils between nine and ten years old who had been exposed to storytelling in their first year of learning English, and they scored better on reading comprehension tests.

Pleasure reading is in a sense an extensive reading. It is completely voluntary; the teacher does not guide the learners from level to level, as their ability in reading develops. In doing pleasure reading, readers have the possibility of skipping whole sections they find either too difficult or less interesting. They even have the option of

abandoning reading the book or story and selecting another after going through a few pages. They can neglect words they do not understand, if they think they grasp the main point, and they have the alternative of searching the meaning of any word if they want to. In extensive reading, learners work entirely on their own. They read many pages of connected discourse graded to their personal level of achievement: special books have been published with adapted texts which conform to specific levels of word-frequency and idioms counts; they introduce new vocabulary at a precisely fixed rate. As the learners' reading ability develops, they acquire a large range of passive vocabulary, or recognition vocabulary, which varies according to the material read.

The success of pleasure reading depends on a variety of aspects, mainly comprehensibility – materials adapted to the learners' cognitive and linguistic level – interest and relevance, and quantity. The problems that face learners are often the availability of materials (stories and tales in English), their cost and the learners' time.

3.2.2. Stories as a Reading Input

Rivers (1968) presents reading as the most important activity in any language class. She does not consider it only as a source of information and a pleasurable activity, but also as a means of consolidating and extending one's knowledge of the language. A story can be considered as a complete and very efficient teaching material. It contains different grammatical structures, a wide variety of vocabulary and different types of discourse. Thus, it can be used as a vehicle for teaching grammar, reading comprehension, listening comprehension and vocabulary development.

When we read in another language, we have already an idea about the process of reading. We are conscious that reading involves recognition of some symbols which form words we use or hear. However, unlike children learning to read their native language, FL learners do not recognise symbols for words and expressions sometimes very familiar to them in their spoken form. To enhance their meaning, the

necessity of introducing these words in contexts familiar to the learner imposes itself. At the elementary level and with children learners, the most appropriate reading context is that of stories.

When selecting a reading text, a story or a tale, some criteria have to be taken into account. The first variable to consider when choosing a narrative text for EFL teaching is the age of the learners and their prior knowledge, so that the text would be congruent with these two aspects. The second variable is the learners' proficiency at the English language. This proficiency includes letters and word recognition, processing of sentences, bottom up processing. In other words, we must take into consideration learners' proficiency, from word recognition to guessing what follows.

We should also consider the question of text authenticity adaptation. First, the text should be kept as close to its original form as possible. This would be the best way to conserve its authenticity and its aesthetic, cultural message. At the same time, the structure of the text should suit the learners' knowledge about language and textual organisation. Vocabulary is another variable to consider when choosing a text. It is very necessary to include basic and repetitive vocabulary, and information; new words in contexts learners know. At the same time, old words must be introduced to help achieve reading comprehension because there is a vocabulary level threshold beyond which no reading strategies such as guessing and inference can be successful. The EFL teacher must always be aware of which part of the vocabulary is new and so try to adapt its introduction in the text or prepare the learners beforehand. Finally, the layout of the text must not be a negligible aspect, especially for young learners. Letter size, spacing and illustrations are part of the bottom up processing of the text. The teacher should be able to type the text with the necessary adaptations using spacing and letter size appropriate for the learner. On the other hand, illustrations, which may accompany the narrative text, would certainly be beneficial to learners, putting them into a particular conceptual field and / or emotional state that would facilitate comprehension.

Stories are an effective tool for early language teaching. When using storytelling at the elementary level, there are some aspects that should be taken into

consideration. Teachers must search for stories predictably facilitating comprehension. Many supposed simple stories in English are not necessarily simple or suitable for language teaching. In this case, the language teacher must carefully control both structure and vocabulary so that the learner can, at the same time as s/he reads, derive the maximum amount of pleasure, consolidate already learnt language or acquire new vocabulary. The structure of the story should be simplified: archaic or old words and no longer used structures are replaced by up to date words / structures which would be useful to the learner in various social and learning situations. For example, in traditional fairytales, we often find inversion of language like in “There come two little naked dwarfs” or “In came two tiny elves”, that the language teacher must transform into naturalistic language which the learner can use in normal everyday situation. Some words specific to the story because of rhyme like “thee” and “thou” but belonging to old English have also to be replaced by their equivalents in modern English, trying to keep the same rhyme as in the original version by proceeding into some alterations. The story should also include chain structures, rhyming words, repetitious action words, sound words. The teacher should include them in such a way that they do not harm the meaning, and do not bore the learners but rather help them acquire better. Idiomatic words and phrases must be edited with care by SL / FL teachers as they may cause great difficulty to a child in the early stages of SLA. On the contrary, the use of action words is recommended since they allow children to respond both mentally and physically to the story. Their involvement in the story through these words facilitates their comprehension and gives them the opportunity to identify with the characters.

4. Storytelling in Algerian Textbooks

Stories often meet the emotional, cognitive and psychological demands of children. No one would oppose the fact that they are inherently interesting to children. Nevertheless, an analysis of Algerian educational materials and textbooks

for teaching English to children at the elementary level shows that they have been little if not used at all.

In the 1980's, with the appearance of the first Algerian textbook for teaching EFL, the textbooks were mostly based on such texts as dialogues, letters, and narrative texts. It was not until the 1990's, and the publication of the series of books entitled "my book of English" for learners of EFL1, that such type of texts called stories, fables and tales appeared. However, in "my book of English 3", "my book of English 4" and "my book of English 5" – where this type of texts exists –, we noticed that no instructions were given about how to tackle such texts, when to teach them and for what purpose. It was understood that they are relaxing texts used for recreation. However, in "my book of English 6", it was clearly explained that since these typed texts are very difficult if not impossible to find in the market in English, they were introduced in these learners' books.

Stories and tales are introduced in Algerian textbooks for the pupils to read at their own pace, in other words, when they want to in their own free time, if they want to. The teacher must only encourage them to do so and be available if they need any help. Teachers are asked never to force the pupils to read. It has to be a kind of reading for pleasure as in first language learning.

5. Conclusion

Storytelling engages our narrative minds in the service of language learning. The universality of the tale makes of it a material that can be used in any community and in any language, facilitating acquisition of SL / FL when introduced in an adequate way. The emotional effects of the tales influence learners to respond deeply producing shifts in their beliefs and attitudes. This leads them to a more lively participation and practice of the language, especially in matters of vocabulary learning. As the written aspect has taken over the oral one, either in the classroom or at home, encouraging learners to develop pleasure reading has become a necessity

since it can be considered as a very efficient input, aspect which has not been given much importance in the Algerian teaching materials and textbooks.

Chapter Four

Vocabulary Acquisition through Tales

1. Introduction

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2.1. Type of Experiment

2.2. The Target Population

2.3. The Sample

3. The Teachers' Questionnaire

3.1. Description of the Questionnaire

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5. Degree of Vocabulary Acquisition

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6. Conclusion

1. Introduction

The present study is designed to investigate the degree of improvement of learners' achievement in incidental vocabulary learning through reading fairytales for pleasure.

This will be evaluated through an experiment we led in four steps. First, Teachers' Questionnaire and Learners' Questionnaire were administered. Then, a pre-test was organised. In the next step – reading for pleasure – the learners were handed in stories and were requested to read them at home. When this activity was finished, they were given a post- test – the same as the pre-test. Scores obtained in the pre-test and the post-test were compared and analysed.

2. Design of the Study

2.1. Type of Experiment

According to Campbell and Stanley (1963), the experimental research design consists of organizing an experimental treatment (X) and an observation or measurement of the effects of the treatment (O). Two major designs prevail: the one-shot design (XO) where a single treatment is given to a single group or individual. The group or the individual is then observed, tested, or measured and the one group pre-test + post-test (O1 X O2) where we rely on a pre-test O1, a treatment X and a post-test O2 and where the subjects are used as their own controls, which eliminates the need for a control group. The pre-test is given prior to the actual experimental manipulations. The scores obtained in this test form a base line against which we will measure the effects of the manipulations. By comparing the results obtained in the post-test – given at the end of the experiment – with those of the pre-test, the researcher is provided with data to either confirm or refute the hypothesis.

The experimental cross-sectional study was opted for because studies of that type produce findings more quickly; they are less likely to suffer from control effects and are more likely to secure the co-operation of respondents: the learners generally participate in the experiment with enthusiasm and do not show any stress. The experimental design applied is the “one group pre-test + post-test (O1 X O2)” where the subjects of the study are considered as their own controls in order to eliminate the need for a control group. We opted for this system being aware that the limitation of this design – the possible differences that appear in O2 (the post-test) might simply be changes that would have taken place anyway – is reduced to a minimum because exposure to the FL outside the classroom is hardly existent. The post-test (O2) was taken a long time after the pre-test (O1) to avoid the likely disadvantages of the system – the pre-test may sensitize the subjects to specific aspects of the treatment X, which would confound what is measured by the post-test.

Seliger and Shohamy (1989) consider the questionnaire as being one of the procedures of data collection a researcher can use to provide her / him with a good and expanded picture of the phenomenon s/he is studying. “In second language acquisition research, questionnaires are used mostly to collect data on phenomena which are not easily observed.”(See Seliger and Shohamy, *ibid.*: 172). In the context of this research, two questionnaires: one to the teachers who have taught EFL1 in Constantine and the other to the learners who participated in the study were administered in order to investigate the area of vocabulary teaching and learning, and the use of children literature as a context for teaching / learning an FL. They were also administered to help in designing the pre-test and post-test and analysing and explaining the results we will obtain. It is to be noted that the teachers in the schools where the study has taken place were also handed in the chosen stories (with the questionnaires) and asked to identify the words they think their pupils do not know or have never studied.

2.2. The Target Population

According to Miller (1975), the term population is used in statistics to refer to all subjects of a particular type. We take samples through which we seek to make

inferences about the target population. There are two ways of selecting the population: using pre-existing groups as they occur in nature – true experimental groups – or using groups constructed for the experiment – quasi-experimental groups.

In our study, we opted for using pre-existing groups. The population, to which we wish to generalise the results of the experiment, is learners of English as FL1. During the 2004-2005 school year, a total of 560 pupils were registered in schools in Constantine as learners of English as FL1. These pupils are all at 9AF level. The learners selected for this study are scattered over three schools out of 19 through Constantine. All these learners have studied English for 6 years: 3 years at the Primary level and 3 years at the Elementary level. They study English as an FL1 for 5 hours a week each year except in 7AF where they have 6 hours (5+1). In 7AF, the sixth hour is considered as a make up session (heure de rattrapage).

Level	N of Hours per Week
4AF	5
5AF	5
6AF	5
7AF	5+1
8AF	5
9AF	5

Table 2: Number of hours of English for the EFL1 Pupils per Week

2.3. The Sample

A sample is a relatively small group selected from a population. This group is most of the time supposed to be representative of the target population (see Wright and Fowler, 1986). When developing an experimental research within the Human and

Social Sciences, we generally take a sample of the population to which we wish to generalise the findings of the study.

Seliger and Shohamy (op.cit.) state that the greater the sample size, the smaller the effect of individual variability or any other population-related variables can be on the results. For this reason, we have tried to make the sample as large as possible. It consists of 120 pupils who belong to three different schools in Constantine namely CEM Boudraa Salah, CEM Aboud Khider and CEM Benbadis.

The size of the sample population could have been enlarged in order to be more representative; however, some school headmasters did not accept to have the experiment conducted in their schools. We have also tried to make it more representative by choosing learners belonging to different social classes. The schools chosen for the study are the ones which include the largest number of EFL1 learners; they are situated in three different areas that represent the standard of living of the majority of the population of Constantine. This sample corresponds to the learners who filled in the questionnaires, took the pre-test and the post-test (07 pupils were absent in one step or another of the experiment).

Schools	N of pupils
CEM Boudraa Salah	40
CEM Aboud Khider	30
CEM Benbadis	50
Total	120

Table 3: The Sample Population

3. The Teachers' Questionnaire

The administration of the questionnaires and their collection was held from hand to hand. 55 questionnaires were given to teachers in 21 schools where English was taught as EFL1 and were collected a week later. 43 questionnaires were given back: the teachers who did not return 12 questionnaires were absent the day of the collection of the questionnaire and did not hand them in at a later date.

3.1. Description of the Questionnaire

The teachers' questionnaire seeks to collect data about the teaching experience, stories as a teaching material, teaching vocabulary and dealing with unknown words. In the introduction, we explained to the teachers the aim of this questionnaire: to investigate the impact of storytelling on the acquisition of vocabulary at the elementary level, examining the use of storytelling as a teaching material, and investigating the field of vocabulary teaching and the way(s) teachers deal with unknown words. The teachers were required to answer the questionnaire by ticking the appropriate box and making statements whenever required.

The questionnaire (see Appendix I) consists of 21 questions divided into three sections:

Section One: Teaching Experience (Q1 → Q4)

It is aimed at collecting information about the respondents' teaching experience, especially in teaching EFL and the different levels they teach.

Section Two: Stories as a Teaching Material (Q5 → Q8)

It is intended to investigate the use of stories as a teaching material in class and the type of stories the teachers deal with if they do.

Section Three: Teaching Vocabulary (Q9 → Q10)

It deals with the investigation of the different techniques teachers use when teaching any new words in class.

Section Four: Dealing with Unknown Words (Q11 → Q21)

It inquires about the different procedures both teachers and learners have recourse to whenever dealing with an unknown word in class.

3.2. Analysis and Interpretation of the Questionnaire

Section One: Teaching Experience

1 - How many years have you been teaching?

.....years.

Number of years	Number of teachers
05	01
06	01
07	/
08	01
09	04
10	03
11	01
12	01
13	01
14	01
15	02
16	02
17	03

18	09
19	03
20	02
21	02
22	/
23	01
24	/
25	01
26	01
27	01
28	/
29	/
30	01
31	01
Total	43

Table 4: Teaching Experience of EFL Teachers

The average teaching experience of the teachers is 16 years. Nearly all the teachers have been teaching for more than ten years (39/43). The longest teaching experience is of 31 years, and the shortest is of 5 years. This indicates that teachers belong to different generations, and thus have most probably used different types of approaches and textbooks.

2-Have you taught English as FL1?

-Yes

- No

All the teachers (43) questioned have already taught English as FL1. Twelve teachers only are still teaching it this year because EFL1 is still taught in their respective schools.

3-If “Yes”, for how long ?

.....years.

Number of years	Number of teachers
01	07
02	04
03	10
04	04
05	03
06	05
07	03
08	05
09	02
Total	43

Table 5: Teaching Experience of EFL1 Teachers

During the past ten years (the period during which English has been taught as a FL1 as well as a FL2 in Algerian schools giving the choice to the learners or to their parents to choose between French or English as FL1), the average period of teaching of the teachers who answered the questionnaire is 4 years. The longest period of teaching EFL1 is 9 years and this is among the longest in Constantine. There are only 2 teachers who taught EFL1 for 9 years; however, there are 32 teachers who have taught it at least for 3 years.

4- What level(s) have you taught? Please, specify the number of years for each level.

- **4AF** years.
- **5 AF** years.
- **6 AF** years.
- **7 AF** years.
- **8 AF** years.

- 9 AF years.

Levels	N of Teachers
7AF	03
8AF	04
9AF	03
7AF+8AF	03
7AF+9AF	01
8AF+9AF	04
7AF+8AF+9AF	14
4AF+5AF+6AF+7AF	02
4AF+5AF+6AF+8AF+9AF	02
4AF+5AF+7AF+8AF+9AF	01
4AF+5AF+6AF+7AF+8AF+9AF	06
Total	43

Table 6: Teaching Experience of EFL1 Teachers by Level

Eleven teachers have taught English as a FL1 at the level of both the primary school and the elementary school: two have taught the three levels at the primary school and at 7AF level, two the three levels at the primary school, 8AF and 9AF levels, one the 4AF and 5AF at the primary school and the three levels at the elementary school and six the three levels at the primary school and the three levels at the elementary school. Most noticeable is that only six teachers have been in charge of all levels both at the primary school and the elementary school. The others (32) have taught EFL1 only at the level of the elementary school: ten teachers taught either 7AF (03) or 8AF (04) or 9AF (03) and twenty two more than one level: three taught 7AF and 8AF level, one 7AF and 9AF levels, four 8AF and 9AF and fourteen taught the three levels (7AF, 8AF and 9AF). This indicates that generally, the same teachers are in charge of the same levels or the same classes.

Section Two: Stories as a Teaching Material

5- Do you use stories in your class?

-Yes

-No

	N	%
Yes	32	74.42
No	11	25.58
Total	43	100

Table 7: Rate of Teachers who Use Stories in their Class

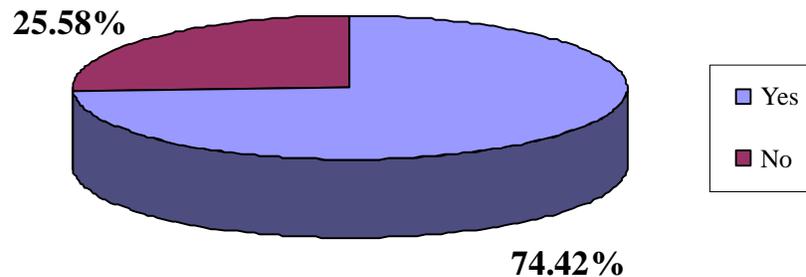


Figure 3: Rate of Teachers who Use Stories in their Class

These results show that the majority of the teachers (74.42 %) do use stories in their classes.

6- If “Yes”, which ones ?

.....

.....

Titles proposed	N	%
Titles from the learners' textbooks	16	50
General topics (short , funny stories)	11	34.38
Titles not found in the learners' textbooks	02	06.25
No titles provided	03	09.37
Total	32	100

Table 8: Titles Proposed by Teachers who Use Stories in their Class

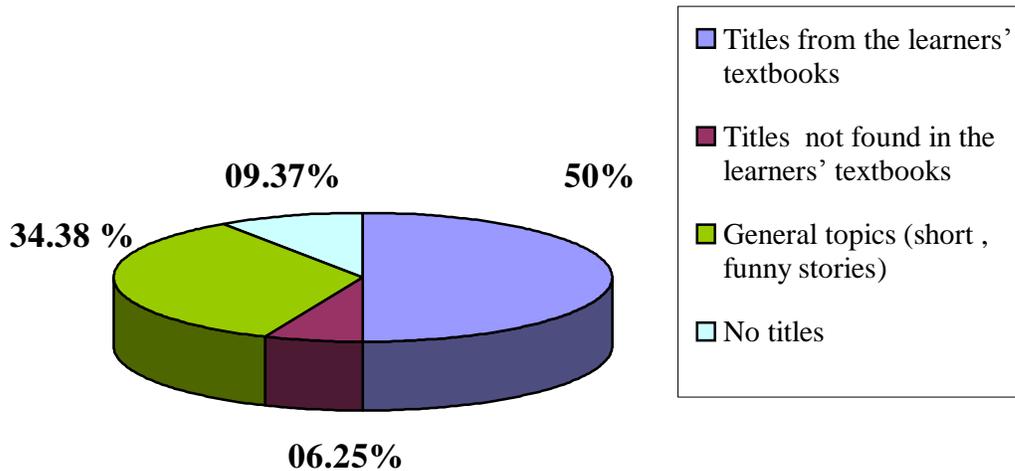


Figure 4: Titles Proposed by Teachers who Use Stories in their Class

Among the teachers who said they used stories in their class, sixteen (50 %) mentioned the titles of some stories. Every teacher mentioned between one and nine titles among the titles that we can find in the learners' textbooks "my book of English 4", "my book of English 5" and "my book of English 6" and even in "my book of English 3" (18 stories). The titles mentioned by these teachers were:

- From “my book of English 4”: “Djeha and the Fish”, “Little Red Riding Hood”, and “Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves”
- From “my book of English 6”: “Florinda and Yoringale”, “Beauty and the Beast”, and “The Seven League Boots”.
- From “my book of English 5”: “Dividing the Chicken” and “The Lion and the Mouse”.
- From “my book of English 3”: “The Ant and the Grasshopper”.

Two teachers (06.25 %) gave the titles of stories that do not exit in any of the textbooks. One mentioned “The King’s Wish” and “Elephant Man”. The other teacher mentioned only “Snow White”.

Eleven teachers (34.38 %) just referred to the use of short and funny stories, tales and fables without giving any title, and three teachers (09.37 %) declared that they use stories in their classes but they did not remember any title.

These answers confirm that teachers on the whole use stories in their classes. However, they do not seem to give much importance to this type of teaching material and the proof of this is that they do not invest in it in terms of material since they do not seek for other stories perhaps more interesting to their learners; they stick to those available in the textbooks. Some of them do not even remember the titles of the stories they have used, which tends to make us think that the stories were not dealt with in an appropriate way.

7-Do you ask the learners to read stories in class?

-Yes

- No

	N	%
Yes	17	53.12
No	15	46.88
Total	32	100

Table 9: Rate of Teachers who ask Learners to Read Stories in Class



Figure 5: Rate of Teachers who Ask Learners to Read Stories in Class

Through the table and the figure, we can notice that nearly half (46.88 %) the teachers, who use stories as a teaching material in their classes, do not ask their learners to read stories in class. This indicates that the stories are not used as a means for reading for pleasure, but as a means to develop other language skills, mainly reading comprehension. In other words, they are used as any other ordinary text and so we do not make profit from the specificity of this type of texts.

8-If “Yes”, which ones?

.....

Titles proposed	N	%
Stories from the learners’ textbooks	08	47.06
General topics (short , funny stories)	05	29.41
No titles provided	04	23.53
Total	17	100

Table 10: Titles Proposed by Teachers who Ask their Learners to Read Stories in Class

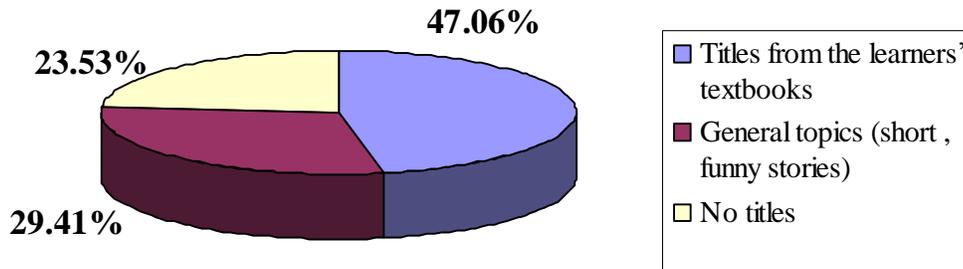


Figure 6: Titles Proposed by Teachers who Ask their Learners to Read Stories in Class

Eight teachers out of the seventeen who said they ask their learners to read stories in class mentioned that they asked their learners to read the stories available in the textbooks; five teachers (29.41%) did not mention specific titles, but referred to general topics as short stories or funny ones. The four teachers left (23.53%) did not mention any title. This is a confirmation that this material is not tackled in the right way or is not given the adequate importance.

Section Three: Teaching Vocabulary

9- Do you present new words in every lesson?

-Yes

- No

	N	%
Yes	37	86.05
No	06	13.95
Total	43	100

Table 11: Rate of Teachers who Present New Words in Every Lesson



13.95%

86.05%

Figure7: Rate of Teachers who Present New Words in Every Lesson

86.05 % of the teachers present new words in every lesson. This result shows the importance that teachers give to the teaching of vocabulary, considering it as an important component of their teaching of a FL.

10-When you teach new words do you use:

	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	If Necessary	Never
• Translation					
• Definition					
• Word in Context					
• Synonym/opposite					

Other:Please,specify.....

	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	If Necessary	Never	Total
Translation	/	10	03	24	06	43
Definition	09	23	05	05	01	43
Word in Context	26	12	01	03	01	43
Synonym/opposite	29	10	01	02	01	43

Other	Visual aids	-Pictures	10
		-Drawings	04
		-Concrete objects	07
	Gestures/mimes	08	
	Dictionary	02	

Table 12: Techniques Used by Teachers when Teaching New Words

It appears from Table 12 that the most used techniques are giving synonyms and opposites (29 teachers said they always used this technique, and putting words in context (26 teachers said they always used this technique). We think that these two techniques make the learners memorize the new words easily and help recalling them at any moment. Overall, teachers state that they use translation only “if necessary”, in other words, after having recourse to all the other techniques. This implies that teachers think that since they are teaching a FL, the use of the first language must be prohibited. They have “sometimes” recourse to the use of definitions. This can be explained by the fact that it is difficult for the learners to memorize or write down a definition since most of the time the latter necessitates the use of other unknown words.

19 teachers mentioned other techniques they use when presenting new words. Some gave more than one. They mentioned the use of visual aids, mainly pictures (10 teachers), drawings (04 teachers) or concrete objects (07 teachers); eight teachers explain words using gestures or mimes; two teachers stated that they give the opportunity to their learners to look up the words in the dictionary.

Section Four: Dealing with Unknown Words

11- Do you explain all the unknown words in a text?

-Yes

-No

	N	%
Yes	14	32.56
No	29	67.44
Total	43	100

Table 13: Rate of Teachers who Explain All the Unknown Words in a Text

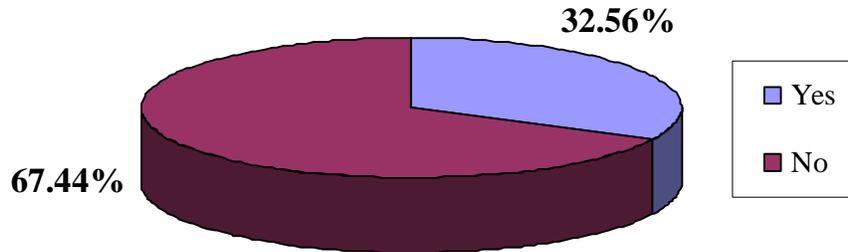


Figure 8: Rate of Teachers who Explain All the Unknown Words in a Text

The majority of the teachers (67.44 %) said they do not explain all the unknown words. This means that they explain the words they think are important for the understanding of the text. These words are generally content words that teachers consider as key words; this was explained in the answers to question 13: when you explain new words, how do you proceed?

12- If “Yes”, you do it:

- a- Before reading
- b- While reading
- c- After reading

Moment of explanation	N	%
a	02	14.29
b	04	28.57
a + b	05	35.71
a + b + c	02	14.29

No answer	01	07.14
Total	14	100

Table 14: Rate of Teachers who Explain Unknown Words Before, While and After Reading a Text

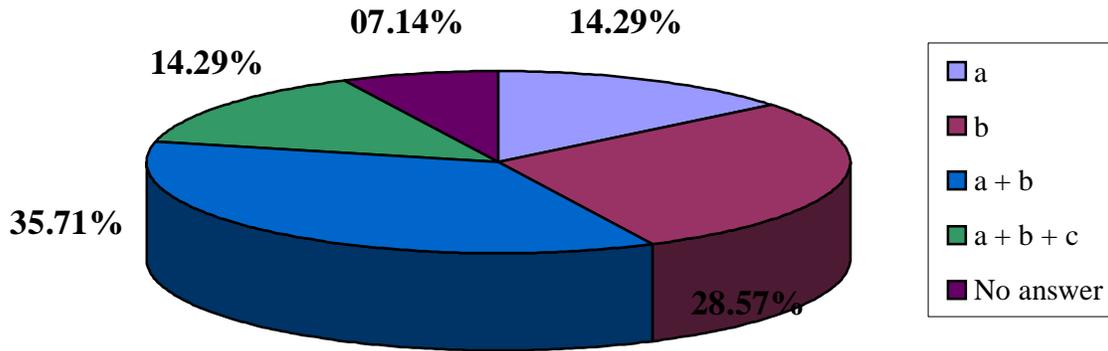


Figure 9: Rate of Teachers who Explain Unknown Words Before, While and After Reading a Text

Option “b” (while reading) recorded 11 answers (04 while reading + 05 before reading and while reading + 02 before reading, while reading and after reading). Option “a” (before reading) recorded 09 answers (02 before reading +05 before reading and while reading + 02 before reading, while reading and after reading). Option “c” (after reading) recorded 02 answers. So, the most common answer given by teachers is “While reading” followed by “Before reading”.

13- When you explain the unknown words, how do you proceed?

.....

.....

.....

Out of the 14 teachers who said they explain all the unknown words, 13 gave the following techniques with different degrees of use:

-using a context (situation) (04 teachers)

-showing a picture or a drawing / making mimes and gestures / translating (02 teachers)

-using a context (situation)/ showing a picture/ drawing/ making mimes and gestures (02 teachers)

-giving examples (02 teachers)

-using a context (situation) / giving examples / showing a picture or a drawing (01 teacher)

-showing a picture or drawing / giving synonyms and opposites / giving definitions (01 teacher)

-using a context (situation) / giving synonyms and opposites/asking to use a dictionary (01 teacher)

Techniques to Explain Unknown Words	N
Using a context (situation)	10
Showing a picture / drawing	07
Making mimes and gestures	03
Giving synonyms and opposites	02
Giving definitions	02
Giving examples	02
Translating	02
Asking to use a dictionary	01
No answer	01

Table 15: How Teachers Proceed when they Explain Unknown Words

As it can be seen in Table 15, the most common techniques used to explain unknown words are using a context (situation) (10), and showing a picture/drawing (07). We think that the other techniques depend on the situation the teacher is in.

14- When the learners encounter unknown words, they:

- a- Ignore them
- b- Ask a peer
- c- Ask you
- d- Look them up in a dictionary

Options	N	%
a	04	09.30
c	12	27.90
d	01	02.33
a + c	03	06.98
b + c	03	06.98
c + d	16	37.20
a + b + c	01	02.33
a + b + d	01	02.33
b + c + d	02	04.65
Total	43	100

Table 16: What Learners Do when they Encounter Unknown Words

Option “c” (Ask you) recorded the highest number of answers: 37 (16 “c + d”, 12 “c”, 03 “a + c”, 03 “b + c”, 02 “b + c + d” and 01 “a + b + c”). Option “d” (Look them up in a dictionary) comes second with 20 answers (16 “c + d”, 02 “b + c + d”, 01 “d” and 01 “a + b + d”). Option “a” (Ignore them) recorded 09 answers (04 “a”, 03 “a + c”, 01 “a + b + c”, 01 “a + b + d”). Option “b” (Ask a peer) recorded 07 answers (03 “b + c” + 02 “b + c + d”, 01 “a + b + c” and 01 “a + b + d”). Therefore, the learners most of the time ask their teacher or look up in the dictionary the

meaning of an unknown word. They ignore the unknown word more than ask a peer about its meaning

15- If your learners ask you the meaning of words in class, you:

- a- Give a translation
- b- Give a definition
- c- Put them in context
- d- Give a synonym / opposite
- e- Show a picture

Other:Please,specify:

Options		N	%
d		01	02.33
c + d		02	04.65
c + e		02	04.65
a + b + d		01	02.33
a + b + e		01	02.33
b + c + d		02	04.65
b + d + e		02	04.65
c + d + e		09	20.93
a + c + d + e		03	06.98
b + c + d + e		12	27.90
a + b + c + d + e		08	18.60
Total		43	100
Other	Gestures/mimes	07	
	Ask to use a dictionary	02	
	Give an example	01	

Table 17: What Teachers Do if Learners Ask the Meaning of

Words in Class

The teachers demonstrated that they have a preference to giving synonyms and opposites (“**d**”). This option was opted for by 40 teachers (12 “**b + c + d + e**”, 09 “**c + d + e**”, 08 “**a + b + c + d + e**”, 03 “**a + c + d + e**”, 02 “**c + d**”, 02 “**b + c + d**”, 02 “**b + d + e**”, 01 “**d**” and 01 “**a + b + d**”). Option “**c**” (put them in context) recorded 38 answers (12 “**b + c + d + e**”, 09 “**c + d + e**”, 08 “**a + b + c + d + e**”, 03 “**a + c + d + e**”, 02 “**c + d**”, 02 “**c + e**”, and 02 “**b + c + d**”). The option “**e**” (showing a picture) comes third with 37 answers (12 “**b + c + d + e**”, 09 “**c + d + e**”, 08 “**a + b + c + d + e**”, 03 “**a + c + d + e**”, 02 “**c + e**”, 02 “**b + d + e**”, 01“**a + b + e**”). Options “**b**” (give a definition) and “**a**” (give a translation) did not get the same high number of answers. They got 29 and 13 respectively. We think, this is, because to give a definition needs sometimes other unknown words and to translate is avoided by teachers. Other techniques were proposed: the “use of gestures and mimes” (07), “ask the learners to use a dictionary” (02), and “give examples” (01). The teachers added that the technique to be adopted depends on the word and the available material.

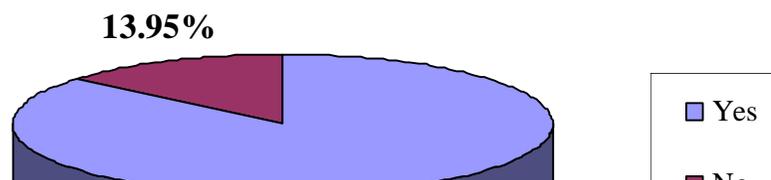
16- If your learners refer to a dictionary, do you help them to use it?

-Yes

- No

	N	%
Yes	37	86.05
No	06	13.95
Total	43	100

Table 18: Rate of Teachers who Help Learners Use a Dictionary



86.05%

Figure 10: Rate of Teachers who Help their Learners Use a Dictionary

The vast majority of teachers (86.06 %) affirm that they help their learners when they look up the meaning of words in a dictionary.

17- What kind of dictionary do they use?

a- An English-English dictionary

b- An English-Arabic dictionary

c- An English-French dictionary

kind of Dictionary	N	%
a	07	16.28
b	15	34.88
c	02	04.65
a + b	06	13.95
a + c	01	02.33
b + c	10	23.26
No answer	02	04.65
Total	43	100

Table 19: Rate of Kind of Dictionary Learners Use

From the table above, we can say that the use of the English-Arabic dictionary is largely preferred to the use of the other bilingual dictionaries. 34.88 % of the teachers said their learners used an “English-Arabic dictionary”, 23.26 % an “English-Arabic dictionary or an English-French dictionary”, and 13.95 % an

“English-English dictionary or an English-Arabic dictionary”. This seems to be mainly related to the fact that they are available and are at a reasonable price.

18- When your learners encounter unfamiliar words, do they use a Notebook?

-Yes

-No

	N	%
Yes	38	88.37
No	05	11.63
Total	43	100

Table 20: Rate of Teachers whose Learners Use a Notebook When Encountering Unfamiliar Words

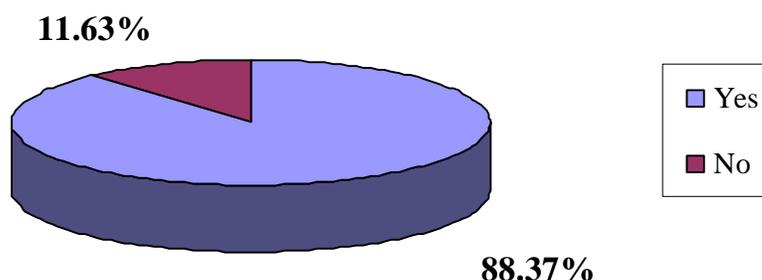


Figure11: Rate of Teachers whose Learners Use a Notebook when Encountering Unfamiliar Words

A large majority of teachers (88.37%) declare that their learners use a notebook to write down the unknown words they encounter.

19- Do you ask your learners to use a notebook?

-Yes

- No

	N	%

Yes	40	93.02
No	03	06.98
Total	43	100

Table 21: Rate of Teachers who Ask their Learners to Use a Notebook

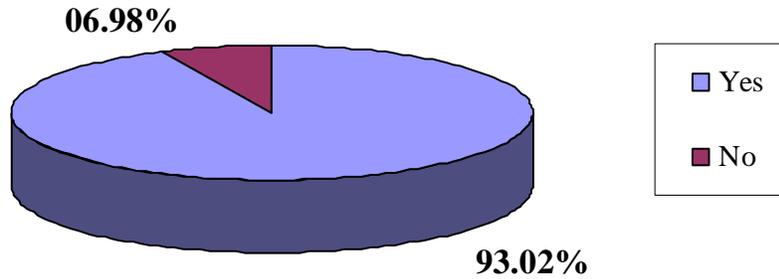


Figure12: Rate of Teachers who Ask their Learners to Use a Notebook

93.02 % of the teachers ask their learners to use a notebook. This very high percentage seems to imply that the use of the notebook is quasi- obligatory. However, the teachers did not mention its use in the techniques used to explain unknown words (see Q13, p 83).

20- Do you have a look at their notebooks?

-Yes

-No

	N	%
Yes	33	76.74
No	10	23.26
Total	43	100

Table 22: Rate of Teachers who Have a Look at their Learners' Notebooks

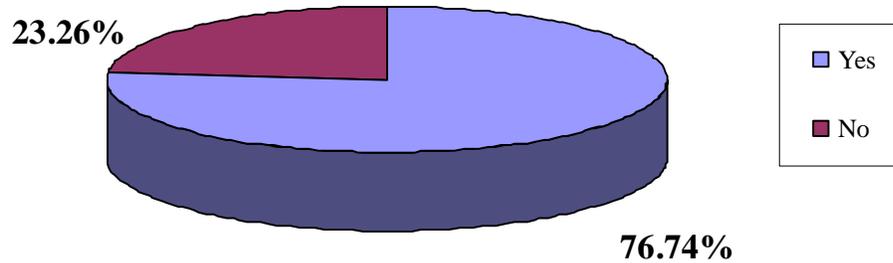


Figure 13: Rate of Teachers who Have a Look at their Learners' Notebooks

The teachers confirmed through their answers that the use of the notebook is really taken into consideration since 76.74 % said they check them, and so show their importance and the importance of their use to the learners.

21- If “Yes”, what technique(s) do they employ?

.....

.....

.....

.....

Techniques	N	%
Translating	16	48.49
-Translating -Putting words in sentences -Drawing	05	15.15
Use of a “pictionary”	02	06.06
-Translating -Writing synonyms /opposites	02	06.06

-Definition		
-Translating -Drawing	02	06.06
Put words in sentences	01	03.03
Writing definitions in English	01	03.03
-Writing synonyms /opposites/ -Putting words in sentences	01	03.03
No answer	03	09.09
Total	33	100

Table 23: Rate of Technique(s) Learners Employ in their Notebooks

According to the teachers, the most used technique is translating (48.49%). This technique is also used in combination with other techniques like “drawing”, “writing synonyms / opposites”, “using definitions” and “putting words in sentences”. The second most used technique is “drawing” but in combination with other techniques, mainly “translating” and “putting words in sentences (15.15 % and 06.06 %). The lowest rates concern the techniques of “putting words in sentences” (03.03 %) and “writing definitions in English” (03.03 %). This would seem that these two techniques are not at the level of all the learners. Another technique with a low rate but a very interesting one has attracted our attention, namely the use of a “pictionary” (06.06 %) – a combination of two words picture and dictionary; it consists in sticking pictures with both the word in English and in the mother tongue for the unknown words to facilitate their recognition and memorization.

These results show that according to the teachers, the learners often use more than one technique to record unknown words in their notebooks.

3.3. Conclusion

Through the analysis and interpretation of the questionnaire, we can say that the selected teachers are a representative sample in what concerns the teaching experience, especially in the teaching of EFL1. The use of stories as a teaching material in class has proved to be like the use of any ordinary text; they are used

mainly to develop reading comprehension. The teachers are not aware of the specificity of this type of texts to develop reading for pleasure among the learners and make them autonomous readers. The results obtained in the sections about teaching vocabulary and dealing with unknown words show the importance given by the teachers to teach vocabulary using different techniques of presentation and explanation. However, we noticed that there was no congruity between the techniques used by the teachers on the one hand and the ones used by the learners according to the teachers on the other, especially in what concerns the use of translation. These results were of great contribution in the designing of the test.

4. The Learners' Questionnaire

The learners' questionnaire was handed in at the beginning of the first term of the school year 2004-2005. It was finished in class and collected immediately. The aim of this questionnaire was introduced first in English and then in Arabic so that the learners understand what is intended from them and that they can answer it as appropriately as possible. Because of their age and level of proficiency in English, it was also explained that they could ask any question, even in Arabic, whenever they do not understand a question or an instruction.

4.1. Description of the Questionnaire

The learners' questionnaire seeks to gather information about the pupils' learning environment, their strategies in learning vocabulary, and their behaviours toward the use of fairytales as a reading input. The pupils were requested to answer the questionnaire by ticking the appropriate box and making full statements whenever required. The questionnaire (see Appendix II) consists of 15 questions divided into three sections:

Section One: Reading Stories (Q1 → Q6)

This section is about reading stories. It enquires about the type of stories learners read either in class or at home. The learners are also asked to give the title or the main theme if they do.

Section Two: Dealing with Unknown Words in Class (Q7→ Q9)

In this section, we investigate what the learners do when they encounter an unknown word in class; the type of dictionary they use if they do, and what they prefer as an answer to explain a word.

Section Three: Dealing with Unknown Words at Home(Q10→ Q15)

This section seeks to gather data about what the learners do when they read at home. It contains questions about the persons whom the learners ask for their help, the type of dictionary they use if they do, and about the use of a notebook if they keep one.

4.2. Analysis and Interpretation of the Questionnaire

Section One: Reading Stories

1- Do you like reading stories?

-Yes

- No

	N	%
Yes	115	95.83
No	05	04.17
Total	120	100

Table 24: Rate of Learners who like Reading Stories

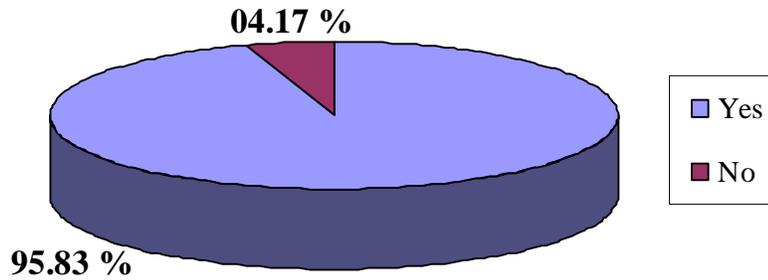


Figure 14: Rate of Learners who Like Reading Stories

As expected, a large majority of pupils (95.83 %) like to read stories.

2- If “Yes”, what type of stories do you like?

a- Fables

b- Fairytales

c- Adventures

Other: Please, specify.....

Type of Stories	N	%
a	06	05.22
b	10	08.69
c	51	44.35
a + b	08	06.95
a + c	04	03.48
b + c	23	20
a + b + c	07	06.09
c + Prophets' biographies	02	01.74
b + c + Prophets' biographies	02	01.74
b + c + Football Stories	01	00.87
Detective Stories	01	00.87

Total	115	100
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Table 25: Rate of Type of Stories Learners like

Adventures prove to be the kind of stories the learners like best. They scored the highest rate (78.27 % with **c**: 44.35 %, **b + c** 20 %, **a + b + c**: 06.09 %, **a + c**: 03.48 %, **c + prophets' biographies** 01.74 %, **b + c + prophets' biographies** 01.74 % and **b + c + football stories**: 00.87 %. fairytales come second with 44.34% (**b + c** 20 %, **b**: 8.69 %, **a + b**: 06.95 %, **a + b + c**: 06.09 %, **b + c + prophets' biographies** 01.74 % and **b + c + football stories**: 00.87 %).

The learners showed that they like more than one type of story; however, a few pupils (06.09%) mentioned that they like all of them. They prefer stories dealing with danger, fantasy and romance; themes found in adventures and fairytales.

It is to be noted that a very small number of learners proposed other types of stories like detective stories (00.87 %), prophets' biographies (03.48 %) and stories dealing with football (00.87 %). This confirms the choice of the type of stories suggested in the question.

3- Do you read stories in class?

-Yes

- No

	N	%
Yes	48	40
No	72	60
Total	120	100

Table 26: Rate of Learners who Read Stories in Class



40 %

60%

Figure 15: Rate of Learners who Read Stories in Class

More than half the learners questioned state that they are not used to read stories in class (60 %). This confirms our hypothesis that teachers do not deal with stories in class; however, this contradicts the teachers' answers: 74.42 % of the questioned teachers said they use stories in their class. (see Teachers' Questionnaire, Q5, p 74). This makes us think that teachers use stories in class but not in an appropriate way.

4- If “Yes”, which ones? Please, give the title or the main theme of the story

.....
.....
.....

Proposed Titles	N	%
Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves	31	64.58
Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs	03	06.25
Elephant Man	02	04.17
The Ant and the Grasshopper	01	02.08
Little Red Riding Hood	01	02.08
Dividing the Chicken	01	02.08
Beauty and the Beast	01	02.08
No answer	08	16.67
Total	48	100

Table 27: Rate of Proposed Story Titles Read in Class

40 out of the 48 learners (83.33 %) who affirmed that they read stories in class gave some titles. 35 mentioned titles of stories found in the textbooks destined to learners of EFL1:

- Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves (“my book of English 4”) (31)
- The Ant and the Grasshopper (“my book of English 3”) (01)
- Little Red Riding Hood (“my book of English 4”) (01)
- Dividing the Chicken (“my book of English 5”) (01)
- Beauty and the Beast (“my book of English 6”) (01)

Five pupils mentioned titles other than those in the textbooks:

- Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs (03)
- Elephant Man (02)

This confirms our hypothesis that learners do not read in English because of the lack of material (stories in the market). Thus, the learners’ only source to read either at school or at home is the textbook. Two stories are worth to be talked about, namely “The Ant and the Grasshopper” and “Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves”. “The Ant and the Grasshopper” is a story included in “my book of English 3”, so the learner who has mentioned it read it at least in class four years ago, and he still remembers it. The second story – “Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves” – attracted our attention because of the important number of learners who mentioned it (31). This is not surprising because it is a story that the learners know in their own language and because it has been divided in six parts in the textbook (“my book of English 4”). The learners who have mentioned the titles of “Elephant Man” and “Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs” confirmed what their teachers stated (teaching that stories), but again the number of learners who remember them makes us think that they were not exploited enough to let the learners remember them.

5- Do you read stories at home?

-Yes

- No

	N	%
Yes	64	53.33
No	56	46.67
Total	120	100

Table 28: Rate of Learners who Read Stories at Home

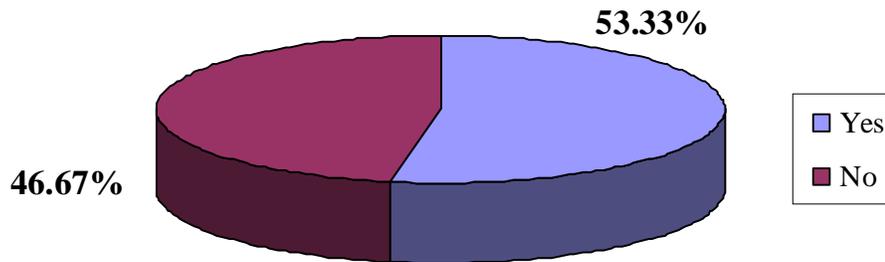


Figure 16: Rate of Learners who Read Stories at Home

Nearly half learners do not read at home (46.67 %). This confirms the saying that Algerian learners do not read at home. An observation made when analysing the questionnaires is that the learners mentioned next to their answers that they read both in Arabic and in English, but most of the time in Arabic.

6- If “Yes”, which ones?

.....
.....
.....

Language	Stories	N	%
English	Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves	05	07.82
	The Bear and the two Travellers	01	01.56
	A Cat and a Dog	01	01.56
	Beauty and the Beast	01	01.56
Arabic	Snow White	05	07.82
	Cinderella + Snow White	04	06.25
	Aladdin	04	06.25
	Alice in the Wonderful World	04	06.25
	Cinderella	02	03.13
	Fables from / Kalila wa dimna /	02	03.13
	Little Red Riding Hood	01	01.56
	Jack and the Beanstalk	01	01.56
	Robin Hood	01	01.56
	Sinbad	01	01.56
	The Adventures of Mowgli	01	01.56
	“Le bossu de notre dame”	01	01.56
	The four friends	01	01.56
No answer	28	43.75	
Total	64	100	

Table 29: Rate of Stories Learners Read at Home

The 64 learners who answered “yes” mentioned that most of their readings are in Arabic. They gave titles both in English and Arabic.

“Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves” is the most read story in English at home. 05 learners (07.82%) who read at home mentioned that title among stories they read in English.

The most read stories in Arabic at home are fairytales like Snow White (07.82%), Cinderella + Snow White (06.25%) and Cinderella (03.13%), fables from / Kalila wa dimna / (03.13%) and adventures like Aladdin (06.25%) and Alice in the Wonderful World (06.25%). However, the other titles – although mentioned with low rates – gave us an idea about what stories these learners like to read for pleasure at home.

It is worth mentioning that 43.75% of the learners did not mention any title, neither in Arabic nor in English. This means that nearly half the learners do not remember what they read.

Section Two: Dealing with Unknown Words in Class

7- In class, when you encounter an unknown word while reading, do you:

- a- Read again to guess the meaning from the context
- b- Ask your teacher about its meaning
- c- Ask a peer
- d- Look it up in a dictionary
- e- Ignore it

Options	N	%
a	02	01.67
b	02	01.67
c	02	01.67
d	12	10
e	08	06.67
a + b	03	02.50
a + d	06	05
b + c	02	01.67
b + d	50	41.66
a + b + c	01	00.83
a + b + d	10	08.33
a + c + d	04	03.33
b + c + d	08	06.67
a + b + c + d	10	08.33
Total	120	100

Table 30: Rate of What Learners do when Encountering Unknown Words while Reading in Class

These results demonstrate that in most cases, the learners either have recourse to the dictionary: 100/120 learners (b + **d**: 41.66 %, **d**: 10 %, a + b + **d**: 08.33 %, a + b + c + **d**: 08.33 %, b + c + **d**: 06.67 %, a + **d**: 05 %, a + c + **d**: 03.33 %)

or to the teacher, considered as a “human dictionary” (**b** + d: 41.66 %, a + **b** + d: 08.33 %, a + **b** + c + d: 08.33 %, **b** + c + d: 06.67 %, a + **b**: 02.50 %, **b**: 01.67 %, **b** + c: 01.67 %, a + **b** + c: 00.83 %).

The learners showed their mutual help (ask a peer) and their insistence to understand by reading again to guess the meaning from the context through acceptable scores (a + b + c + d: 08.33 %, b + c + d: 06.67 %, a + c + d: 03.33 %, c: 01.67 %, b + c: 01.67 %, a + b + c: 00.83 %) and (a + b + d: 08.33 %, a + b + c + d: 08.33 %, a + d: 05 %, a + c + d: 03.33 %, a + b: 02.50 %, a: 01.67 %, a + b + c: 00.83 %); however, a few learners said that they ignore an unknown word while reading (e: 06.67 %).

8-If you use a dictionary, is it

- a -An English-English dictionary
- b -An English-Arabic dictionary
- c -An English-French dictionary

Options	N	%
a	30	30
b	60	60
c	04	04
a + b	03	03
b + c	02	02
No answer	01	01
Total	100	100

Table 31: Rate of Types of Dictionary Learners Use in Class

This shows that when the learners use a dictionary, it is rather an English-Arabic dictionary (65 % with 60 % for **b**, 03 % for a + **b** and 02 % for **b** + c). This is

due to the availability of English-Arabic dictionaries in the market and their reasonable prices. We not that only 06 % of the pupils (c: 04 % and b + c: 02 %) said they use an English-French dictionary. This is explained by the learners' level of proficiency at French.

9-What do you prefer as an answer to explain a word:

- a- A translation
 - b- A definition
 - c- A word in context
 - d- A synonym / opposite
- Other: Please, specify.....

Options	N	%
a	25	20.83
b	04	03.33
c	14	11.67
d	50	41.67
b + c	03	02.50
b + d	04	03.33
c + d	05	04.17
a + c	01	00.83
a + d	01	00.83
a + b + d	05	04.17
a + c + d	02	01.67
b + c + d	06	05
Total	120	100

Table 32: Rate of Answers Preferred to Explain a Word

We can notice that the technique the learners prefer is that of giving them a synonym or an opposite: 60.84 % (**d**: 41.67 %, **b + c + d**: 05 %, **c + d**: 04.17 %, **a + b + d**: 04.17 %, **b + d**: 03.33 %, **a + c + d**: 01.67%, and **a + d**: 00.83 %). This is mainly because the learners are most of the time in a situation of looking for synonyms or opposites in the reading comprehension section in their official exams.

The second preferred answer is getting a translation: 28.33 % (**a**: 20.83%, **a + b + d**: 04.17 %, **a + c + d**: 01.67 % , **a + c**: 00.83 %, **a + d**: 00.83 %) rather than a word in context: 25.84 % (**c**:11.67 %, **b + c + d**: 05 %, **c + d**: 04.17 %, **b + c**: 02.50 %, **a + c + d**: 01.67 % and **a + c**: 00.83 %) or to a lesser degree a definition: 18.33 % (**b + c + d**: 05 %, **a + b + d**: 04.17 %, **b**: 03.33 %, **b + d**: 03.33 %, **b + c**: 02.50 %) that are considered as difficult to grasp at times and are time consuming.

Section Three: Dealing with Unknown Words at Home

10-When you do not understand a word, do you:

- a- Ask someone
- b- Look it up in a dictionary
- c- Ignore it

Options	N	%
a	14	11.67
b	25	20.83
c	09	07.50
a + b	72	60
Total	120	100

Table 33: Rate of What Learners Do when not Understanding a Word at Home

97 learners (80.83 %) said that at home, they look up the meaning of words they do not understand in the dictionary (**b**: 20.66%, **a + b**: 60 %). Then, they have recourse to another “dictionary”, a person they are in immediate contact with; 86 learners (71.67 %) mentioned that they ask someone the meaning of an unknown word (**a**: 11.67 %, **a + b**: 60 %). They have demonstrated, through these answers, that

a word they do not understand when reading a text disturbs them since only 10 learners (08.27%) said they ignore the word, and thus do not look for its meaning.

11- If you ask someone, do you ask

a-Your mother

b-Your father

c-Your sister

d-Your brother

Other: Please, specify.....

Options	N	%
a	13	15.12
b	14	16.28
c	26	30.24
d	07	08.14
a + b	03	03.49
a + c	02	02.33
a + d	01	01.16
b + c	03	03.49
b + d	01	01.16
c + d	06	06.98
a + b + d	01	01.16
a + b + c + d	04	04.65
a + friend	01	01.16
b + neighbour	01	01.16
a + b + c + aunt + uncle	01	01.16
a + b + c + d + neighbour + uncle	01	01.16
aunt	01	01.16
Total	86	100

Table 34: Rate of Persons Learners Ask when not Understanding

a Word at Home

The results show that the sister is the person that is most of the time asked: 50.01 % (**c**: 30.24%, **c** + **d**: 06.98%, **a** + **b** + **c** + **d**: 04.65 %, **b** + **c**: 03.49%, **a** + **c**: 02.33%, **a** + **b** + **c** + aunt + uncle: 01.16 %, **a** + **b** + **c** + **d** + neighbour + uncle: 01.16 %). This can be due, perhaps, to two reasons that have been proved:

1- Girls are better than boys at languages.

2- Girls (in Algeria) spend most of their free time at home and are more affectionate towards their little brothers and sisters than boys are.

Mothers and fathers have nearly the same rate: 31.39 % for mothers (**a**: 15.12 %, **a** + **b** + **c** + **d**: 04.65 %, **a** + **b**: 03.49%, **a** + **c**: 02.33%, **a** + **d**: 01.16 %, **a** + **b** + **d**: 01.16 %, **a** + friend: 01.16 %, **a** + **b** + **c** + aunt + uncle: 01.16 %, **a** + **b** + **c** + **d** + neighbour + uncle: 01.16 %) and 33.71 % for fathers (**b**: 16.28 %, **a** + **b** + **c** + **d**: 04.65 %, **a** + **b**: 03.49 %, **b** + **c**: 03.49 %, **b** + **d**: 01.16 %, **a** + **b** + **d**: 01.16 %, **b** + neighbour: 01.16 %, **a** + **b** + **c** + aunt + uncle: 01.16 %, **a** + **b** + **c** + **d** + neighbour + uncle: 01.16 %) that is higher than the one of brothers: 23.25 % (**d**: 08.14 %, **c** + **d**: 06.98%, **a** + **b** + **c** + **d**: 04.65 %, **a** + **d**: 01.16 %, **b** + **d**: 01.16 %, **a** + **b** + **c** + **d** + neighbour + uncle: 01.16 %).

However, the recourse to another person outside the circle of the immediate members of the family is very rare (**aunt**: 01.16 %, **a** + **friend**: 01.16 %, **b** + **neighbour**: 01.16 %, **a** + **b** + **c** + **d** + **neighbour** + **uncle**: 01.16 %).

12- If you use a dictionary, is it:

a- An English-English dictionary

b- An English-Arabic dictionary

c- An English-French dictionary

Options	N	%
a	06	06.19
b	81	83.51
c	04	04.12
a + b	02	02.06
b + c	04	04.12
Total	97	100

Table 35: Rate of Types of Dictionary Learners Use at Home

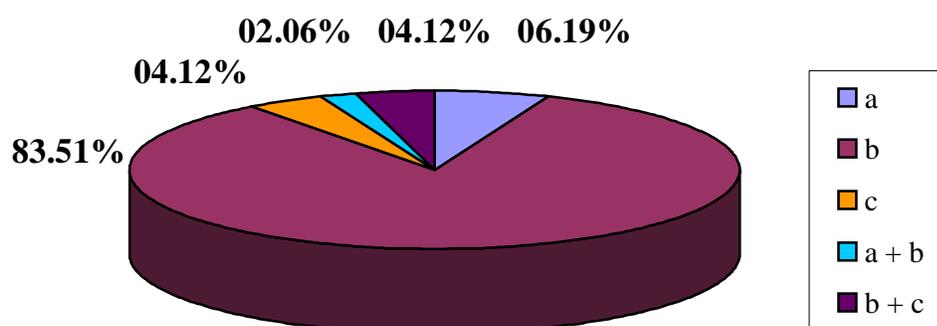


Figure 17: Rate of Types of Dictionary Learners Use at Home

Again, the use of the English-Arabic dictionary takes over the use of the others: 89.69 % (**b**: 83.51 %, **b** + **c**: 04.12 %, and **a** + **b**: 02.06 %). The English-English dictionary and the English-French dictionary have nearly the same rate of use 08.25 % for the English-English dictionary (**a**: 06.19 %, **a** + **b**: 02.06 %) and 08.24 % for the English-French dictionary (**c**: 04.12 %, **b** + **c**: 04.12 %). This is because of the same reasons cited above (Q 8, p 104).

13- When you encounter an unfamiliar word, do you use a notebook?

- Yes
- No

	N	%
Yes	96	80
No	24	20
Total	120	100

Table 36: Rate of Learners Who Use a Notebook

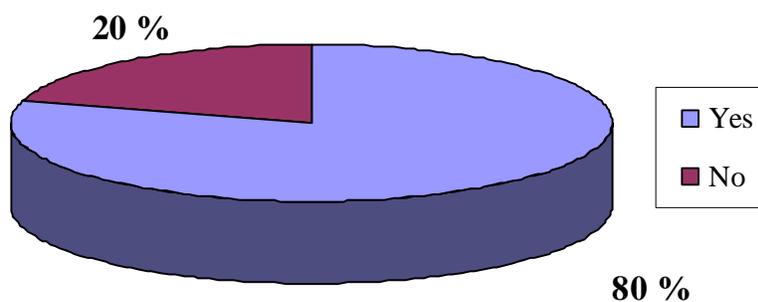


Figure 18: Rate of Learners Who Use a Notebook

Most learners have affirmed that they have recourse to the use of an English-Arabic dictionary (80 %).

14- If “Yes”, is it:

a- Always

b- Sometimes

c- Seldom

d- Rarely

Options	N	%
a	35	36.46
b	41	42.71
c	08	08.33
d	12	12.50
Total	96	100

Table 37: Rate of Times Learners Use a Notebook

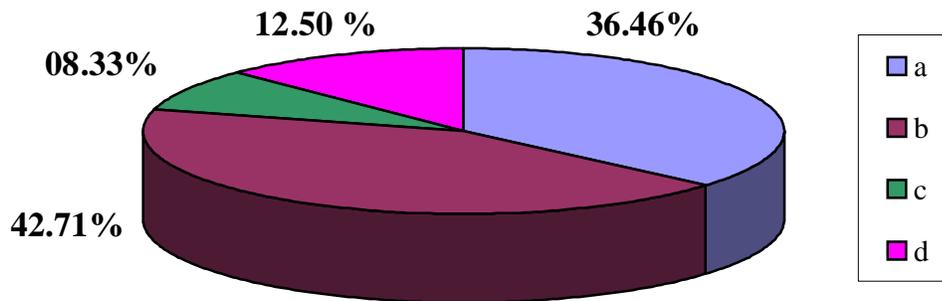


Figure 19: Rate of Times Learners Use a Notebook

This shows that the use of the notebook is not an occasional one: 42.71% of the learners sometimes use it, and only 36.46% always use it.

15- Do you use a notebook to:

- a- Write the meaning in your mother tongue
- b- Write the meaning in English using synonyms / opposites
- c- Put it in a sentence of your own
- d- Use a drawing

Options	N	%
a	28	29.17
b	32	33.34
c	01	01.04
d	01	01.04
a + b	13	13.54
a + c	01	01.04
a + d	02	02.08
b + c	02	02.08
b + d	03	03.13
c + d	01	01.04
a + b + c	01	01.04
a + b + d	06	06.25
a + b + c + d	04	04.17
No answer	01	01.04
Total	96	100

Table 38: Rate of What Learners Do in a Notebook

These answers demonstrate that translation in Arabic or the use of the mother tongue: 69.79 % (**a**: 29.17 %, **a + b**: 13.54 %, **a + c**: 13.54 %, **a + b + d**: 06.25 %, **a + b + c + d**: 04.17 %, **a + d**: 02.08 %, **a + b + c**: 01.04 %) and that of using synonyms and opposites: 63.55 % (**b**: 33.34 %, **a + b**: 13.54 %, **a + b + d**: 06.25 %, **a + b + c + d**: 04.17 %, **b + d**: 03.13 % , **b + c**: 02.08 %, **a + b + c**: 01.04 %) are the most preferred techniques by the learners.

4.3. Conclusion

The analysis and interpretation of the questionnaire make us say that learners of EFL1 (and children of that level) like reading stories, especially fairytales and adventures. However, in contradiction to what the teachers affirmed, the use of stories as a teaching material is not dealt with in class and if so, it is limited to the use of the stories found in the textbook. The Learners' Questionnaire showed also that our learners are not regular readers. In other words, they do not read at home and if they do, it is most of the time in Arabic. As what concerns what they do when encountering unknown words, the learners showed their preferences to use the dictionary and to ask another person whether they are in class (the teacher) or at home (a member of the family, mostly the sister). The use of the notebook to write down the meaning of unknown words has proved to be of great use by the learners who stated they have two major techniques to record the unknown words: the use of the mother tongue and that of using synonyms and opposites.

5. Degree of Vocabulary Acquisition

5.1. The Reading Material

Four illustrated fairytales written in English: Little Red Riding Hood, Cinderella, Snowdrop and Aladdin were handed to the three teachers who were in charge of the classes involved in the experiment. They were asked to read the four stories and underline all the words they think their pupils do not know or have never encountered before.

Little Red Riding Hood

Charles Perrault first published this fairytale in "Les contes de ma mère l'Oye" in 1697. Little Red Riding Hood is the nickname of the heroine of the tale. The inhabitants of her village used to call her so because of a red hood she put on which her mother has made for her. She was a very kind girl but also a rash one. The wolf that she was not suspicious of ate her up after he has lured her into a trap. He has eaten up her grandmother, put on her clothes and laid in her bed. When the imprudent

girl arrived to her grandmother's house, the wolf made her think that he was her grandmother and then gobbled her at once.

Brothers Grimm in *Kinder-und Hausmärchen* (Children and Household Tales) rewrote the tale later in 1812. In their version, the two brothers gave the tale a happy end: a hunter who was nearby set the girl and her grandmother free disemboweling the wolf. Other versions appeared later on, keeping the same happy end, but changing some details. In some of them, it is not a hunter but a woodcutter, the grandmother was not saved, only the girl; however, all of them kept the same morality which all parents tell their children "Never trust someone you do not know". Because of its popularity, universality and the morality lesson it teaches, this story has also been reproduced as a cartoon on TV.

Cinderella

This story knew many variants throughout the world; it has very ancient origins, probably eastern ones. Cinderella is the heroine of a tale in which a young girl undergoes the bad treatment of her mother-in-law and her elder sisters (her aunt and the latter's daughters in other versions). A fairy (or her deceased mother) comes to help her. She uses her magical powers to help Cinderella go to a bal where a young prince dances with her and falls in love with her. Bound to leave before the twelfth stroke of midnight or her coach would become a pumpkin and her horses would be mice, Cinderella leaves the bal with all possible speed, and she loses her glass shoe. The prince finds this shoe and sends his soldiers to search for the girl who is capable to wear it. At last, he finds his beloved, and they married.

In Europe, the most known version of Cinderella is that found in "Les contes de ma mère l'Oye", a set of narratives stemming from the oral tradition and gathered by Charles Perrault in 1697. This version inspired Brothers Grimm as well (*Aschenputtel*, 1812).

Snow White

Another story from Brothers Grimm fairytales is Snow White. Every day, a wicked queen asks her magical mirror: "Mirror! Mirror! Tell me who is the most beautiful lady in the kingdom?", and the mirror always answers that she was the most

beautiful in the entire kingdom, until the day, he announces that the most beautiful lady is Snow White, her daughter-in-law. The queen was so angry that she asked a servant to take her to the forest and kill her. However, the servant could not do that, he left her in the forest to face her fate. The girl found refuge in a small house belonging to seven dwarfs. The queen soon discovers that Snow White is not dead and decides to do the work by herself. She disguised as an old woman selling apples and offered the young girl a poisoned one. The girl was tempted by the apple, and fell immediately in catalepsy after the first bite. When the dwarfs – who warned her from the queen – came back, it was too late. They put her body in a coffin made of glass. One day, a kiss of a charming prince brought Snow White around, and they married.

The tale has been adapted to the cinema by Walt Disney Studios, and was the first full-length sound and coloured cartoon in the history of the cinema.

Aladdin (from Arabic / *Aladdin* /)

He is the hero of Aladdin and the magical Lamp, a tale included by Antoine Galland in his translation of “The One Thousand and One Night” by the beginning of the eighteenth century. It was not until the nineteenth century that we discovered the original version in an eastern collection.

Aladdin is the lazy son of a Chinese tailor. He meets a magician who made him go and search for a magical lamp in a deep dark cavern. When Aladdin finds the lamp and brings it to the magician, he refused to give it to him before getting out. Angry, the magician blocked the cavern and imprisoned Aladdin there. Unconsciously, Aladdin rubbed the lamp, and a jinn capable to satisfy all his wishes appears. Once out, Aladdin becomes very rich and marries the king’s daughter. Unfortunately, the wicked magician appears again, steals the lamp and makes the palace of Aladdin and his family disappear. After many adventures, Aladdin finds his family, kills the magician and succeeds to the throne.

“Aladdin and the Magical Lamp” is a tale that revives all the prototypes of the genre: the supernatural adventure, magical creatures, and the fight between the good and the bad. The character Aladdin is always exotic; the Arabs consider him as a Chinese, and the Europeans had made of him an Arab. The literary version of

“Aladdin and the Magical Lamp” is known all over the world particularly in Europe and America, and has inspired a great number of works.

These fairytales have been adapted in matters of structure, avoiding embedded sentences for example in “Snow White”, the three sentences “When she heard this, she started with rage. Her envy and curiosity were so great. She wanted to see the bride.” were one “When she heard this, she started with rage; but her envy and curiosity were so great that she could not help setting out to see the bride”. Some words also have been altered to suit the learners’ values, for example, the word “wine” in “Cinderella” was replaced by “milk”. Others that belong to old English Like “Thou” have been replaced by their equivalents in modern English. The reading passages are not too long. They are of four, six, ten and fifteen pages of the 15cm X 21cm format in order not to bore pupils and to avoid fatigue. They were also selected according to the interest they have to bring: reading about palaces, adventure and learning morality. They correspond to the learners’ age and are not out of their realm. They are sometimes within, and other times slightly beyond, but not out of the learners’ receptive control. These narratives are of universal value and truth: some of them are found in many languages. They have been illustrated with some pictures describing some of the important passages and printed in the usual format of stories learners are used to find in libraries and bookshops. (See appendix III)

The three teachers read the four stories and underlined different words. Since the number of words they underlined was very large, we have opted just for the 22 unknown words that they agreed were unknown to their learners. We have classified them per story and then, per category as in the following two tables.

Little Red Riding Hood	Cinderella	Snow White	Aladdin
gobble mill gruff hug axe (05)	scolded pumpkin (02)	broad ebony pricked thoughtfully sprinkled proud spruce dwarf	/

		<p>pitied knit spin dwelling betrayed exceedingly coffin</p> <p>(15)</p>	
--	--	--	--

Table 39: List of Unknown Words Selected by the Three Teachers per Story

From table 39, we can make two observations. The first concerns the story of Aladdin; where the three teachers underlined some words but did not agree on the same ones as being unknown to their learners. It is to be noted that the teachers underlined a very small number of words. This shows that the story is very easy in matters of lexis. The second observation concerns the three other stories: Little Red Riding Hood, Cinderella and Snow White; where Snow White proves to be the most difficult one since the three teachers agreed on 15 words in it as being unknown to their learners compared with the two other stories (05 and 02 respectively).

Nouns	Verbs	Adjectives	Adverbs
<p>axe coffin dwarf dwelling ebony hug mill pumpkin</p> <p>(08)</p>	<p>betrayed gobble knit pricked pitied scolded spin sprinkled</p> <p>(08)</p>	<p>broad gruff proud spruce</p> <p>(04)</p>	<p>exceedingly thoughtfully</p> <p>(02)</p>

Table 40: List of Unknown Words Selected by the Three Teachers per Category

Table 40 shows that in matters of category of words, the teachers have underlined only content words (nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs). We note that

the teachers were more concerned with nouns (08) and verbs (08) than with adjectives (04) and adverbs (02).

The different selected stories were handed out to the pupils one by one at intervals to give them time to read them at home and appreciate them at their pace. The pupils were explained that they were not obliged to read them. However, they were encouraged to ask their teachers any question concerning a given passage they do not understand or some unknown words they do not grasp the meaning of. The period in which the stories were given is supposed to be the most appropriate for such type of reading in other words “reading for pleasure”: the end of the term after they have taken their exams, to be read also during the holidays (winter holidays 15days). The first story given to the learners was “Little Red Riding Hood” because it is supposed to be already read since it is found in “my book of English 4” for learners of EFL1 at the 7AF level. After five days, a feedback was held with the learners about the format and the content of the story. The learners asserted that they liked it very much and that they enjoyed the illustrations, which helped them understand some passages even if they did not grasp all the words. However, they declared that they learned some words which according to them are the key ones in the story, thanks either to the context, the illustrations, a brother or sister or the dictionary (English-Arabic). They could even retell the story in their own words. Two other stories “Cinderella” and “Snow-White” were handed in the day before the holidays. “Snow White” has proved to be the most difficult story so it was left to be read during the holidays. Then, the fourth story “Aladdin” was given to be read during the first week after the holidays even if it did not include unfamiliar words agreed on by the three teachers. Our aim from introducing it was to keep the learners’ interest and perseverance in reading. This choice of giving the stories at intervals and following this order is not an arbitrary one; there are two main reasons for it. First, it is because the learners are not used to read in English (see Learners’ Questionnaire); therefore, giving the learners those four stories at one time would be too much for them because it would either discourage them from reading or they would read one or two stories

only. Second, the degree of difficulty of each story and its length made us start with the easiest and the shortest ones.

5.2. The Test (O1 and O2)

To collect data about the learners' knowledge in the area of vocabulary, a test was administered. The type of test opted for is "the One group pre-test + post-test". Thus, a pre-test (O1) and a post-test that are identical were held at a given interval (4 weeks). The first took place before the learners were exposed to some selected fairytales (X) and the second after they have read them. 125 learners (64 girls and 61 boys) participated in O1 and 120 learners (62 girls and 58 boys) took part in O2. So, the sample is made of 120 learners. These two identical tests were meant to measure the degree of the impact of (X) on the learners' acquisition of some words which the three teachers in the three schools where English is taught as an FL1 and where the experiment took place agreed they were unknown to their respective learners (see table 39).

5.2.1. Description of the Test

The words listed in table 39 and table 40, have been used in O1 and O2. Both tests are composed of seven sections of different types: definition completion, sentence completion, matching words and translating from English into Arabic. These types of exercise have been chosen taking into consideration the teachers' and the learners' views about the way they used to teach vocabulary for the former and the way they wanted to learn vocabulary for the latter (see Teachers' Questionnaire and Learners' Questionnaire). The different words have been used in the seven sections at random. The instructions were made clear to make the learners concentrate on the words rather than on what they are asked to do. In every section, there is a number of words and the learners were asked to tick the right answer, to put the letter that corresponds to the right answer in the right place or to translate. The learners were asked to do nothing if they do not know the answer. It was explained to them that they are not in a testing session but in learning / teaching one.

5.2.2. Analysis and Interpretation of the Test

Scores obtained in the pre-test and the post-test were compared and analysed to determine whether the pupils have learned any words that their teachers supposed they did not know or not after being exposed to the different stories.

I - Complete the following definitions

-Tick (Ö) the right answer.

1. A pumpkin is
- a. a person
 - b. an animal
 - c. a fruit

Word	Answer	Pre-test (O1)		Post-test (O2)	
		N	%	N	%
A pumpkin	a person	18	15	09	07.50
	an animal	40	33.33	44	36.67
	a fruit*	58	48.33	67	55.83
	No answer	04	03.34	/	/
	Total	120	100	120	100

Table 41: Answers to the Word “pumpkin”

The majority of the learners have identified the “pumpkin” as being “a fruit” (48.33 % in the pre-test and 55.83 % in the post-test). It would appear that the context where this word appears “...‘First bring me a pumpkin’, said the little lady. ‘Then bring me a mouse trap with mice in it.’ When Cinderella brought them, the little lady waved her stick. The pumpkin became a big coach. The mice became horses to pull the coach.” in Cinderella has helped them arrive to this definition. Very few pupils opted for “a person”: a pumpkin cannot be “a person”. For over a third of the pupils, it is “an animal”; this is a plausible possibility taking into account the context– fairytales.

* The results in bold characters in all the tables show the right answers

We note that more pupils opted for “an animal” in the post-test, while less pupils opted for “a person”, and everybody gave an answer (in the pre-test, four pupils did not give any answer). Reading for pleasure of Cinderella has contributed to the acquisition of the word “pumpkin”.

2. A dwarf is a.....
- a. very small man
 - b. fat man
 - c. giant

Word	Answer	Pre-test (O1)		Post-test (O2)	
		N	%	N	%
A dwarf	a very small man	21	17.50	52	43.33
	a fat man	66	55	28	23.34
	a giant	27	22.50	40	33.33
	No answer	06	05	/	/
	Total	120	100	120	100

Table 42: Answers to the Word “dwarf”

The results here strikingly change from the pre-test to the post-test. In the pre-test, the majority of the pupils (55 %) thought that “a dwarf” was “a fat man”, but in the post-test, the majority of the pupils (43.33 %) rightly defined “a dwarf” as “a very small person”. It is worth noting that 22.50 % of the pupils defined “a dwarf” as “a giant”. This definition appears to be a logical one when we do not know the meaning of this word. It shows that at least the learner has identified that the word refers to how tall / small is the person. Like in the previous case (the definition of the word “pumpkin”), all the pupils gave an answer in the post-test (in the pre-test, six pupils did not give any answer).

It is undoubtedly that the reading for pleasure of “Snow White” has helped in the acquisition of the word “a dwarf”: the increase of right answer rises from 17.50 % to 43.44 %. We think, this is mainly due to the number of times (09) the word “dwarf” appears through in the story (see appendix III) and the relationship they could have made with the story in Arabic.

3. A dwelling is a.....
- a. shop
 - b. house
 - c. garden

Word	Answer	Pre-test (O1)		Post-test (O2)	
		N	%	N	%
A dwelling	a shop	31	25.83	35	29.17
	a house	07	05.83	30	25
	a garden	74	61.67	55	45.83
	No answer	08	06.67	/	/
	Total	120	100	120	100

Table 43: Answers to the Word “Dwelling”

Concerning the definition of the word “a dwelling”, a rather unusual term, the results are not surprising. The majority of the pupils, both in the pre-test (61.67 %) and in the post-test (45.83 %) thought it was “a garden”; and 25.83 % in the pre-test and 29.17 % in the post-test thought it was “a shop”. The lowest percentage – both in the pre-test (05.83 %) and in the post-test (25 %) – is that of the right answer (“a house”). We think these results are due to the fact that the pupils thought the word “a dwelling” cannot be “a house”. They thought it is “a garden” more than “a shop” because they know the word “shop” and they think it has no other name. The context where the word appears: “But over the hills, in the green wood shade, Where the seven dwarfs their dwelling have made,” in “Snow White” did not help all the learners. We think it is so because it is in a context written in verse which the pupils are not used to. Like, the dwarfs’ house is referred to by a more appropriate word – “a cottage” – in the same text.

In spite of these negative results, we note an important increase in terms of the number of pupils who gave a right answer (from 07 to 30). We also observe – like for the two previous words – that all the pupils gave an answer in the post-test (08

pupils did not give an answer in the pre-test). These two elements of the results show that reading for pleasure of “snow White” has contributed to the acquisition of this word: “a dwelling”.

The results obtained for the definition of the three words – a pumpkin, a dwarf and a dwelling – show that reading for pleasure of “Cinderella” and “Snow White” has increased the percentage of acquisition of these words (the scores are higher in the post-test) and created more confidence in the learners (all the pupils gave an answer in the post-test).

II - Complete the following definitions.

-Put the right letter in the right sentence.

- | | |
|-------------------------------|--|
| 1. To prick is to..... | a) make a cloth by forming wool. |
| 2. To knit is to | b) feel sorry for somebody. |
| 3. To pity is to | c) pierce something with a sharp point. |

	a) make a cloth by forming wool.				b) feel sorry for somebody.				c) pierce something with a sharp point.				
	Pre-test		Post-test		Pre-test		Post-test		Pre-test		Post-test		Pr
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
To prick	21	17.50	08	06.67	31	25.83	42	35	58	48.33	64	53.33	10
To knit	56	46.67	83	69.16	24	20	08	06.67	31	25.83	23	19.17	09
To pity	34	28.33	22	18.33	55	45.83	65	54.17	20	16.67	25	20.83	11

Table 44: Answers to the Words “to prick”, “to knit” and “to pity”

The analysis of the results to this activity matching the definition of the verbs “to prick”, “to knit” and “to pity” reveals that for the three verbs, the highest scores were recorded for the right definition. We also note that for the three verbs, the number of learners who did not give an answer decreased in the post-test: from 10 to 06 for “to prick”, from 09 to 06 for to knit and from 11 to 08 for “to pity”.

In terms of achievement after the treatment X (reading for pleasure), progress has been observed in the post-test: from 48.33 % to 55.33 % for the definition of the verb “to prick”, from 46.67 % to 69.16 % for the definition of the verb “to knit”, and from 45.83 % to 54.17 % for the definition of the verb “to pity”. This reveals that the contexts in which they appeared in “Snow White” have contributed to the understanding of their definitions.

III - Choose the right synonym.

-Tick the right answer.

1. An axe =

- a. A saw
- b. A hammer
- c. A chopper

Word	Answer	Pre-test (O1)		Post-test (O2)	
		N	%	N	%
An axe =	A saw	52	43.33	41	34.17
	A hammer	28	23.33	44	36.66
	A chopper	21	17.50	35	29.17
	No answer	19	15.84	/	/
	Total	120	100	120	100

Table 45: Answers to the Word “Axe”

The word “axe” was equated with “saw” (43.33 % in the pre-test and 34.17 % in the post-test) and “hammer” (23.33 % in the pre-test and 36.66 % in the post-test) more than with “a chopper”: only 17.50 % in the pre-test and 29.17 % in the post-test have recognized the synonym of the word “axe”. If we go back to “Little Red Riding Hood” the story where this word was taken from, we see that the context “With one blow of his axe, he cut off the wolf’s head and saved Little Red Riding Hood” influenced the pupils in that a woodcutter uses a saw nowadays rather than a chopper. Like, we think the verb “to blow” made them think it is a hammer.

If we consider the progress obtained in the post-test (29.17 %) in comparison with the pre-test (17.50 %) and the fact that all the pupils gave an answer in the post-test (19 pupils did not give an answer in the pre-test), it is possible to say that the context in “Little Red Riding Hood” has somehow contributed to develop the learners’ comprehension of a word they were not familiar with before reading the story.

2. **A mill** =

- a. A factory
- b. A market
- c. A house

Word	Answer	Pre-test (O1)		Post-test (O2)	
		N	%	N	%
A mill =	A factory	56	46.67	75	62.50
	A market	49	40.83	28	23.33
	A house	08	06.67	16	13.34
	No answer	07	05.83	01	00.83
	Total	120	100	120	100

Table 46: Answers to the Word “Mill”

The word “mill” seems to be a word the learners know or have easily recognized as being “a factory” rather than “a market” or “a house”: 46.67 % in the pre-test and 62.50 % in the post-test gave the right answer. It is worth noting that in

the pre-test, 40.83 % of the learners thought “a mill” was “a market”, but nearly half of these learners changed their mind in the post-test and most probably opted for the right answer.

These results reveal that reading for pleasure of “Little Red Riding Hood” where the word “mill” occurs has greatly contributed to the acquisition of this word. In terms of confidence acquired after the treatment X, we see that only one learner did not feel at ease to opt for an answer (07 pupils did not give an answer in the pre-test).

3. Ebony =

- a. Metal
- b. Wood
- c. Plastic

Word	Answer	Pre-test (O1)		Post-test (O2)	
		N	%	N	%
Ebony =	Metal	24	20	29	24.17
	Wood	36	30	57	47.50
	Plastic	51	42.50	33	27.50
	No answer	09	07.5	01	00.83
	Total	120	100	120	100

Table 47: Answers to the Word “Ebony”

In the pre-test, nearly half the learners (42.50 %) have recognized the word “ebony” as being “plastic”, but after the reading for pleasure of “Snow White”, they (47.50 %) have understood it as being “wood”. The context in which the word appears in the story “...a certain queen sat working at a window, the frame of which was made of fine black ebony.....as black as the ebony window frame” helps getting the right meaning if the learners would associate the word “ebony” with the frame of the window generally made of wood.

This leads us to say that the effect of reading for pleasure of “Snow White” has enhanced the possibilities of deducing the meaning of a word they were not necessarily familiar with before the treatment X. This is also shown through the rate of the pupils who did not give an answer which has dropped from 09 in the pre-test to 01 in the post-test.

In terms of giving the synonym of a word, the learners have shown that even if they did not know the word before taking the test, thanks to the exposure to reading for pleasure of the stories, they have learned to identify, among the possibilities presented to them, the right one. If the word “a mill” has scored higher results than the word “an axe” and the word “ebony”, this is most probably due the nature of the options suggested and to the context where they appear in the stories: “Her house is beyond the mill, by the first house in the village” and “With one blow of his axe, he cut off the wolf’s head” in “Little Red Riding Hood” and “...a certain queen sat working at a window, the frame of which was made of fine black ebony.....as black as the ebony window frame” in “Snow White”.

IV - Complete the following sentences.

- Put the right letter in the right sentence.

a- coffin

b- hug

c- sprinkled

1. Drops of bloodthe white snow.
2. She gave her grand mother an affectionate.....
3. They buried the body in a

a) Drops of blood the white snow.				b) She gave her grandmother an affectionate..... .				c) They buried the body in a				No answer			
Pre-test		Post-test		Pre-test		Post-test		Pre-test		Post-test		Pre-test		Post-test	
N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
23	19.17	09	07.50	64	53.33	70	58.33	24	20	41	34.17	09	07.50	/	/
52	43.33	52	43.33	16	13.33	28	23.34	44	36.67	40	33.33	08	06.67	/	/
37	30.83	59	49.17	34	28.33	22	18.33	41	34.17	39	32.50	08	06.67	/	/

Table 48: Answers to the Words “Coffin”, “Hug” and “Sprinkled”

In this activity, filling in the blanks, in the post-test, 34.17 % of the learners recognized the context where the word “coffin” should be used, 23.34% where the word “hug” should be used, and 49.17 % where the word “sprinkled” should be used. It is not surprising that the word “coffin”, a very unusual term, as it refers to an aspect of a Christian funeral rather than a Muslim one, has scored such low results. However, we note that after having seen this word in its context in “Snow White” (“And they made a coffin of glass, so that they might still look at her, and wrote her name upon it...And the coffin was placed upon a hill...At last, however, they had pity on him, and gave him the coffin”) more learners understood what it referred to: something used to bury a dead person. This can be because of the number of times the word has been repeated and the attractiveness of the scene (the supposed death of the heroine).

Overall, the results show a progress: from 20 % to 34.17 % for the word “coffin”, from 13.33 % to 23.34 % for the word “hug” and from 30.83 % to 49.17 % for the word “sprinkled”. This progress, we believe, is attributed to the contact the learners have had with the stories. These results also show a gain in confidence clearly reflected in the fact that in the post-test, all the learners gave an answer for the three verbs (in the pre-test, 09, 08 and 08 respectively did not give an answer).

V - Match the following words with their opposites.

- Put the right letter next to the right word.

- | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------|
| 1. Broad: | a) Modest |
| 2. Gruff: | b) Unclean |
| 3. Proud: | c) Gentle |
| 4. Spruce: | d) Narrow |

Unclean			Gentle				Narrow				No answer				Total	
re-test		Post-test	Pre-test		Post-test		Pre-test		Post-test		Pre-test		Post-test		N	%
%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%		
20.83	42	35	17	14.17	21	17.50	41	34.16	50	41.67	17	14.17	03	02.50	120	100
05	11	09.17	64	53.33	40	33.33	18	15	30	25	17	14.17	07	05.83	120	100
27.50	22	18.33	10	08.33	22	18.33	29	24.17	34	28.34	17	14.17	07	05.83	120	100
31.67	35	29.17	12	10	30	25	15	12.50	06	05	16	13.33	07	05.83	120	100

Table 49: Answers to the Words “Broad”, “Gruff”, “Proud” and “Spruce”

In this activity, matching opposites, the adjective “broad” and the adjective “gruff” have recorded the highest scores, both in the pre-test and the post-test. In the case of the adjective “proud”, in the pre-test, 27.50 % of the pupils thought its opposite was “unclean”, 25.83 % “modest” (the right answer) and 24.17 % “narrow”; but in the post-test, the highest score was recorded by “modest” (29.17 %) followed by “narrow” (28.34 %). It would seem that the reading for pleasure of “Snow White” (where this adjective was taken from) has helped the learners at least understand that its opposite was not “unclean” (the scores decreased from 27.50 % to 18.33 %). Concerning the adjective “Spruce”, the results in both the pre-test and the post-test are rather close between “modest” and “unclean” (the right answer). In this particular case, the reading of “Snow White” (where the word has been taken from) has not helped the learners, but rather confused at least three of them (pre-test:38, post-test:35) who seemed to have opted for “modest” (pre-test:39, post-test:42).

These results do not reveal any substantial gain in the understanding of the adjectives. This could be related to the nature of adjectives, to these particular adjectives or to the contexts where they were used: “It was in the middle of winter, when the broad flakes of snow were falling around...”, “...the king soon married another wife, who was very beautiful, but so proud” and “Every thing was spruce and neat in the cottage” (in “Snow White”); “Who is it?, came the gruff wolf’s voice” (in “Little Red Riding hood”). In addition to that – contrary to the previous activities – for this activity, there was some hesitation as to the opposites of these adjectives: for the four adjectives, some pupils (03 for “broad”, 07 for “gruff”, “proud” and “spruce”) did not give any answer in the post-test (17 did not give any answer for “broad”, “gruff” and “proud” and 16 for “spruce” in the pre-test).

VI - Match the following words with their translation in Arabic.

- Put the right letter next to the right translation.

1. يغزل :.....

a- To scold

2. بتأمل :.....

b- To spin

3. يثور :

c- Thoughtfully

	يغزل /y a g h z i l u/				بتأمل /b i t a ? a m u l i n/				يثور /y a t h ū r u/			
	Pre-test		Post-test		Pre-test		Post-test		Pre-test		Post-test	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
To Scold	09	07.50	15	12.50	52	43.33	53	44.17	53	44.17	52	43.33
To Spin	82	68.33	68	56.67	19	15.83	28	23.33	13	10.84	24	20
Thoughtfully	23	19.17	36	30	44	36.67	40	33.33	47	39.16	44	36.67

Table 50: Translations to the Words “To Scold”, “To Spin” and “Thoughtfully”

	يغزل /y a g h z i l u/				بتأمل /b i t a ? a m u l i n/				يثور /y a t h ū r u/			
	Pre-test		Post-test		Pre-test		Post-test		Pre-test		Post-test	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
To Scold	09	07.50	15	12.50	52	43.33	53	44.17	53	44.17	52	43.33
To Spin	82	68.33	68	56.67	19	15.83	28	23.33	13	10.84	24	20
Thoughtfully	23	19.17	36	30	44	36.67	40	33.33	47	39.16	44	36.67

Table 50: Translations to the Words “To Scold”, “To Spin” and “Thoughtfully”

The number of pupils who gave the right translation of the word “to scold” is approximately the same in the pre-test and the post-test (53 and 52 respectively). The second observation which can be made is that the number is approximately the same as the one of the learners who thought that “to scold” meant in Arabic بتأمل / b i t a? a m u l i n / . Concerning the translation of “to spin”, the vast majority of the learners gave the right answer (68.33% in the pre-test and 56.67% in the post-test). “Thoughtfully” was rightly translated by the majority of the learners: 36.67 % in the post-test, but in the pre-test, the highest score (39.16 %), was recorded for “يثور” / y a t h ū r u / in Arabic.

What characterizes the results of the translation of the three words – “to scold”, “to spin” and “thoughtfully”– is that there was a decrease in the post-test: from 44.17 % to 43.33 % for “to scold”, from 68.33 % to 56.67 % for “to spin” and from 36.67 % to 33.33 % for “thoughtfully”. However, the decrease is not very important.

VII -Translate the following words in Arabic:

- 1. Betrayed
- 2. To gobble
- 3. Exceedingly

Word	Pre-test (O1)			Post-test (O2)		
	Answer	N	%	Answer	N	%
Betrayed	قبیح /qabihun/	10	08.34	خجل /xajila/	01	00.83
	ضرب /daraba/	03	02.50	يتعب /yatcabu/	02	01.67
	يخفي /yaxfi/	02	01.67	تعبان /tacbanun/	01	00.83
	يأخذ /ya?xuthu/	01	00.83	يضرب /yadribu/	02	01.67
	يتدرب /yatadarabu/	01	00.83	حدث /hadatha/	05	04.17
	كريه /karihun/	01	00.83	/	/	/
	يعوم /yacumu/	01	00.83	/	/	/
	No answer	101	84.17	No answer	109	90.83
	Total	120	100	Total	120	100

Table 51: Translations of the Word “Betrayed”

All the translations suggested for the word “betrayed” are not accurate, both in the pre-test and the post-test. In addition to this, a large majority of learners did not give an answer, both in the pre-test (84.17 %) and the post-test (90.83 %). The past participle of the verb “betrayed” was used in “Snow White” in “Then the queen was very much alarmed; for she knew that the glass always spoke the truth, and was sure that the servant had betrayed her.” The context seems somehow beyond the level of the learners (a very long sentence with embedding) and cannot help the learners deduce the meaning. Like, the word “betrayed” was not repeated in another context that would have given them another opportunity to be in contact with it again.

Word	Pre-test (O1)			Post-test (O2)		
	Answer	N	%	Answer	N	%
To gobble	تمشط /tamshutu/	02	01.67	مبتسم /mubtasimun/	01	00.83
	لين /layinun/	01	00.83	بتمعن /bitamacunin/	02	01.67
	يكسر /yukasiru/	01	00.83	يقابل /yuqābilu/	01	00.83
	يساعد /yusācidu/	01	00.83	يجمع /yajmacu/	01	00.83
	يرتدي /yartadi/	01	00.83	يواجه /yuwājihu/	01	00.83
	يقتل /yaqtulu/	01	00.83	يلمع /yalmacu/	01	00.83
	يبيع /yabicu/	01	00.83	ينقض /yanqadu/	02	01.67
	يجد /yajidu/	01	00.83	يهجم /yahjumu/	02	01.67
	يستمتع /yastamticu/	01	00.83	يسمع /yasmacu/	01	00.83
	/	/	/	يأكل /ya?kulu/	14	11.67
	/	/	/	يلتهم /yaltahimu/	11	09.17
	/	/	/	هيئة /hay?atun/	03	02.50
	No answer	110	91.69	No answer	80	66.67
	Total	120	100	Total	120	100

Table 52: Translations of the Word “To gobble”

A very large majority did not give any translation to the word “to gobble” in the pre-test (91.69 %). However, in the post-test, this was reduced to 66.67 %, and 09.17 % of the pupils gave the right translation – “يلتهم” / y a l t a h i m u /. Another proportion of the pupils – 11.67 % – gave an acceptable translation – “يأكل” / y a ? k u l u /. The verb “to gobble” was used in “Little Red Riding Hood” in “He would have liked to gobble her up on the spot, but he did not dare to because there were some woodcutters nearby in the forest.” Contrary to the previous word (“betrayed”) the meaning of the verb “to gobble” can easily be deduced from the context especially if we know the learners have already been in contact with the story in Arabic. We have also noticed that four learners gave two translations which are not right but that can fit the context: يهجم / y a h j u m u / that means “to attack” and ينفض / y a n q a d u / that means “to swoop”.

Word	Pre-test (O1)			Post-test (O2)		
	Answer	N	%	Answer	N	%
Exceedingly	حادث / h ā d i t h u n /	08	06.68	ودود / w a d ū d u n /	01	00.83
	يقاوم / y u q ā w i m u /	01	00.83	يخرج / y a x r u j /	01	00.83
	يخمن / y u x a m i n u /	01	00.83	يستفسر / y a s t a f s i r u /	01	00.83
	يأكل / y a ? k u l u /	01	00.83	يتحمل / y a t a h a m a l u /	01	00.83
	الأقصى / a l - ? a q s i /	01	00.83	يحتقر / y a h t a q i r u /	02	01.68
	No answer	108	90	No answer	114	95
	Total	120	100	Total	120	100

Table 53: Translations of the Word “Exceedingly”

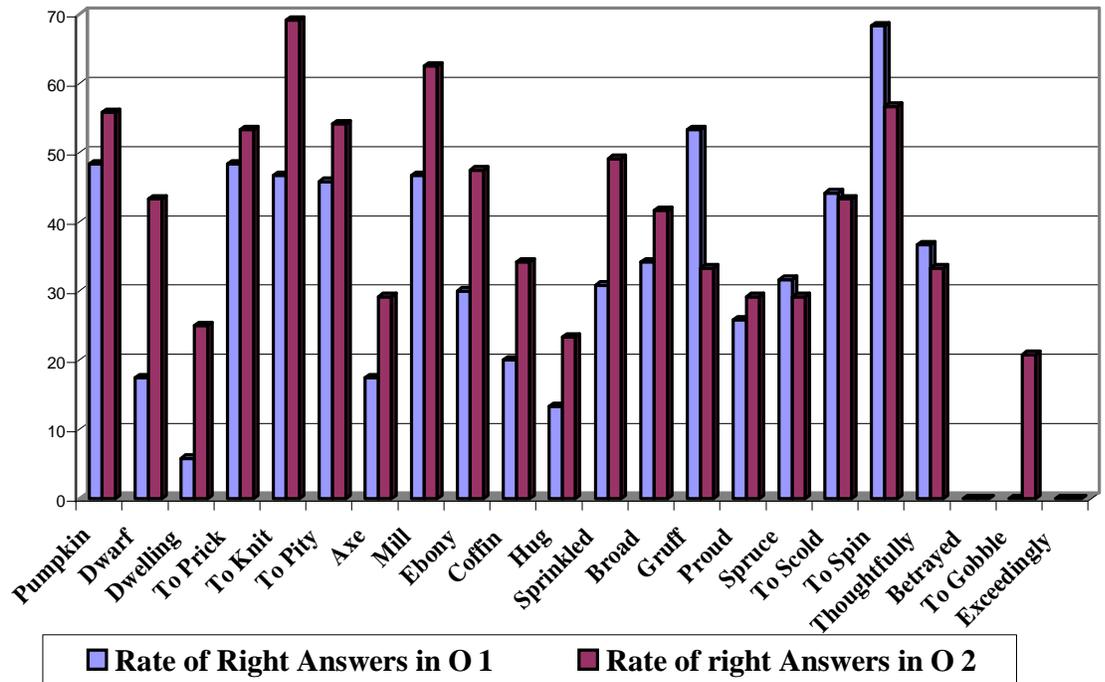
For the translation of the word “exceedingly”, like for the word “to gobble” and the word “betrayed”, the highest score is that of the learners who did not give any answer (90 % in the pre-test and 95 % in the post-test). Like for the word “betrayed”, the suggested translations were not accurate. The adverb “exceedingly” was used in “Snow White” in “Then Snow White was very much tempted to taste, for the apple looked exceedingly nice”. The word “exceedingly” is of little use and the learners are much used to its equivalent “very”. Like, the context where the word appears did not help them deduce the meaning.

The results of this part of the test show that apparently the translation of a word is more difficult than giving a definition, filling in blanks, giving a synonym or giving an opposite. We think that this is due to the fact that the teachers do not use translations in their classes as they would do for the other activities.

The general results in terms of category of words (nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs) as included in the different types of activity – completing a definition, giving a synonym, filling blanks, matching (definitions, opposites, translations) and translating – are summed up in the following table and figure.

Parts	Words	Right Answers in O1		Right Answers in O2	
		N	%	N	%
I-Complete the following definitions.	Pumpkin	58	48.33	67	55.83
	Dwarf	21	17.50	52	43.33
	Dwelling	07	05.83	30	25
II-Complete the following definitions.	To Prick	58	48.33	64	53.33
	To Knit	56	46.67	83	69.16
	To Pity	55	45.83	65	54.17
III- Choose the right synonym.	Axe	21	17.50	35	29.17
	Mill	56	46.67	75	62.50
	Ebony	36	30	57	47.50
IV-Complete the following sentences.	Coffin	24	20	41	34.17
	Hug	16	13.33	28	23.34
	Sprinkled	37	30.83	59	49.17
V-Match the following words with their opposites.	Broad	41	34.16	50	41.67
	Gruff	64	53.33	40	33.33
	Proud	31	25.83	35	29.17
	Spruce	38	31.67	35	29.17
VI-Match the following words with their translation in Arabic.	To Scold	53	44.17	52	43.33
	To Spin	82	68.33	68	56.67
	Thoughtfully	44	36.67	40	33.33
VII-Translate the following words in Arabic.	Betrayed	/	/	/	/
	To Gobble	/	/	25	20.83
	Exceedingly	/	/	/	/

Table 54: Number and Rate of Right Answers in (O1) and (O2)



From Table 54 and figure 20, we can deduce the following conclusion.

- 1- The learners have increased their scores in the post-test (after reading for pleasure of the stories) in 15 cases out of 22, with 10 cases of major increase (more than 10 %). This observation can lead us to say that the treatment proposed to the learners had its effect in the majority of cases since they could recognize the meaning of the majority of the words with higher percentages in the post-test than in the pre-test.
- 2- The learners have developed a confidence in their ability to understand: for 09 cases, all the learners gave an answer in the post-test.
- 3- The activities proposed to the learners were all at their level except activity VII (Translate the following words in Arabic) where we have noted no answers for two cases something that would make us say that the learners are not used to such an activity or are weak at translating. Like, we have noted that the less guided the instruction is in the activity, the smaller the number of answers.
- 4- Concerning the four stories proposed to the learners, we have noticed that they were at the level of the learners with some degrees of difficulty. The most difficult story in terms of structure and vocabulary was “Snow White”. As shown in table 39, this story recorded 15 unknown words, according to the three teachers, the highest number of unfamiliar words per story. The results of the pre-test confirmed this choice. However, they were ameliorated after the treatment and nearly all the 15 words were acquired by the learners with different degrees of attainment. The easiest ones were “Little Red Riding Hood” and “Cinderella”. This would justify our choice of the order of administration of the stories to the learners before the post-test.

5.2.3. Conclusion

This experiment – pre-test, reading for pleasure, post-test – reveals that learners of EFL1 at the level of 9AF could benefit from exposure to stories they enjoy reading, and that they can develop a certain amount of acquisition of different categories of words they are not necessarily familiar with.

6. Conclusion

This research investigation – the degree of impact of storytelling on vocabulary acquisition at the elementary level by learners of EFL1– was carried out to answer the statement of the problem: whether the teaching of a foreign language through the use of storytelling as a reading for pleasure activity helps young learners acquire new vocabulary items. In this context, the teachers' questionnaire has given important data about what type of stories the teachers used in class as a reading material for their learners and how they teach and present unknown vocabulary items showing their preference for one technique or another. The learners' questionnaire also was of great help to know about the learners' preferences in matters of reading, especially for pleasure. It also helped to know about the learners' techniques in learning vocabulary and what they do once they confront an unknown vocabulary item whether in class or at home.

The two questionnaires gave a clear view about the type of stories the learners liked to read, and were used to read, either in English or in Arabic, in class or at home. This type of texts has proved to be an enjoyable means for learning a foreign language, and more precisely vocabulary items since the learners showed that they were greatly engaged in the reading of the different stories they were given. This has led them to practice the language in an informal setting, at their pace and in a way in which they felt comfortable and confident.

The results of the test showed that the learners acquired more than half the words they did not know with different degrees of attainment. Likewise, they have also confirmed the research hypothesis that such texts referred to as fairytales contribute greatly to the development of foreign learners' vocabulary acquisition at the elementary level.

The experiment has demonstrated the need of the learners for stories which can be beneficial to them, in the educational and the emotional one. Thus, the use of this

kind of texts in foreign language teaching / learning is a good means, not only to develop the language, but also to enhance the learners' imagination and culture.

Chapter Five

Pedagogical Implications

1. Introduction

2. Implementing the Tradition of Reading for Pleasure

3. The Introduction of Tales in Textbooks for EFL Learners

4. Teaching EFL through Tales

5. Conclusion

1. Introduction

The term fairytales is a generic one. It can be applied to stories where there is no interference of a fairy – like in the stories of Snow-White or Little Red Riding Hood – but where there are oppressed heroes who are generally bound to take up great challenges in order to achieve impossible tasks to recover their rights. These tales intended, at the outset for children, are full of morals and pedagogic dimensions. Moreover, their use can be of great help to the learners in different matters. It can help develop the learners' degree of comprehensibility when reading texts, acquire new vocabulary items or discover their use in other contexts and even learn about culture when the tale belongs to another country. In order to make this type of texts play the role it is intended for, syllabus makers, textbook writers and teachers should reconsider it and give it the place it deserves in the teaching /learning process.

2. Implementing the Tradition of Reading for Pleasure

On the whole, Algerian learners, even at university level, are not steady readers. In an informal contact with third year university students, we were struck by the fact that these students could not cite more than ten titles they have read in their life; and when they did, they could not report what they have read. The ones who cited some titles and who could report what they read did not mention other titles than those they have studied – so, those they were compelled to read – mostly at the level of the university more precisely those they were forced to read, very few students mentioned books other than those existing in their programme.

There are many factors which can be the cause of such a situation. One can cite some modern achievements like the television which makes us forget about reading; some people prefer to watch a movie that lasts one hour and a half rather than to read a book that can take hours, if not days. However, this is only an excuse because everybody knows that modern achievements are not the real cause, even if some are

really invading us. The true problem is that our learners have not been initiated to the satisfaction and the magic of reading.

It is widely acknowledged that reading widens one's culture and allows us to know more about the world, about peoples, and even about the nature of the human being. It is said that reading brings so much and that it makes a full man. Besides, reading makes learners discover language with its different aspects, and consequently, enhances the process of learning. In order to achieve this objective, teachers should think about how to bring their learners to reading. This can be achieved first, by introducing them to some stories and making them feel the need to read, and then, by selecting and suggesting some interesting ones. This activity can be applied at any level. Once, the learners start savouring what they read, they will normally persevere as readers, and the tradition of reading, especially for pleasure, will regain its right status.

3. The Introduction of Tales in Textbooks for EFL Learners

It was proved that learners like tales and fables among other types of stories. However, it is recognized that they cannot find them in the market, especially in another language than Arabic, and if they do, the stories are most of the time written in French. Thus, we think that it has become a necessity to think about how to make our learners get this type of stories in English.

In an informal discussion we had with the teachers and the learners who were involved in the experiment about the impact of storytelling on vocabulary acquisition, we noticed their wish to be procured with more stories of such type and they mentioned the organization of a personal library. This has given us the idea of going and visiting some school libraries in order to consider their content. We noticed that the books available at these libraries were not at the learners' level and interest. The second observation we made is that nearly all the books in these libraries are in Arabic, and the few books in French or English are either dictionaries (most of the time English- Arabic) or exercise books dealing mostly with grammar.

In this context, we suggest that textbook writers should first think about how to overcome this shortage and recover it by introducing tales in the new textbooks that will be intended for 3^{ème} and 4^{ème} Année Moyenne. It has to be noted that in the textbooks for the 1^{ère} and 2^{ème} Année Moyenne – already –, this type of texts was not taken into consideration even in a simplified way as an initiation. We also suggest that textbook writers think about producing extra material consisting of stories for children in English (or in French) that the school libraries can lend to the learners. These stories can be selected from different sources to create diversity and be interesting to the maximum of learners. As an alternative for the time being, the teachers can take the initiative by themselves and type some stories they know for their learners, and provide some illustrations, if possible.

4. Teaching EFL through Tales

Since tales, fables and other types of texts referred to as Children literature have proved to play an important role in developing a foreign language through reading for pleasure, syllabus designers should think about how to introduce it in the teaching / learning situation.

First, it is necessary to train teachers about how to use such type of texts and how to exploit it in order to initiate learners to reading. This can be achieved through the organization of in service training where teachers can learn what to give to their learners to read, when and how. We can even train them to make their own stories.

Second, they should exploit the learners' readings in the practice of the language by giving examples related to what they have read, making learners summarize a story they read orally or in writing to make the others share it with them and to make them practise the language. It will be a very good exercise to make the learners know new language forms, idiomatic expressions, new lexical items, others' culture and ancient cultures.

5. Conclusion

Storytelling and children literature in general has proved to be a good means in the field of teaching a foreign language. Textbook writers and especially teachers should take it into consideration as an effective teaching material that can help them in their learners' acquisition of the foreign language they teach, and no longer consider it as a relaxing, recreational one.

CONCLUSION

This study concerned with the impact of storytelling, mainly tales, on the acquisition of foreign language vocabulary items has led us to conclude that the type of texts called children literature which includes different genres is of great benefit in learning a foreign language, especially lexis.

The learners, subject of the study, proved to like this type of narratives and have learnt many vocabulary items through reading stories for pleasure. The results obtained in the pre-test and the post-test confirmed the impact of the material presented to them: tales. Thus, they also confirmed the research hypothesis that texts called fairytales contribute to the development of foreign learners' vocabulary acquisition at the elementary level.

Course designers, textbook writers, and teachers are invited to reconsider the use of storytelling in the teaching / learning of English as a foreign language at the elementary level with young learners. They should think about their introduction to the learners either as texts in the learners' book or by printing them as independent stories to be read at home, a task which seems difficult and expensive to realize but which is in fact feasible and very beneficial to our learners, as the study proved it. The concerned authorities should also reconsider the role of the school libraries and provide them with foreign language materials like stories and magazines written in English to enhance the learners' knowledge of and about the language.

Storytelling is a very important material that helps the learning of English by young learners at the elementary level in the Algerian context. Therefore, this should be taken into consideration in the designing of the coming Algerian syllabuses and textbooks of English.

APPENDIXES

Appendix I: The Teachers' Questionnaire

Appendix II: The Learners' Questionnaire

Appendix III: The Reading Material

Appendix IV: The Test

Appendix I

The Teachers' Questionnaire

Dear teacher,

The following questionnaire is part of a research work that deals with the impact of storytelling on the acquisition of vocabulary at the elementary level. It examines the use of storytelling as a teaching material. It also investigates the field of vocabulary teaching and the way(s) teachers deal with unknown words.

Your answers will be of great help for the research.

Would you, please, tick the appropriate box and make statements whenever required.

Thank you in advance.

Section One: Teaching Experience

1- How many years have you been teaching?

..... years.

2- Have you taught English as FL1?

-Yes

- No

3- If "Yes", for how long?

..... years.

4- What level(s) have you taught? Please, specify the number of years for each level.

• 4AF years.

• 5 AF years.

• 6 AF years.

• 7 AF years.

• 8 AF years.

- 9 AF years.

Section Two: Stories as a Teaching Material

5- Do you use stories in your class?

- Yes

- No

6-If “Yes”, which ones?

.....

7-Do you ask the learners to read stories in class?

- Yes

- No

8- If “Yes”, which ones?

.....

Section Three: Teaching Vocabulary

9-Do you present new words in every lesson?

-Yes

- No

10-When you teach new words do you use:

- Translation
- Definition
- Word in Context
- Synonym/opposite

Always	Sometimes	Rarely	If Necessary	Never

- Other: Please, specify.....
.....

Section Four: Dealing with Unknown Words

11- Do you explain all the unknown words in a text?

- Yes

- No

12- If “Yes”, you do it:

- Before reading
- During reading
- After reading

13- When you explain the unknown words, how do you proceed?

.....
.....

14- When the learners encounter unknown words, they:

- Ignore them
- Ask a peer
- Ask you
- Look them up in a dictionary

15- If your learners ask you the meaning of words in class, you:

- Give a translation
- Give a definition
- Put them in context
- Give a synonym / opposite
- Show a picture

Other: Please, specify.....
.....

16- If your learners refer to a dictionary, do you help them to use it?

-Yes

-No

17- In case they use a dictionary, what kind of dictionary is it?

• An English-English dictionary

• An English-Arabic dictionary

• An English-French dictionary

18- When your learners encounter unfamiliar words, do they use a notebook?

-Yes

- No

19- Do you ask your learners to use a notebook?

- Yes

- No

20- Do you have a look at their notebooks?

- Yes

- No

21- If “Yes”, what technique(s) do they employ?

.....
.....

Appendix II

The Learners' Questionnaire

Dear pupil,

This questionnaire enters in the preparation of a research work. It is designed to investigate the field of reading stories and the way you proceed when encountering unknown words while reading either in class or at home.

Please, read every question carefully then put a cross in the right box or complete sentences when necessary. Do not hesitate to ask for help whenever you do not understand a given question.

Thank you

عزيزي التلميذ،
يدخل هذا الاستبيان في تحضير بحث يرمي إلى استكشاف ميدان قراءة القصص والطريقة التي
جديدة خلال قراءتكم باللغة الإنجليزية سواء داخل القسم أو في البيت. تستعملونها حين مصادفتكم لمفردات
(في الخانة x في هذا الاستبيان عليك عزيزي بقراءة كل سؤال بتمعن ثم وضع علامة)
المناسبة وإكمال بعض الجمل حين يطلب منك ذلك لا تتردد في طرح أي استفسار عند ما لا تفهم أي سؤال أو
تعليلة.
شكرا

Section One: Reading Stories

1-Do you like reading stories?

- Yes

- No

2- If "Yes", what type of stories do you like?

• Fables

• Fairytales

• Adventures

• Other: Please, specify:

3- Do you read stories in class?

- Yes

- No

4- If “Yes”, which ones? Please give the title or the main theme of the story.

.....
.....
.....

5- Do you read stories at home?

-Yes

-No

6- If “Yes”, which ones? Please, give the title or the main theme of the story.

.....
.....
.....

Section Two: Dealing with Unknown Words in Class

7-In class, when you encounter an unknown word while reading, do you:

- Read again to guess the meaning from the context
- Ask your teacher about its meaning
- Ask a peer
- Look it up in a dictionary
- Ignore it

8-If you use a dictionary, is it:

- An English-English dictionary
- An English-Arabic dictionary
- An English-French dictionary

9-What do you prefer as an answer to explain a word?

- A translation
- A definition
- A word in context
- A synonym / opposite
- Other: Please,specify.....

Section Three: Dealing with Unknown Words at Home

10-When you do not understand a word, do you:

- Ask someone
- Look it up in a dictionary
- Ignore it

11- If you ask someone, do you ask:

- Your mother
- Your father
- Your sister
- Your brother
- Other Please, specify:

12- If you use a dictionary, is it:

- An English-English dictionary
- An English-Arabic dictionary
- An English-French dictionary

13- When you encounter an unfamiliar word, do you use a notebook?

- Yes

- No

14- If “Yes”, is it:

- Always
- Sometimes
- Seldom
- Rarely

15- Do you use a notebook to:

- Write the meaning in your mother tongue
- Write the meaning in English using synonyms / opposites
- put it in a sentence of your own
- Use a drawing

Appendix III

The Reading Material

1- Little Red Riding Hood

2- Cinderella

3- Snow-White

4- Aladdin

These are the four stories as they were given to the three teachers showing the contexts where the selected unknown words appear (see highlighted passages). They are also included at the end of the dissertation in the format they were given to the pupils.

Dear teacher,

This is part of a research work on the impact of storytelling on the acquisition of foreign language vocabulary items through reading for pleasure.

Would you, please, read the following four stories (Little Red Riding Hood, Cinderella, Snow White and Aladdin) and underline all the words you think your pupils do not know or have never encountered before.

Thank you in advance

M.R. FADEL

Little Red Riding Hood*

Once upon a time there was a little village girl, the prettiest you have ever seen. Her mother loved her dearly, as did her grandmother. She had made her a little red hood, which suited her so well that every one called her Little Red Riding Hood.

One day, her mother said to her: “Your grandmother is not very well. Go and see how she is, you can take her some cookies and this homemade jar of jelly.”

Little Red Riding Hood left right away to visit her grandmother who lived in another village. As she was walking through the forest, she met a wolf. He would have liked to gobble her up on the spot, but he did not dare to because there were some woodcutters nearby in the forest. He pretended to be very kind and asked her where she was going.

The poor girl did know that it was dangerous to talk to a wolf and she said to him: “I am going to see my grandmother, to take her some cookies and a jar of jelly my mother has made for her.”

“Does she live very far away?” asked the wolf, “Oh yes” replied Little Red Riding Hood, “Her house is beyond the mill, by the first house in the village.”

“Well,” said the wolf, “I would like to see her too, I will take this road here, and you take the other road, and we will see who arrives first.”

The wolf set off on the shortest path, running as fast as he could, while the little girl went by the other, longer path, amusing herself by gathering nuts, running after butterflies and picking small bunches of flowers.

It did not take the wolf very long to reach the grandmother’s house.

He reached up and knocked at the door. Tap, tap...

*Adapted from “my book of English 4”

“Who is it?”, came a voice from inside. “It is your grand-daughter, Little Red Riding Hood,” said the wolf, disguising his voice. “I have brought you some cookies and a jar of jelly my mother has made for you.”

The grandmother, who was in bed, called out: “Lift up the latch and come in.”

The wolf lifted the latch and the door opened. At once, he leapt on to the bed and ate the poor woman in less than a second. Then, he closed the door and laid down in the grandmother’s bed to wait for Little Red Riding Hood. A few moments later, she knocked at the door. Tap, tap...

“Who is it?”, came the **gruff** wolf’s voice. When she heard this, Little Red Riding Hood was a little scared at first, but remembering her grandmother was ill, she answered, “It is your granddaughter, Little Red Riding Hood. I have brought you some cookies and a jar of jelly my mother has made for you.”

The wolf softened his voice a little and called out, “Lift up the latch and come in.” Little Red Riding Hood lifted the latch and the door opened.

The wolf hid under the bed covers and said: “Put the cookies and the jar of jelly on the table and come sit on the bed beside me.” Little Red Riding Hood climbed on the bed and stared at her grandmother.

“Grandma, what big arms you have!” she cried.

“All the better to **hug** you with” the wolf replied.

“And grandma, what big ears you have!”

“All the better to hear you with”

“Grandma, what big eyes you have!”

“All the better to see you with, my child”

“Grandma, what big teeth you have!” cried Little Red Riding Hood.

“All the better to eat you with” barked the wolf and, throwing back the cover, he leapt out of bed. Just as he was about to eat up the little girl, **the woodcutter who had been in the forest, burst into the cottage. With one blow of his axe, he cut off the wolf’s head and saved Little Red Riding Hood.** Nobody was ever troubled by that wicked creature again.

Cinderella*

This is another old story. It is not true but people tell it to children all over the world. Cinderella's father and mother were both dead. She lived with her aunt. Her aunt had two daughters. They were both fat and ugly. The aunt and her daughters hated Cinderella because she was beautiful. They made her do all the work in the house. She worked very hard but they always **scolded** her for not working hard enough.

"You must work harder," they said angrily. "You are a lazy girl."

Poor Cinderella stayed in the kitchen all day, cooking, washing the dishes and looking after the fire. The ugly sisters sat lazily in comfortable chairs all day trying to make themselves look less ugly. They wore fine clothes but Cinderella had only one dirty dress. She wore it all the time. She was very unhappy. She often dreamed of happy days with her mother.

One day a message came from the king. His son, the Prince, was old enough to marry. The king was looking for the most beautiful girl in the land for the Prince to marry. She would become a Princess. The king asked all the ladies in the land to come to a great dance. On the night of the dance, the Prince would choose his wife. The two ugly sisters wanted to go. They wanted to marry the Prince.

When Cinderella heard about the dance, she wanted to go, too. She asked her aunt politely, "May I go, please, aunt?" Her aunt and the ugly sisters laughed rudely. They thought that this was a big joke. They said, "You can't go."

A coach pulled by six white horses came to the door and the ugly sisters went off to the dance with their mother. Poor Cinderella sat by the fire crying. Suddenly she heard a gentle voice saying, "Don't cry, Cinderella. You will go to the dance. I will help you." Cinderella looked up and saw a little old lady. She was holding a stick with a shining star at the top. "First bring me a **pumpkin**," said the little old lady. "Then bring me a mouse trap with the mice in it."

* Adapted from LADYBIRD BOOKS 1978.

When Cinderella brought them, the little lady waved her stick. **The pumpkin became a big coach.** The mice became horses to pull the coach. The lady waved her stick at Cinderella. Suddenly she was wearing a wonderful dress made of silk with silver buttons. On her feet were shoes made of glass. She looked beautiful! “Now get into the coach,” said the little lady, “and go to the dance. But remember! You must be home before midnight.

Cinderella enjoyed the dance very much. She looked very beautiful and the Prince danced with her all the time. She nearly forgot the words of the little old lady. Suddenly the clock began to strike twelve. She ran outside and down the steps. **The coach became a pumpkin once more.** The horses became mice. Poor Cinderella walked home and started work again. But she was happy when she remembered dancing with the Prince.

The prince ran after Cinderella and found one of her glass shoes on the steps. The next day, he sent men to all parts of the country with the glass shoe. “If anyone can wear this small shoe,” he said, “she must be the beautiful lady and I will marry her.”

When the men brought the shoe to the ugly sisters, they quarrelled about it. “I shall try first,” said the younger sister. “I shall wear it and be the Princess.” “No,” said the older sister. “I shall wear it and be the Princess.” They both pretended to put on the shoe, but their feet were big and the shoe was small. The men laughed. “Let Cinderella try,” said one of the men. Cinderella put the shoe on easily.

When the men told the Prince, he married her, and they lived happily ever after.

Snow-White*

It was in the middle of winter, when the **broad** flakes of snow were falling around. A certain queen sat working at a window, the frame of which was made of fine black **ebony**. As she was looking out upon the snow, she **pricked** her finger, and three drops of blood fell upon it. Then she gazed **thoughtfully** upon the red drops which **sprinkled** the white snow, and said, "Would that my little daughter may be as white as that snow, as red as the blood, and as black as the **ebony** window-frame!" And so the little girl grew up: her skin was as white as snow, her cheeks as rosy as the blood and her hair as black as **ebony**. So, she was called Snow-White. But this queen died; and the king soon married another wife, who was very beautiful, but so **proud**. She could not bear to think that any one could surpass her. She had a magical looking glass to which she used to go and gaze upon herself in it, and say,

*"Tell me, glass, tell me true
Of all the ladies in the land,
Who is the fairest tell me who?"*

And the glass answered, "*You, queen, are the fairest in the land*"

But Snow-White grew more and more beautiful. When she was seven years old she was so bright as the day and fairer than the queen herself. Then the glass one day answered the queen, when she went to consult it as usual,

*"You, queen, are fair and beautiful,
But Snow-White is the fairest!"*

When she heard this, she turned pale with rage and envy; and called to a servant and said, "Take Snow-White away into the wide wood, that I may never see her more!" Then the servant led her away; but his heart melted when she begged him to spare her life, and he said, "I will not hurt you, pretty child!" so he left her by herself; and though he thought it most likely that the wild beasts would tear her in pieces, he felt as of a great weight were taken off his heart when he had made up his mind not to kill her, but leave her to her fate. Then poor Snow-White wandered along through the wood in great fear; and the wild beasts roared about her, but none did her

* Adapted from LADYBIRD BOOKS 1978.

any harm. In the evening she came to a little cottage, and went in there to rest herself, for her little feet would carry her no farther. **Every thing was spruce and neat in the cottage** : on the table was spread a white cloth and there were seven little plates with seven little loaves, and seven little glasses with milk in them; and knives and forks laid in order; and by the wall stood seven little beds. Then, she was very hungry, she picked a little piece off each loaf, and drank a very little milk out of each glass; and after that, she thought she would lie down and rest. So she tried all the little beds; and one was too long, and another was too short, till at last the seventh suited her; and there she laid herself down, and went to sleep. **Presently in came the masters of the cottage, who were seven little dwarfs** that lived among the mountains, and dug and searched for gold. They lighted up their seven lamps, and saw directly that not all was right. The first said: "Who has been sitting on my stool?" The second: "Who has been eating off my plate?" The third: "Who has been picking my bread?" The fourth: "Who has been meddling with my spoon?" The fifth: "Who has been handling my fork?" The sixth: "Who has been cutting with my knife?" The seventh: "Who has been drinking my milk?" Then the first looked round and said: "Who has been laying on my bed?" And the rest came running to him, and every one cried out that somebody had been upon his bed. But the seventh saw Snow-White, and called all his brothers to come and see her; and they cried out with wonder and astonishment, and brought their lamps to look at her, and said, "Good heavens! What a lovely child she is!" And they were delighted to see her, and took care not to wake her; and **the seventh dwarf slept an hour with each of the other dwarfs in turn, till the night was gone.**

In the morning, Snow-White told them all her story; and they pitied her, and said **if she would keep all things in order, and cook and wash, and knit and spin for them, she might stay where she was, and they would take good care of her.** Then they went out all day long to their work, seeking for gold and silver in the mountains; and Snow-White remained at home, and they warned her, and said. "The queen will soon find out where you are, so take care and let no one in."

But the queen, now that she thought Snow-White was dead, believed that she

was certainly the handsomest lady in the land; and she went to her glass and said

*“Tell me, glass, tell me true
Of all the ladies in the land,
Who is fairest tell me who?”*

And the glass answered,

*“You, queen, are the fairest in all this land;
But over the hills, in the green wood shade,
Where the seven **dwarfs** their **dwelling** have made,
There Snow- White is hiding her head, and she
Is lovelier far, O queen! than you.”*

Then the queen was very much alarmed; for she knew that the glass always spoke the truth, and was sure that the servant had **betrayed** her. And she could not bear to think that any one lived who was more beautiful than she was; and she said, “Snow-White shall die! If it costs me my life.” So she went secretly into a chamber, and prepared a poisoned apple: the outside look very rosy and tempting, but whoever tasted it was sure to die. Then she dressed herself up as a peasant’s wife, and travelled over the hills to the dwarfs’ cottage, and knocked at the door; but Snow-White put her head out of the window and said, **“I dare not let any one in, for the dwarfs have told me not.”** “Do as you please,” said the old woman, “but at any rate take this pretty apple; I will make you a present of it”. “No,” said Snow-White. “I dare not take it.” “You silly girl!” answered the other, “What are you afraid of! Do you think it is poisoned? Come! Do-you eat one part, and I will eat the other”. Now the apple was so prepared that one side was good though the other side was poisoned. Then **Snow-White was very much tempted to taste, for the apple looked exceedingly nice;** and when she saw the old woman eat, she could refrain no longer. But she had scarcely put the piece into her mouth, when she fell down dead upon the ground. “This time nothing will save you,” said the queen, and she went home to her glass, and at last it said, *“You, queen, are the fairest of all the fair.”*

And then her envious heart was glad, and as happy as such a heart could be.

When evening came, and the dwarfs returned home, they found Snow-White

lying on the ground: no breath passed her lips, and they were afraid that she was quite dead. They lifted her up, and combed her hair, and washed her face with water; but all was in vain, for the little girl seemed quite dead. So they laid her down upon a bier, and all seven watched and bewailed her three whole days; and then they proposed to bury her; but her cheeks were still rosy, and her face looked just as it did while she was alive. So they said, "We will never bury her in the cold ground." And they made a **coffin** of glass, so that they might still look at her, and wrote her name upon it, in golden letters, and that she was a king's daughter. And the **coffin** was placed upon the hill, and one of the **dwarfs** always sat by it and watched. And the birds of the air came too, and bemoaned Snow-White: first of all came an owl, and then a raven but at last came a dove.

Thus, Snow-White lay for a long long time, and still only looked as though she were asleep; for she was even now as white as snow, and as red as blood, and as black as **ebony**. At last, a prince came and called at the **dwarfs'** house; and he saw Snow-White, and read what was written in golden letters. Then he offered the **dwarfs** money, and earnestly prayed them to let him take her away; but they said "We will not part with her for all the gold in the world.". The moment he lifted it up to carry it home with him, the piece of apple fell from between her lips, and Snow-White awoke, and said: "Where am I!" And the prince answered, "You are safe with me." Then he told her all that had happened, and said: "I love you better than all the world: Come with me to my father's palace, and you shall be my wife." And Snow-White consented, and went home with the prince; and every thing was prepared with great pomp and splendour for their wedding.

To the feast was invited, among the rest, Snow-White's old enemy the queen; and as she was dressing herself in fine rich clothes, she looked in the glass, and said:

"Tell me, glass, tell me true!

Of all the ladies in the land,

Who is fairest tell me who?"

And the glass answered,

"You, lady, are loveliest here;

But lovelier far is the new-made queen.”

When she heard this, she started with rage. Her envy and curiosity were so great. She could not help setting out to see the bride. And when she arrived, and saw that it was no other than Snow-White, who, as she thought, had been dead a long while, she choked with passion, and fell ill and died. Snow-White and the prince lived and reigned happily over that land many many years.

Aladdin*

Long ago, in China, there lived a tailor, named Mustafa. He was very poor. He had a son called Aladdin. Mustafa wanted Aladdin to learn how to make clothes so that he could help him. But all Aladdin wanted to do was to play in the street with other boys. Then his father fell ill and died. Aladdin’s mother had to do all the work.

- “I wish you would help me sometimes”, she said. But he never did.

One day, as Aladdin was playing in the street, he met a stranger. “Do you know Mustafa the tailor?” he asked. “He was my father”, said Aladdin, “but he is dead. Did you know him?”

- “He was my brother!” the man replied.

* Adapted from LADYBIRD BOOKS 1978.

- “Then you must be my uncle”, said Aladdin.

- “Yes”, said the man. “Now that I have found you I want to help you and your mother.”

“Here is some money for your mother”, said Aladdin’s uncle. “Tell her I shall visit you.”

Next day, Aladdin saw the man again. “I shall come and have dinner with you and your mother tonight”, he told Aladdin. “Here is some more money so that she can buy something nice for us to eat”. Aladdin took the money home to his mother.

When the man came to their house, Aladdin’s mother said, “I did not know that my husband had a brother. He never talked about you”. The man was not really Aladdin's uncle but a **MAGICIAN**.

He said, “I left home a long time ago. Now that I have come back, I want to help you both. First I will buy you some new clothes, Aladdin”, he said. Aladdin liked his new clothes and so did his mother.

Next day, they went to look at big houses with lovely gardens. Aladdin liked them very much.

- “One day I shall buy you a big house with a garden”, promised the Magician. “But let us sit and have something to eat. We have walked a long way”.

- “What work do you do?” he asked Aladdin.

- “He just plays with the other boys all day”, replied Aladdin’s mother.

- “It is time you did some work”, said his uncle. “Would you like me to buy a shop for you to look after?”

Next morning the Magician took Aladdin shopping. The Magician had a bag of cakes and sweets and gave Aladdin as much as he could eat. Then he said, “I want you to see the best garden of all before we go back.”

- “Is it a long way?” asked Aladdin. “I don’t think I can walk much more.”

- “We shall soon be there”, said the Magician. So they walked on again for a while. Then he cried, “Stop! This is the place.”

- “I don’t see a garden”, said Aladdin.

- “You soon will”, replied the Magician. “But first we shall make a fire. Find me

some dry sticks.”

The Magician lit the fire and put something on it that made black smoke. Then all at once, under his feet, Aladdin saw a big stone with a ring in it. Aladdin pulled, and up came the stone. Then he saw that it had been on top of a well. It was very black inside the well and he did not like the look of it.

- “You must go down”, said the Magician.

- “Will you come?” Aladdin asked.

- “No. No one but you must go,” replied the Magician. “But if you do every thing I say, you will be very rich.”

- “All right! Just tell me what to do then”, said Aladdin.

The Magician replied, “When you go down, you will find a door. Open it and go through. You will come to a very big cave and you will see some boxes with money in them. Do not take any of the money.”

- “How can I get rich if I don’t take any?” asked Aladdin.

- “Do as I say!” the Magician answered angrily. “You must go and until you come to another cave, and then another. You will see boxes of gold and silver in these, but do not take any. When you come out of the last cave, you will see a fine garden. At the end of the garden, you will see a table with a lamp on it. Bring the lamp to me. You can have anything you wish from the garden”, said the Magician. Then he took off a ring and gave it to Aladdin. “This may be of use if you need help”, he added. “Now go!”

Aladdin went down into the dark well. Down, down he went! Everything was just as the Magician had said. He found the cave with the money in it, but did not take any. The next cave had the gold and silver in it, just as his uncle had said. He touched nothing there and went through a door into the garden. There he found the lamp. He took it and then looked around. On every tree he saw what looked like little fires; but they were rich jewels – red, blue, green, gold and white. And there were so many of them! He put down the lamp and took as many of the jewels as he could carry. Even when he could carry no more, there were still many left on the trees.

- “I shall come back again one day”, he thought, “but now I must take this lamp to

my uncle.”

So he left the garden and went back the way he had come. When he got to the top of the well he could see the Magician.

- “Help me out, please” he called up to him. “Give me the lamp first”, said the Magician, “then you can use both hands.” But Aladdin answered, “No, I shall give it to you when I get out.”

When the Magician saw that Aladdin would not let him have the lamp first, he was very angry. He put something on the fire again and said some magic words. At once the stone moved back into place over the top of the well. Aladdin was under it and could not get out.

- “Uncle! Uncle! I will give you the lamp if only you will help me out”, he called. But the Magician had gone.

When Aladdin found that it was no use calling, he tried to go back into the garden. But the door was closed and he could not open it. He sat down in the darkness and cried. It was cold and wet. For three days he had nothing to eat or drink. “I wish I had a little fire to warm me!” he said. He rubbed his hands and, as he did so, he rubbed the ring that the Magician had given him.

- “What do you want?” said a voice in the darkness. “I am the Slave of the Ring. I will come whenever you rub the ring and will do anything you ask.”

- “Please take me home”, begged Aladdin.

No sooner had he said this than he found that he was home! His mother cried, “Here you are at last! I thought you were lost!” She gave him something to eat and drink and he went to bed.

Next day she said, “There is nothing left in the house for us to eat. I must work to get some more money”. But Aladdin said, “I am hungry. I shall go to the shop and ask a man I know to buy this lamp from me.”

- “It looks so old”, replied his mother. “Let me give it a rub first! I shall soon make it look like new. Then you will get more money for it”. She took the lamp and gave it a rub. Suddenly there was a puff of smoke, and a strange-looking man appeared. He bowed and said: “I am the Slave.” Aladdin’s mother jumped with fright, and the lamp

fell from her hands.

-“It’s all right, mother”, cried Aladdin, picking up the lamp, “Don’t be afraid!”

Then the strange man said: “The lamp you are holding is a magic one. Whenever you rub the lamp I will appear, and do whatever you ask.”

As they were both very hungry, Aladdin said, “Please bring us something to eat and drink.”

The Slave of the Lamp clapped his hands and a fine dinner was set before them. The table was loaded with every sort of tasty food you could think of. Even the cups and plates were made of gold.

The Slave of the Lamp left them to enjoy the feast. When there was nothing left to eat, Aladdin said, “I will take these plates to the shop. The money I get for them will last us for a long time”. For some time, they were very happy and had everything they wished for. But the time came when they had used up all the money. Then Aladdin thought “I must rub the lamp again”. He rubbed the lamp and at once the Slave appeared and gave him everything he and his mother needed.

Whenever they wanted anything, they had only to rub the lamp, and the Slave gave them all they asked for. This went on for three or four years. By that time Aladdin was no longer a boy. He had become a man, and a very handsome one!

One day when Aladdin was walking in the street, he saw a Princess going by on horse-back. As soon as he saw her, he fell in love with her. She was the most beautiful girl he had ever seen.

- “I want to marry the Princess”, he told his mother.

- “We must ask the King”, she replied.

- “The jewels you found would make a good gift for him.”

Aladdin’s mother took a bag full of jewels to the King. Handing him the bag, she said, “My son loves the Princess. He sends you this gift.”

- “What wonderful jewels?” cried the King. “Your son must be a very important man”. Then he promised that Aladdin could marry the princess.

Aladdin’s mother went home to tell him the good news. But a rich man went to

the King. "My son will give you much more if he can marry your daughter", he said. Next day the people were told that the Princess was to marry the rich man's son. When Aladdin heard this he rubbed the lamp. The Slave appeared and Aladdin said angrily, "Bring the Princess and the rich man's son to me". Soon the Slave was back with them. The man was shut in a dark room. Then Aladdin spoke to the Princess, "Do not be afraid. I have brought you here to tell you that your father promised that you could marry me". He told the Princess of his love for her. Then the Slave took her and the rich man's son back to the palace. He told his father and the King, that he no longer wanted to marry the Princess. The Slave returned to Aladdin to tell him what had happened.

Then Aladdin said to the Slave: "Bring me many bags of gold and jewels, and some slaves to carry them to the King. On the way to the Palace my mother shall give money to all the people." The slaves and Aladdin's mother went off to the Palace. Everyone ran after them because of the money she was giving away.

When the King looked inside the bags of gold and jewels, he cried, "I have never seen such wonderful jewels before."

- "Now will you let the Princess marry my son?" asked Aladdin's mother.

- "Yes. Tell him to come here at once", replied the King.

Before Aladdin went to see the King, he rubbed the lamp and said to the Slave, "Bring me new clothes made of the richest cloth in the land, and a fine, white horse". When Aladdin sat on the horse he looked just like a Prince. When the Princess saw him she fell in love with him at once.

- "Before I marry her, I must have a house to take her to", said Aladdin.

- "Where would you like it to be?"

- "You could build a house near the Palace", replied the King. "The Queen would like the Princess to live nearby."

- "It shall be done", promised Aladdin.

Then the happy Aladdin went back home. That night he rubbed the lamp and said to the Slave: "Make me the best house that anyone has ever seen. You must put

in it the best beds, chairs and tables, and the best pictures. Let there be flowers in all the rooms". The Slave left to do as Aladdin asked.

Next morning the house was ready. It was in the place where the King had said he wanted it to be. It was much nicer than the King's own palace. Everything that was in it was of the best. So Aladdin married the Princess and they went to live in their new home.

All was well for a year or two. Then one day the Magician came back. When he found that Aladdin was alive and that he was now a Prince, it made the Magician very cross. "It must be because he has the magic lamp", he thought...Somehow I must get it away from him." The Magician thought for a long time. Suddenly he had a clever idea. He went to a shop to buy some new lamps. Then he walked up and down the streets calling out: "New lamps for old! New lamps for old!"

When the women heard the Magician calling they came running out of their houses to give him their old lamps and get new ones for them. They were so pleased to get such a bargain. One of the Princess's women went out to ask what the fuss was about. Then she ran back indoors to tell her mistress. "Aladdin has an old lamp in his bedroom", thought the Princess. "He will be pleased to get a new one for it". The Princess did not know it was a magic lamp, so she gave it to the Magician in return for a new one.

Aladdin had gone away for a few days. If he had been there he would never have let her change his lamp. As soon as the Magician had the lamp in his hand, he took it to a place where no one could see him and gave it a rub. When the Slave appeared he told him, "Take the house of Aladdin, and all that is in it, away from here and put it down in Africa". The Slave did so. When the sun came up the next morning, the King and Queen saw that Aladdin's house was no longer there. Where could it be? No one could tell them. They did not know what to do about it.

- "Where is Aladdin?" shouted the King. "Find him at once and bring him to me". The King's men rushed off to look for Aladdin. At last they found Aladdin. They pulled him from his horse and took him to the King.

- "Where is the Princess?" cried the King.

- “She is at home”, Aladdin replied.
- “But where is your home?” asked the King.
- “What do you mean?” said Aladdin. Then he saw that his house was not there any more.
- “Bring the Princess back or you must die,” cried the King.

Aladdin ran out to get his lamp. But he could not find it because his house had gone. He sat down to think. Then he remembered his magic ring. He gave it a rub. At once the Slave of the Ring stood before him.

- “Take me to the Princess”, said Aladdin. Suddenly, he was in his house with the Princess.

The Princess told him about the old man who had given her a new lamp for Aladdin’s old one. Then Aladdin said, “This man says he is my uncle, but he is a wicked Magician. I must get the lamp away from him quickly.”

He gave the Princess a little bag, and said to her, “Tonight you must ask the Magician to supper. When he is not looking, empty this bag into his cup. Don’t put any of it into your own cup.”

The Magician came to supper and the Princess did as Aladdin had told her. When the Magician drank from his cup, he fell back dead. The lamp dropped to the floor. Aladdin picked it up and gave it a rub. When the Slave appeared, Aladdin ordered, “Take us, and our home, back to where it was before.”

When the King looked out of the palace window, he was delighted to see Aladdin’s house back where it had been. The King became very excited.

- “Look!” he said to the Queen.
- “The Princess and Aladdin are back! Let us go over to see them at once”. They went over as fast as they could. The Princess ran to meet them.
- “I am so glad to be back”, she cried, “A wicked Magician took me away but he is dead now. Dear Aladdin found me. I love him very much and you must love him too”. The King and Queen agreed to do so, and they all lived happily ever after.

Appendix IV

The Test

Dear pupil,

This test is part of a research work. It is designed to investigate the field of vocabulary acquisition. Please, answer the following questions following the instructions given to you. Do not hesitate to ask for help whenever you do not understand a given instruction.

-Do not answer if you do not know.

Thank you

عزيزي التلميذ،

يدخل هذا الاختبار في تحضير بحث يرمي إلى استكشاف ميدان اكتساب مفردات اللغة في هذا الاختبار عليك عزيزي بقراءة كل سؤال بتمعن ثم اجب متبعا للتعليمات الإنجليزية. عند ما لا تفهم أي سؤال أو تعليمة. المقدمة إليك. لا تتردد في طرح أي استفسار - لا تُجب عندما لا تعرف الإجابة الصحيحة.

شكرا

I - Complete the following definitions.

-Tick (Ö) the right answer.

1. A pumpkin is
a. a person
b. an animal
c. a fruit
2. A dwarf is a.....
a. very small man
b. fat man
c. giant
3. A dwelling is a.....
a. shop
b. house
c. garden

II - Complete the following definitions.

-Put the right letter in the right sentence.

1. To prick is to..... a) make a cloth by forming wool.

2. To knit is to

b) feel sorry for somebody.

3. To pity is to

c) pierce something with a sharp point.

III - Choose the right synonym.

-Tick the right answer.

1. An axe =

a. A saw

b. A hammer

c. A chopper

2. A mill =

a. A factory

b. A market

c. A house

3. Ebony =

a. Metal

b. Wood

c. Plastic

IV – Fill in the blanks in the following sentences.

- Put the right letter in the right sentence.

a- coffin

b- hug

c- sprinkled

1. Drops of bloodthe white snow.

2. She gave her grand mother an affectionate..... .

3. They buried the body in a

V - Match the following words with their opposites.

- Put the right letter next to the right word.

1. Broad:

a) Modest

2. Gruff:

b) Unclean

3. Proud:

c) Gentle

4. Spruce:

d) Narrow

VI - Match the following words with their translation in Arabic.

- Put the right letter next to the right translation.

- | | |
|------------------|-----------------|
| 1. يغزل :..... | a- To scold |
| 2. بتأمل : | b- To spin |
| 3. يثور :..... | c- Thoughtfully |

VII -Translate the following words in Arabic:

- | | |
|----------------|-------|
| 1. Betrayed | |
| 2. To gobble | |
| 3. Exceedingly | |

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ملخص

للقصة الخيالية، القصة على لسان الحيوان أو القصة العادية فائدة خلق فضاء سحري مليء بالمعاني بالنسبة للمتعلمين، خاصة الصغار منهم. رغم هذا يعتبر استعمال هذا النوع من الأدب طريقة قد تجاوزها الزمن لمد خيال الأطفال و معرفتهم.

يهدف هذا البحث إلى تقييم مدى أهمية إدراج قصص الأطفال في ميدان تعليم اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية للمبتدئين و برهنة كيف يمكن لهذا أن يكون وسيلة مفيدة جدا في مجال اكتساب مفردات جديدة باللغة الإنجليزية.

لأجل تحقيق هذا الغرض تم الاعتماد على وسيلتين للبحث هما الاستبيان و الاختبار حيث تم تقديم استبيانين كان الأول خاصا بالمتعلمين بينما خص الثاني أساتذة اللغة الإنجليزية. يهدف استبيان المتعلمين إلى بحث الطرق المستعملة من طرفهم لتعلم و اكتساب المفردات وكذا كشف تعاملهم مع أدب الأطفال. كان الاستبيان الموجه للأساتذة لجمع معلومات حول الطرق المستعملة لشرح المفردات الجديدة أثناء الدرس. حرر الاختبار على أساس هذه المعلومات وأنجز قبل ثم بعد تقديم بعض القصص من أدب الأطفال لقياس أثرهم على المتعلمين في اكتساب مفردات جديدة. أكدت نتائج هذه الدراسة فرضية البحث كما بينت اكتساب المتعلمين الذين خضعوا للتجربة تقريبا لجميع المفردات المجهولة المعنى حسب أساتذتهم. كما أظهر المتعلمون تحمسا لهذا النوع من النصوص.

معتمدين على هذه النتائج، نقدم بعضا من الاقتراحات لتعليم اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية من خلال القراءة من أجل المتعة و التي نخص بها القائمين على إنجاز الكتب المدرسية والأساتذة. من خلال هذه الاقتراحات نبين بأن هذا النوع من النصوص يسهل الفهم و يخلق محيطا مناسباً لاكتساب عناصر جديدة في لغة أجنبية.

Résumé

Un conte de fée, une fable ou une simple histoire ont l'avantage de créer un contexte magique mais aussi plein de sens pour les apprenants, spécialement pour les moins jeunes. Cependant, ce genre de littérature a été considéré comme une façon passée de mode pour étendre l'imagination et le savoir des enfants.

Ce travail de recherche vise à évaluer l'importance de l'introduction du conte pour enfants dans l'enseignement de l'anglais comme langue étrangère au niveau élémentaire et démontrer comment cela peut être un moyen très utile dans le domaine de l'acquisition de nouveaux termes en langue anglaise.

A fin de réaliser ce but, on s'est basé sur deux moyens de recherche: le questionnaire et le test. Deux questionnaires ont été administrés, un pour les apprenants et l'autre pour les enseignants d'anglais. Le premier avait pour fin l'investigation des stratégies de l'apprentissage du vocabulaire utilisées par les apprenants et pour déceler leur comportement envers la littérature pour enfants. Le second, destiné aux enseignants d'anglais, cherchait à collecter des informations sur les techniques utilisées pour expliquer les mots nouveaux en classe. Le test élaboré sur la base des questionnaires a été effectué avant et après la présentation de contes aux apprenants pour mesurer leur incidence sur l'acquisition du nouveau vocabulaire. Les résultats obtenus montrent que les apprenants – sujets de cette étude – ont appris presque tous les mots sélectionnés par leurs enseignants et introduits dans quatre contes qu'ils ont lu. Ils ont aussi manifesté un grand enthousiasme envers ce type de textes.

Grâce à ces conclusions, on a proposé quelques implications pédagogiques pour l'enseignement de l'anglais comme langue étrangère à travers la lecture pour le plaisir concernant à la fois les élaborateurs des manuels scolaires et les enseignants. On montre que ce type de récits est une source plus compréhensible pour l'acquisition de la langue puisqu'elle facilite la compréhension et crée un environnement très favorable pour l'acquisition de nouveaux éléments d'une langue étrangère.