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FACULTY OF LETTERS AND LANGUAGES

DEPARTMENT OF LANGUAGES

THE EFFECT OF CONTEXTUAL VOCABULARY LEARNING ON WRITING PERFORMANCE
THE CASE OF 2ND YEAR LMD STUDENTS OF ENGLISH AT CONSTANTINE UNIVERSITY

Dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
For the Master degree in
Language Sciences and English Language teaching

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DEDICATION

To my parents for their affection and constant encouragements.

To my brother and sister for their love and kindness.

To all my colleagues and friends especially Hamza for his unflagging support.

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ABSTRACT

We can never overstate the power of words. Perhaps the greatest tools we can give students, not only in their education but more generally in life, is a large, rich vocabulary. This research reports on the importance of vocabulary to writing achievement. Providing authentic texts (context) for vocabulary instruction is one of the significant ways in which teachers can improve students' writing performance. Words are the writer's most important tools. The ability to write effectively hinges upon having an adequate vocabulary.

This research work aims at evaluating the importance of teaching learning vocabulary in context – as a comprehensible input – and how this can be a useful means for improving students' writing performance.

The educational setting in which this study takes place is the Foreign Language Department, Faculty of Letters and Languages, University Mentouri Constantine. 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 in learning vocabulary and the re-use ability of the previously learnt words in their writing tasks. The teachers' questionnaire was to collect data about the techniques they use when dealing with unknown words in their lessons and the techniques they rely on to check students' vocabulary learning. These two questionnaires helped in designing the test that took place before and after the learners were taught different strategies to learn ten selected words to see whether they had any effect on their writing performance. The results of this investigation confirmed the hypothesis and showed that the learners - subject of the study – proved to have learned nearly all the new words, selected by their teachers, through guessing from context which has led to improvement in their writing production.

On the basis of the results obtained, some pedagogical implications have been proposed to direct learners toward the effective way to learn vocabulary in order to improve their writing skill, and others to help teachers in their task of developing the reading ability, vocabulary development and writing improvement in their students.

LIST OF ABREVIATION AND SYMBOLS

C.L.T: Communicative Language Teaching

E.F.L: English as a Foreign Language

E.S.L: English as a Second Language

E.S.P: English for Specific Purposes.

F.L: Foreign Language

L.M.D: Licence, Master, Doctorat.

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language.

N: Number

SL: Second Language

TAVI: Text As Vehicle For Information

%: Percentage

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

Contents

INTRODUCTION

1.Statement of the Problem

2.Aims

3.Hypothesis

4.Reseach Methodology

4.1.Method

4.2.Population

4.3.Tools of Research

5.Content of The Dissertation

1

General introduction

The primary focus of the learner on a foreign class is on understanding spoken or written discourse but there are inevitably unfamiliar lexical items, some of which may be crucial for adequate comprehension, and the learner should have ways of finding out what they mean. Teachers are aware of this problem in the classroom context and have a variety of techniques at their disposal to address it with texts that they use in class such as: giving a quick oral translation of the word, a physical demonstration, a verbal explanation involving a number of contexts, giving synonyms or ask the learners to look the words up in the dictionary (Hedge ,2000). But, the most important strategy is inferring the meaning from the information available in the text itself. Inferring is a desirable strategy because it involves deeper processing that is likely to contribute to better comprehension of the text as a whole and may result in an effective learning of the lexical items that would otherwise be used by learners in their written production in a successful way (Read,2000). I chose to focus on contextual vocabulary learning/teaching as an effective teaching procedure for the acquisition of lexicon, because it seems to be an area that was neglected by almost all teacher, and check its effect on the learners' writing performance.

1.Statement of the problem and research questions

Through my experience as a student, I have noticed that following the traditional method of presenting lists of isolated words to learners and ask them to look up those new items in the dictionary results in quick forget or difficulty to recall them in new contexts. In the field of foreign language teaching, the notion of context has not been well exploited although it would be of great benefits to create a real environment for the acquisition of new vocabulary items (Hatch and Brown, 1995). Schouten Van Parreren goes on to argue texts, in contrast, present a linguistic

and psychological reality, and that presenting words in the context of a text will provide support, reduce interference and help learner re-produce those words in different contexts (1989:76-7). Thornbury(2002:30) has sketched out some implications for teaching vocabulary such as :

- Learners need tasks and strategies to help them organise their mental lexicon by building networks of associations – the more the better.
- Teachers need to accept that the learning of new words involves a period of ''initial fuzziness'.
- Learners need to wean themselves off a reliance on direct translation from their mother tongue.
- Words need to be presented in their typical contexts, so that learners can get a feel for their meaning, their register, their collocations, and their syntactic environments.
- Teaching should direct attention to the sound of new words, particularly the way they are stressed.
- Learners should aim to build a threshold vocabulary as quickly as possible.
- Learners need to be actively involved in the learning of words.
- Learners need to make multiple decisions about words.
- Memory of new words can be reinforced if they are used to express personally relevant meanings.
- Not all the vocabulary that the learners need can be 'taught': learners will need plentiful exposure to talk and text as well as training for self-directed learning.

In my present research, I will focus on the most important on which emphasizes the presentation of words in their typical context, so that learners can get a sense for their meaning, their register, their collocations, their syntactic environment, and reproduce or use them safely in their written production. The concern of this research is to determine the effect of contextual

vocabulary learning, as a procedure to teach vocabulary for 2nd year English LMD' students at Constantine University, on their Productive process i.e. on their writing performance.

As a part time teacher at the university, I try to find suitable direction for teaching vocabulary which might guide learners towards effective acquisition and positive transfer of the acquired words in their writing performance. The questions I would ask here are whether teaching vocabulary in real context could help students for better acquisition and enhance their performance. These questions can be formulated as follows:

- What techniques do instructors follow to teach vocabulary?
- What strategies do learners use to acquire new words or to retain them?
- Is contextual vocabulary learning helpful for better acquisition of new words?
- Is it successful for improving their writing performance?

2 .Aims:

This research aims at:

- Evaluating the importance of introducing context (in the sense of the situation in which discourse is produced and actual text surrounding any given lexical item) (McCarthy 1991) in the teaching of vocabulary as a psychological and linguistic reality to enable students acquire lexical items in an effective way.
- It also aims at measuring the effect of contextual vocabulary learning on the learners' writing performance.

In other words, this study will examine the effectiveness of contextual vocabulary learning as a teaching technique on students' writing production.The study seeks to provide teachers of written expression with concrete and observable examples gained from the use of contextual vocabulary learning as a strategic technique in teaching vocabulary.

4

3. Hypothesis:

The following study is related to the nature of the relationship between contextual vocabulary learning or the acquisition of vocabulary in context and the learners' writing performance.

Generally, students' failure to find appropriate words to develop a paragraph may originate from a major reason; students' strategies in acquiring vocabulary are not effective because they cannot retrieve words from memory and use them in their writing productions: this makes writing a hard task for them.

We assume, then, that learners of English will be able to perform better in writing if they are taught vocabulary in context.In other words, the general Hypothesis can be stated as follows: contextual vocabulary learning will improve learners' writing performance.

Independent variable: contextual vocabulary learning (an observable and measurable activity of learning)

Dependent variable: learners' writing performance by using the acquired vocabulary (also observable and measurable).

4 .Research methodology:

Polit et-al(2001:223) state that research Methodology refers to the techniques used to structure a study to gather and analyze the data in the course of the research investigation and consists of a set of orderly, disciplined procedures to acquire information .

4.1.Method:

The nature of the subject to be treated dictates the choice of the research method, i.e. the topic, the aim of the research, the sample under investigation and the collected data, impose the use of specific method.

The fact that, I want to establish a correlation between contextual vocabulary learning and learners' writing performance, leads me to opt for experimental approach to test the effect of contextual vocabulary learning as a teaching technique on learners' performance in English written expression.

4.2.Population:

The actual problem was observed among 2nd year LMD students of English because during this year students in written expression module will be exposed to a huge number of vocabulary items and start to write paragraphs. As I want to investigate the effect of contextual vocabulary learning on the students' writing performance I would focus my study on written expression module. Hence, I consider these students as the population of this study.

The whole population of 19 groups (530 students) would be difficult to handle in such a research. Hence random samples of 50 students representing two groups of the population (2nd year LMD students of English) are used as participants in the study.

4.3 .Tools of research

To achieve the aim of my research, answer the research question, and attempt to confirm my hypothesis, data collection requires the administration of questionnaires to teachers of written expression and the sample population. To measure/ check the efficiency of vocabulary learning / teaching in context some experimental lessons and activities are practiced and consequently tests

6

are to be administered. The correlation of the results obtained from these tools would help us confirm / infirm the hypothesis.

5 .Content of the dissertation

This study consists of three chapters. In chapter one, we review the scope of teaching and learning vocabulary in context. It also deals with approaches, methods and techniques used by teachers to teach vocabulary on one hand and the techniques used by learners on the other hand.

Chapter two deals with the role of memory in vocabulary learning, processing information and its recall in new contexts and how can the effective transfer of the learned vocabulary improve the students' writing.

Chapter three 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. Some implications for the teaching of vocabulary in context and its effect on writing were presented to help teachers make their learners increase their reading ability for the development of vocabulary and to help them improve their writing.

CHAPTER ONE

Vocabulary Teaching / learning

Introduction

1.Definition

2.Vocabulary description

    2.1 Lexicography

    2.2 Lexicology

        2.2.1 Word classes

        2.2.2 Word formation

        2.2.3   Word meaning

3. The word as a semantic unit

    3.1 Signifier, Signified

        3.1.1 The word as a basic component in sentence structure

        3.1.2   Sentential context

4.What is a Text

    4.1 Definition of text

    4.2 Coherence

    4.3 Cohesion

        4.3.1 Cohesive ties

        4.3.1.1 Reference

        4.3.1.2 Substitution

        4.3.1.3 Ellipsis

        4.3.1.4 Conjunction

        4.3.1.5 Lexical cohesion

5.Context

    5.1 The scope of context in linguistics

    5.2 The linguistic context

    5.3 Context of situation

    5.4 Context in discourse and pragmatics

6.Teaching Vocabulary

    6.1 Vocabulary teaching Methods

    6.2 Techniques for teaching Vocabulary

        6.2.1Visual techniques

        6.2.2Mime and gesture

        6.2.3Using language relation

            6.2.3.1Use of synonymy,antonymy,or superordinate term

            6.2.3.2Translation

            6.2.3.3Definition

            6.2.3.4Use of illustrative situation

7. Learning Vocabulary

    7.1 Vocabulary learning strategies and Guessing from context

    7.2Guessing from context

    7.3 Intentional versus Incidental learning

Conclusion

Introduction

It would be impossible to learn a language without learning its vocabulary, its words. Harmer (1991) states that if language structures make up the skeleton of language, it is vocabulary that providses the vital organs and the flesh. Therefore, the use of grammatical structure does not have any potential for expressing meaning unless words are used. Students often manage to communicate in English using individual words, and they can most of the time convey meaning without necessarily having acquired grammar. 'Without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed'. This is how the linguistic David Wilkins(1972) summed up the importance of vocabulary leaning. 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/learning. Language teachers and applied linguist researchers now generally recognize the importance of vocabulary teaching/learning and are exploring ways of promoting it more effectively. It seems that improving vocabulary knowledge of the foreign language through the introduction of 'context' in teaching and learning is necessary since words are the building blocks of language, the units of meaning from which larger structures such as sentences and whole texts are formed. 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.

1. 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 (1968:23) 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. In the Oxford dictionary (1998), vocabulary is defined as the total number of words that make up a language. The Longman dictionary (1995) defines vocabulary as all the words that someone knows, learns or uses. Hatch and Brown (1995:1) 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 form, 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.

2. 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.

2.1 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

11

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.

2.2 Lexicology

Jackson and Amvela (2000:1) define lexicology as the study and analysis of lexis, understood as the stock of words in a given language, i.e. its vocabulary, as well as their meanings and evolution. Lexicologists are inevitably interested in the meanings of words, in the lexical environments in which they typically occur, in the grammatical structures they are able to enter, and in situational context to which they may be restricted or in which they may be

typically found. Lexicology 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).

2.2.1 Word Classes

Words play different roles in a text. Terms used to classify words based on their functional categories are called "parts of speech". In linguistic terminology they are labeled 'word classes'. The English language is classified in eight major different 'parts of speech': nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, prepositions, determiners and conjunctions. According to Thurnbury(2002:3-4):

- **A noun** is a word or group of words that refers to:

  - A person: 'John', 'Doctor', 'Police officer'

  - An animal: 'Gazelle'

  - A place: 'America', 'university', 'London'

  - A thing or activity 'hat', 'swimming'

  - A concept: 'happiness'

A noun can be:

  - The subject of a verb: 'the match started'

  - The object of a verb: 'I missed the match'

- **A verb** is a word or group of words that expresses:

  - An action: The horses jumped all the fences

  - A process: Maple leaves has turned red

  - A state: She resembles her mother

A verb form varies in terms of tense and mood.

- **An adjective** is a word that indicates a quality of a person or thing referred to by a noun:

13

- A quality of a person: 'a <u>strong</u> woman'

- A quality of a thing: 'a <u>cracked</u> wall'

- This flower seems withered

Adjectives occur next to a noun, or they are separated from the noun by a verb.

- **An adverb** is a word that adds more information generally about place, time degree and manner to a verb, an adjective, an other adverb or a whole sentence.

    - A verb: - She speaks <u>kindly</u>

        -I live <u>here</u>

    - Another adverb: It is snowing <u>very</u> <u>hard</u>

    - The whole sentence: Today, I have received my invitation

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

    - She (Marry) found it (her ring) in the kitchen.

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

    - Location: Children are playing <u>in the street</u>

    - Time: The film will begin <u>at 8 p.m</u>

        -We stayed in a cottage for the summer

    - Cause and purpose: - They are learning English <u>for pleasure</u>

        -She felt stick <u>from tiredness</u>

They are always used before:

- A noun: She is <u>at Oxford</u>/ She works <u>at the hospital</u>

- A noun phrase: They will finish the design <u>in the present</u> month

- A pronoun: The burglar was caught with the stolen goods still <u>on him</u>

Sometimes, they follow a verb: The bonfire has <u>burnt out.</u>

- **A determiner** is a word that qualifies a noun. A determiner can be :

14

- 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:

  - Co-ordinating conjunctions which join units of equal significance in a sentence like words, phrases or sentences:

  - Sue and Ann have had Lunch.

  - Give the ball to Sue <u>but</u> give the shirt to Ann

  - Subordinating conjunctions which subordinate a clause to a main one:

  - They announced that the storm was heavy.

2.2.2 Word formation

Sometimes, a word is subject to change is its form, something that would also cause a change in its meaning and class. This phenomenon, called 'word building' or 'word formation', takes three main forms which are characteristic of English: affixation, compounding and conversion. According to Gairns&Redman(1986:47-9):

- **Affixation** is the operation of adding prefixes and suffixes to the base item, in this way, items can be modified in meaning and/or changed from one part of speech to another.

To the base form 'certain', for instance, we can add prefixes and suffixes in the following way.

Certain → root

  - Prefixation: un + certain → uncertain

  - Suffixation: certain + Ly → certainly

15

- Prefixation + suffixation: un +certain + Ly → uncertainly

- **Compounding** is the formation of words from two or more separate words (with separate meaning) which can stand independently in other circumstances to form a new word different in meaning from the ones which make it, there are three different types of compound:

    -Adjective compounds: time + consuming → time consuming

    Or short + sleeved → short sleeved

    -Verb compounds: to sight + to see → to sightsee

    -Noun compounds:

    For this last group, there are three main patterns:

    -Noun + noun: coffee +jar → coffee jar

    -Possessive noun + noun: friend + brother → friend's brother

    -Prepositional structure: the end + line → the end of the line

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

- Noun + verb → Noun: hair + do → hairdo

- Adjective + noun → Nom: 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.

- **Conversion**, also called zero affixation, is the process by which an item may be used in different word classes, yet does not change its form.

For example, the word 'swim' can be a noun 'a swim' or a verb 'to swim'

e.g.   He swims very well (verb)

We have just had a lovely swim (noun)

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'/priżent (verb).

Some may involve pronunciation, and spelling changes. For example, 'advice' →
Noun/əd'vais/and 'advise'→ verb/əd'vaiz/.

2.2.3 Word meaning

The meaning of words and their relationship is often understood and learned through the use of synonymy, antonyny, hyponymy, or polysemy.

-Synonymy:

Synonymy is used to mean 'sameness of meaning'. Synonyms are words that have different forms but identical meanings. This does not mean that the words are totally interchangeable in all contexts because if they were, it would be nonsense to have both words in the language. According to Rinolucri (1993; cited in Browen and Marks, 1994:37), no word can ever be synonymous with another in just the same way as identical twins are not carbon copies of one another. Palmer (1976:64) 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, 'deep' and 'profound' are considered as being synonyms but we say a 'profound shock' not 'deep shock', and a 'deep' ocean, not a 'profound' ocean. Therefore, it is preferable to talk about synonyms as being those

words that have nearly the same meaning and add that this depends on the context they are en countered in.

- **Antonymy:**

Most of the time, we define a word, generally an adjective an adjective, by referring to its opposite. We usually try to identify the feature on which the two words contract. For example, we explain the meaning of 'Cheap' by saying that it is the opposite of 'expensive'. Other forms of antonyms are what is referred to as converses, for example, married/single, sell/buy or full/empty, or as gradable antonyms as argued by Sapir (1915; cited in Palmer, 1976: 79.80), since antonyms are gradable, there are often intermediate terms, thus, for example, we have not just 'hot/cold', but 'hot/warm/cool/cold', with the intermediate 'warm' and 'cool' forming a pair of antonyms themselves.

- **Hyponymy:**

Hyponymy is a relationship existing between specific and general lexical items in that the meaning of the specific item is included in, and by the meaning of the more general item. For instance, words like 'swallow', 'Parrot', 'canary' are all hyponyms and are linked by their common inclusion, under the superordinate 'bird'; in other words, they all share a common sense.

- **Polysymy:**

In a language, the same word may have a set of different meanings .This is polysymy; 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.

Both leech (1974) and Lyons (1977) observe that the meaning of words is internal to the language to which they belong. In language learning and teaching, sense relations or word meanings are of a primary importance. Teachers argue that grouping items together by

Polysymy, Hyponymy, Antonymy or Synonymy helps them in getting an appropriate meaning to some words in the context of their lessons.

3. The word as a semantic unit

In Linguistics, Semantics is the subfield that is devoted to the study of meaning, as inherent at the level of words, phrases, sentences and Larger units of discourse (referred to as texts) (Jackson and Amvéla, 2000:53).

The semantic units are the textual units that are considered as significants from a semantic point of view. According to Evan (1989) semantic units can be:

- Named entities: that refer to well identified domain, entities.
- Terms: expressions referring to the concepts specific to the domain of the text.
- Undefined semantic units: other types of relevant semantic units can be identified, even if their semantic status is not established.

A word is a unit of language that carries meaning. Word meaning relates to the semantic value that is conventionally associated with individual lexical items. For instance, the English lexical form 'cat' is conventionally associated with a particular idea, namely an animate feline entity which has four legs, a tail, whiskers, and sound meow. Evan (ibid) states that in modern Linguistic, words meaning are held to be conceptual entities, which is to say, they are held to constitute mental unit, paired with phonetically -realizable forms, and stored in long-term memory.

While this is much generally accepted, there have been a bewildering array of approaches and theories with respect to the nature and organization of word meaning. In large part, this is due to 'slipperiness' of word meaning; that is to say, word meaning is prone to often quite significant variation across instances of use. To illustrate, consider the word 'fast' in the following sentences:

19

a- That parked BMW is a *fast* car

b- That car is travelling *fast*

c- That doddery old man is a *fast* driver

d- That's the *fast* lane (of the motor way)

The semantic value associated with 'fast' appears to be somewhat different. In (a) 'fast' has to do with the potential for rapid locomotion. In (b) it has to do with rapid Locomotion. In(c) it relates to caused motion beyond an established norm: speed, limit. And in (d) 'fast' concerns a venue for rapid Locomotion.

The issue of word meaning in terms of the nature of the word and how best to model word meaning via conceptual entities is a crucial and indeed a central issue for Linguistic theory.

3.1 Signifier and signified

Frawley (1992:5-6) states: "to say that something has a meaning is to say that it is a sign; a composite unit consisting of a relation between an overt signal called signifier, and the information that this overt signal evokes called the signified''. Following De Saussure (1959; cited in Jackson and Amvéla, 2000:55), the Linguistic sign is a mental unit consisting of two faces, which cannot be separated: a concept and an acoustic image. The term 'sign' is a quite general expression which can refer to sentences, clauses, phrases, words or morphemes.

De Saussure later referred to concept as 'signifié' (signified) or thing meant and to acoustic image 'signifiant' (signifier). These have since become accepted technical terms in modern Linguistics. The signified of Language (entities, dynamic relations, appropriate names, facts) are recoverable from the signifiers (nous, verbs,...). If we take a linguistic example, the word 'open' (when it is invested with meaning by someone who encounters it on a shop doorway) is a sign consisting of:

- A signifier: the word 'open' (the form which the sign take)

20

- A signified concept: that the shop is open for business.

Meaning is made through our creation and interpretation of 'sign'. Indeed, it is a transparent relation between signifier and signified. According to the philosopher Pierce (1931:302, cited in chandler 1994), we think only in signs. They take the form of words, images, sounds, odours, flavours, acts or objects, but such thing have no intrinsic meaning and become signs only when we invest them with meaning ."Nothing is a sign unless it is interpreted as a sign", declares Pierce (1931:58). In other words, anything can be a sign as long as someone interprets it as 'signifying' something referring to or standing for something other than itself.

De Saussure (1983:112) argues that it is a great mistake to consider a sign as nothing more than the combination of certain sound and certain concept. To think of a sign as nothing more would be to isolate it from the system to which it belongs. In other words, no sign makes sense in its own (in isolation) but only in relation to other signs. This notion can be hard to understand since we may feel that an individual word such as 'table' does have some meaning for us, but its meaning depends on its context in relation to the other words with which it is used.

E.g. • A table for two in a restaurant

- Table of content in a book

- A multiplication table at school

To conclude, the meaning of the sign (signifier, signified) changes depending on the context in which it is used.

3.1.1 The word as a basic unit in sentence structure

Word are the basic units-the building block of a sentence. A sentence is basically a group of words which are tied together and convey an idea, event or description. According to Linguists, a sentence contains both semantic and Logical elements; in other words, parts of

21

speech which have a habit of standing alone and articles which stand in front of nouns are the basic components of sentence structure. They come in many varieties and may appear just about anywhere in a sentence. To know for sure

what part of speech a word is, we have to look not only at the word itself but also at its meaning, position and use in a sentence. Furthermore, it is only in the context of a sentence that a word has meaning (Frege 1994).

3.1.2 Sentential context

Sentential context refers to the sentence where a word occurs. It supplies syntactic information with the other words used in the same sentence. The sentential context allows the learner (reader) to explore if there is any variation of meaning of the word due to its relation with the other members within the same sentence. Let's consider the following example:

    a.   The picture is <u>over</u> the mantelpiece

    b.   The tank drove <u>over</u> the bridge

    c.   The picture is <u>over</u> the hole in the wall

    d.   The ball handed <u>over</u> the wall

The meaning of the word 'over' varies from one sentence to another. In (a) it means 'above'. In (b) it means 'across', in(c) over has the meaning of 'covering' and in (d) the word 'over' means 'on the other side'.

The meaning of a word is deduced from its semantic relation with the other words in the same sentence. It is due to the sentential context which plays the role of a Linguistic surrounding that we can decipher the actual meaning of the word.

4. What is a text?

Written texts are often one of the major sources through which Language learners meet new vocabulary; so it is only logical that they should be used extensively in classroom teaching.

They have the great advantage of contextualizing new language items for the leaner, and an interesting text also serves to make that Language more memorable.

4.1 Towards a definition of text

In the process of studying vocabulary, researchers often decompose a coherent text to examine a minute element of the text: its individual words. Decades of research indicate that reading comprehension requires more than knowledge of individual words (Deck and Mckeown, 1991, Nagy Scott, 2000). Reading comprehension involves the interplay of the reader, the text, and the sociocultural context of reading events. In this process, a transaction between the reader and the text must take place in which prior knowledge and the creation of a mental representation of meaning play a central role.

One of the most influential definitions of 'text' is that provided by Halliday and Hassan (1976:1): "A text is a unit of Language in use… and it is not defined by its size… A text is best regarded as a semantic unit; a unit not of from but of meaning. A text has texture and that is what distinguishes it from something which is not a text. It derives this texture from the fact that it functions as a unit with respect to its environment".

Later, in Halliday and Hassan (1985/89), the criterion of texture is supplemented by that of structure: "Texts are characterized by the unity of their structure and the unity of their texture". The question that dominates the study of text is: 'What makes a text a text, rather than a sequence of sentences?'One of the dominant answers to this question is that a text is a text by virtue of the Linguistic features that cause the sentence sequence to cohere. The ties that bind sentences in a text are often referred to as cohesion. In other words, a text is seen as a string of sentences with semantic Links and occasional logical links (Sinkler 2004:155).

Coherence and Cohesion

A text exhibits two important features: coherence and cohesion.

These inherent features facilitate the interpretation of the text. Cohesion is the term of overt Linguistic links between words, phrases, sentences on the textual surface whereas coherence is the quality that allows the reader to understand a text.

4.2 Coherence

According to Halliday and Hassan (1976), coherence is a feature of the text that indicates "the property of hanging together"(183). For schema theorists, the coherence of a text is central; it can be viewed as part of top-down planning and organization. Coherence contributes to the unity of a text (as piece of discourse) such that the individual sentences hang together and form a meaningful whole. Cela-Murcia (2000:8) clarifies that "this unity and relatedness is partially a result of a recognizable organizational pattern for the proposition and ideas in the passage", but it also depends on the presence of Linguistic devices that strengthen global unity and create local connectedness.

4.3 Cohesion

The use of various cohesive devices to explicitly link all the propositions (words, clauses or sentences) in a text results in cohesion of that text. It is expressed via Language resources, or bottom-up connections in text.

Halliday and Hassan (1976:2) define cohesion as: "cohesion occurs where interpretation of some elements in the [text]is dependent on that of another, the one presupposes the other, in the sense that it cannot be effectively decoded except by recourse to it. When this happens, a relation of cohesion is set up, and the two elements, the presupposing and the presupposed are thereby at least potentially integrated into a text". As Haliday and Hasan(ibid:3) consider cohesion as the basis for coherence in a text, they are being placed into "the bottom-up" camp,

24

whereas for schema theories, the coherence of a text is central and comes first, and cohesion is a Linguistic consequence of coherence (Flusher, 1989; cited in Cela-Murcia 2000:125).

These theorists deal with the idea of cohesion beyond the sentence. They consider that a sequence of sentences is glued by means of a number of cohesive ties and form a semantic unity, not a structural one. According to them, structural links exist only within sentences and not between them. They suggest that there are various devices intelligibly linking ideas and sentences which are classified into two groups. The first and most important one is the inter-sentential links which connect one sentence to another. The second is the intra-sentential links used to connect one part of a sentence to another part of the same sentence, such as clauses, word groups and morphemes. In other words, Halliday and Hassan are concerned with describing the Language system, whereas schema theorists are primarily interested in human psychology and the reading process. Hassan (1985:94) further asserts that "…cohesion is the foundation on which the edifice of coherence is built. Like all foundations, it is necessary but not sufficient by itself".

4.3.1 Cohesive Ties

Halliday and Hassan(1976:32) identify five types of cohesive ties: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion. The ability to identify devices and their referents helps to promote reading comprehension. Demel (1990) claims that: 'The reader's ability to link a pronoun with the concept referred to by the author is a critical component of the reading process".

4.3.1.1 Reference

According to Halliday and Hassan (1976:32), words like "this, that, these, those (demonstratives), it, his, her, them, etc"(pronouns) seem very easy, but to know what these words refer to is essential for text comprehension. This feature is called reference. Although
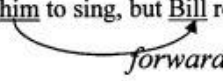
expressed by grammatical units, it is semantic, "since the relationship is on the semantic level, the reference item is no way constrained to match the grammatical class of the item it refers to. What must match are the semantic properties"(ibid:32).

Reference is the fact of using certain features to interpret something else i.e. the semantic interpretation of those features is to be retrieved from elsewhere in the text. This is achieved by the use of personal (she,he,it,her,them,…), possessive (mine,hers,yours,…), demonstrative (this,that,these,...) and comparatives (Similary, such, like,…) pronouns. The required information may either be preceding or following in the text. Two basic types of relationships are recognized:

Anaphoric Reference: when the pronoun refers back to a noun which has previously been mentioned in the text.
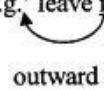
E.g. Paul bought a pear. He ate it

Cataphoric Reference: when the pronoun refers forward to the noun it replaces.

E.g. I asked him to sing, but Bill refused
forward

Both anaphoric and cataphoric relations are endophoric reference, the interpretation of the pronoun is within the text. Here the reference is textual.

Sometimes, however, the referent item is not expressed in the text but is present in the context of situation. This is known as exophoric reference, i.e. the reference is situational.

E.g.' leave it on the table please'

outward

4.3.1.2 Substitution

Substitution is a relationship on the lexico-grammatical level, i.e. grammar and vocabulary. This relationship is essentially confined to the text. The substitute item has the same grammatical function like that it substitutes. A substitution item may function as:

- A verb (do) → e.g. A: did you <u>sing</u>?

  B: Yes, I <u>did</u>

- A nominal (one, ones, same) → e.g.: I am looking for a <u>blanket</u>, do you have <u>one</u>?

or ● as a substitute for a clause (so, not)

E.g.   A: <u>Will you get here on time</u>?

B: I think <u>so</u>

These substitute items replace other items which can be recovered from the text.

4.3.1.3 Ellipsis

Halliday and Hassan (1976:142) state that Ellipsis differs from substitution in that it is a substitution by zero. This means:"something is left unsaid without the implication that what is unsaid is not understood, on the contrary, "unsaid" implies but understood nevertheless". In other words, Ellipsis is the omission of elements normally required by the grammar which the writer assumes are obvious from the context and therefore need not be raised.

E.g.   A: who wrote this poem?

B: Bill

In this context "Bill" stands alone without a predicate, it functions elliptically to express the entire proposition "Bill wrote the poem".

4.3.1.4 Conjunction

27

Conjunction is a different type of semantic relationship from those mentioned above. It does not set off a search backward or forward for its referent, but it does presupposes a textual sequence, and signals a relationship between segments of the text. Halliday and Hassan devide conjunctions into four simplified categories namely:

- Additive (and, in addition, moreover)

- Adversative (but, yet, however, whereas,...)

- Causal (because, so, thus, consequently,...)

- Temporal (later, then, how, subsequently,...)

4.3.1.5 Lexical cohesion.

The last type of cohesive ties are those labeled by Halliday and Hassan -lexical cohesion-which is achieved by the selection of vocabulary. It plays an important role in elucidating semantic difficulties at text level. Lexical cohesion involves repetition or reiteration (reiteration is a wider term than repetition) of words and the role played by certain basic semantic relations between words in creating textuality[1]. A reiterated item may be an exact repetition, a synonym or near synonym, a superordinate , or a general term.

To sum up, we can say that texture is provided by the cohesive relation. Recognizing these relations will help the reader to recover the texture of the text and promote a better level of understanding.

5. Context

The role of context in the interpretation of Linguistic units (words) has long been considered. The notion of context has Loomed Large in recent years in both the study and teaching of Language. Language teachers have been persuaded of the overriding importance of communicative competence as a pedagogic objective and this has generally been taken to mean the ability to use Language which is contextually appropriate. Focus on meaning rather than

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[1] Textuality means both coherence and cohesion.
[2] Retrieval of pieces of information based on their relatedness to one another.

form has frequently been the cry, and it has commonly been supposed that this implies giving primacy to context rather than code. Even if from different perspectives: from the view that regards context as an extra Linguistic feature, to the position that meaning is only meaning in use, still context, both Linguistic and situational, is often considered as a posteriori factor in Linguistic analysis.

5.1 The scope of context in Linguistics

Context is not a new object of study in Linguistics. It has Long been considered an essential factor for the interpretation of Linguistic units. In 1930s, Firth had started to work on Linguistic corpora, and already pointed out that "the complete meaning of a word is always contextualized, and no study of meaning apart from a complete context can be taken seriously" (Firth 1935:37). But it was around 1970s that context become the focus of most Linguistic trends. In the 1980s, Sperber and Wilson went deeper into considering the situation, the participants, and their intentions as the basic parts of a context where a Linguistic unit can convey different meaning. The idea underlying most of these approaches to contextual meaning is that whenever a Linguistic expression cannot be straight forwardly interpreted, we turn to context to find some extra cues in order to get the right meaning.

As a contrast, in the last twenty years, cognitive Linguistics has always made a point of integrating context into meaning. Its object of study is not Language as an abstract entity, but Language in use, and it is quite obvious that real Language use must necessarily involve context (IJES, 2007).

It must be pointed out here that context is used in its broadest sense, since anything around a particular word can potentially affect its meaning. In worth's words (1999:78-79; cited in I JES, 2007): "The context of a piece of Language (…) is its surrounding environment. But this can include as little as the articulatory movements immediately before and after it, or as much as the whole situation".

In order to reasonably delimit the scope of context, it is widely agreed that context can be devided into Linguistic and situational context.

5.2 The Linguistic context

Linguistic context refers to the immediate Linguistic environment in which a particular word occurs. What a word means in a text depends on the string of words within which it is embedded (Nagy& Herman, 1987) i.e. the interpretation of a word depends on its neighbour items in a sentence or a whole text. According to Harris (1951) the meaning of a word in Linguistic context is of syntagmatic relations (the relationship that a Linguistic element has with other elements in the stretch of Language in which it occurs) with other words. For instance:

    a. People were fishing from the river *bank*

    b. Customers keep their money in the *bank* safely

The meaning of the word "bank" depends on the Linguistic context where it occurs. In other words, its meaning is deduced from its Linguistic surrounding. In(a) 'bank' has an association with river and fishing; to fish from the bank of the river entails that 'bank' means the land that slop up along each side of a river. The same thing in (b), the meaning of 'bank' is deduced from its relation with the word money. So 'bank' is that building where customers (or people) keep money. If we cannot extract the information relevant to the meaning of a word from its immediate Linguistic environment, we need to take into account the topic of discussion as a sphere of necessary information. Taking this factors into consideration Dash (2008) devides context into two types: Local context that refers to the immediate Linguistic environment and topical context that refers to the topic of the text where the word has been used. For example, the word 'shot' refers to 'firing', 'drinking', 'hitting a ball by bat', 'taking a snap' and 'giving an injection', this example shows that meaning variation of a word depends on the variation of topic.

Linguistic context does include cues with the word itself as well as throughout the text as a whole.

5.3 Situational context or context of situation

When the Linguistic context does not provide enough information for the reader to interpret a particular word's meaning a search for extra Linguistic reality is needed- A context is not limited only to the immediate Linguistic environment.

Context of situation is associated with two scholars, the anthropologist B.Malinowski and a Linguist J.R.Firth. Both were concerned with stating meaning in terms of the context in which Language is used, but in rather different ways. According to Malinowski the context of situation refers to the social environment where a word is used i.e. the interpretation of a word depends on cultural assumption and social factors. According to Sapir and Whorf the social environment has an effect on the choice of vocabulary and its interpretation.

Firth preferred to see context of situation as part of the Linguists' apparatus in the same way as are the grammatical categories that he uses. According to him (1957, cited in kramsch 1999:37) context of situation is best used as a suitable schematic construct to apply to Language events and that it is a group of related categories at a different level from grammatical categories but rather of the same abstract nature. According to Firth(1957), a context of situation for Linguistic work brings into relation the following categories:

A   • The relevant features of the participants: persons, personalities.

   • The verbal action of the participants

   • The non-verbal action of the participants

B   • The relevant objects

C   • The effect of the verbal action

31

In this way contexts of situation can be grouped and classified and this is ,of course, essential if it is to be part of the Linguistic analysis of a Language.

5.4 Context in Discourse analysis and Pragmatics

The term context in discourse analysis refers to all the factors and elements that are non Linguistic and non textual but which affect written or spoken communicative interaction. Halliday (1991:5) describes context as "the events that are going on around when people speak and write". Discourse analysis of context entails the Linguistic and cognitive choices made relevant to the interaction at hand. In contrast, pragmatic analysis of context and contextual description relates to the participants taking part in the interaction, the sociocultural background that is relevant, and any physical-situational elements that may have some bearing on the exchange.

6. Teaching Vocabulary

6.1 Vocabulary 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/learning according to its beliefs and principles.

Richards and Rodgers (1986:3) state that the "Grammar Translation method is a way of studying a Language through detailed analysis of its grammar rules, followed by application of this knowledge to the task of translating sentences into and out of the target Language"

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 memorized; 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(Richard&Rodger, ibid).

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(Krashen,1987:135).

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. Rivers (1968:23) specifies the aims of this methods as "Developing listing and speaking skills first, as the foundation on which to build the skills of reading and writing". 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 practice 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

33

this method is given a minor role untill 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 contextualized ; but while pronunciation and intonation are given high credit, meaning is secondary. 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 percent 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 setting 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, linguists 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; they 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 researches (for example, Wallace, ibid) supported the teaching of vocabulary in relation with situations and contexts, encouraging inferences and activation of learner's previous knowledge. Allen (1983) was for the introduction of the social and cultural components; Rivers (1983) Gains 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 theoritical advances in the linguistic study of the lexicon. Nevertheless, it is not always given the consideration it deserves in the teaching programs.

6.2 Techniques for Teaching Vocabulary

Vocabulary teaching is often planned in the sense that the teachers 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,Hatch&Brown(1995:401)states that teachers 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. 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 gives meaning. 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 she/he feels that the vocabulary item that has just come up is unknown to her/his learners and needs to be clarified, she/he takes the opportunity to supply the word and explore it. In most cases, she/he analyses its form and studies its meaning(s) in different ways mainly through examples or pictures in order to make the learners record it systematically(Hatch&Brown ibid:402).

Using different techniques of presentation brings variety and helps the retention of new vocabulary items. Gairns and Redman (1986) devided techniques of vocabulary presentation in the classroom into two groups: visual techniques and verbal techniques.

6.2.1 Visual techniques: visuals

These include flashcards, photographs, blackboard drawings, wall charts and realia (i.e. objects themselves). They are extensively used for conveying meaning and are particularly useful for teaching concrete items of vocabulary such as food or furniture, and certain areas of vocabulary such as places professions, descriptions of people, actions and activities.

6.2.2 Mime and gesture

These are often used to supplement other ways of conveying meaning. When teaching an item such as 'to swerve', a teacher might build a situation to illustrate it, making use of the blackboard and gesture to reinforce the concept.

6.2.3 Using language relation

Of course, reliance on real objects, illustration, or demonstration, is limited. It is one thing to mime a chicken, but quite another to physically represent the meaning of a word like 'intuition' or 'trustworthy'. Also, words frequently come up incidentally, words for which the teacher won't have visual aids or realia at hand. An alternative way of conveying the meaning of a new word is simply to use words. Non-visual, verbal means of clarifying meaning include:

- Use of synonymy, antonymy, or superordinate terms
- Translation
- Giving a full definition
- Use of illustrative situations (context)

6.2.3.1 Use of synonymy, antonymy, or superordinate term

Teachers often use synonymy to respond to a question such as 'what does X mean?'. Teachers directly give a synonym, but this technique is not worth until the teacher specifies the context in which these two words can be interchangeable.

36

Contrast and opposites, as with synonymy, this is a techniques which students themselves use, often asking 'what is the opposite of X ?' A new item like 'sour' is easily illustrated by contrasting it with 'sweet' which would already be known by students. However, it is vital to illustrate the contexts in which this is true. Sugar is sweet and lemons are sour, but the opposite of 'sweet wine' is not 'sour wine', and the opposite of 'sweet tea' is not 'sour tea'.

A vocabulary network could be designed to help students learn to make semantic associations within particular superordinate headings. To illustrate the meaning of the superordinate term 'colour', it is a common procedure to exemplify them e.g. blue, dark, yellow, brown, green. Semantic mapping or vocabulary network is a technique that helps learners bring into consciousness relationships among words in a text and helps deepen understanding by creating associative networks forwards (Nation,1990).

6.2.3.2 Translation

Translation can save valuable time that might otherwise be spent on a turtuous and Largely unsuccessful explanation in English, and it can be a very quick way to dispose of Low frequency items that may worry the students but do not warrant significant attention. Gairns and Redman (1986:75) argue that: "translation may be legitimate for items possessing a clear mother-tongue equivalent, but should otherwise be avoided". Translation may not always convey the exact sense of an item. Amore real danger with translation is that if students continue to use the mother tongue as a framework on which to attach L2 items, they will not develop the necessary framework to take account of sense relations between different items in the new Language.

6.2.3.3 Definition

According to Nagy (1988:6-7) definitions are not useful in vocabulary instruction. First, definitions alone tell little about how a word is actually used, this leads to difficulty in writing a meaningful sentence. Second, definitions do not effectively convey new concepts.

This brings us to perhaps the most basic reason that knowledge of definitions is not adequate to guarantee comprehension of text containing the words defined; reading comprehension depends on a wealth of encyclopedic knowledge and not merely on definitional knowledge of the words in the text. Therefore, clearly contextualized examples are generally required to clarify the limits of the item.

6.2.3.4 Use of illustrative situations (con text)

New words should not be presented in isolation and should not be learned by simple rote learning (memorization). It is important that new vocabulary items be presented in contexts rich enough to provide clue to meaning and that students be given multiple exposure to items they should learn. There is no question that learning from context is an important avenue of vocabulary growth and that it deserves attention and practice(Nagy, ibid).

A situational presentation involves providing a scenario which clearly contextualizes the target word(s). An alternative to the situational approach is to provide students with example sentences, each one being a typical instance of the target word in context. From the cumulative effect of the sentences the students should be able to hypothesize the meaning of the target word using induction: the mental process of hypothesizing from examples. For example, a teacher would like to explain the meaning of the word 'Fancy', he can provide different sentences where the word is used to help the students deduce the meaning and have exposure to the different contexts where this word can be used and its collocations.

- I *fancy* eating out tonight. Don't you?

38

- Do you *fancy* a cap of coffee?

- He is really nice, but I don't *fancy* him.

According to Thornbury(2002:82) one advantage of this approach is that the learners hear and see the word several times, increasing the likelihood of, retention in memory. Another advantage is that they see the word in a variety of typical contexts (rather than just one) so they can start to get a feel for its range of uses as well as its typical collocation ,so they can generalize its use and transfer it in new contexts in a safe way. Finally, they get information on the word's form and grammar.

7. 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.

7.1 Vocabulary learning strategies and Guessing from context

In learning a foreign language, learners do generally use strategies in order to overcome the problems they may face while learning. Vocabulary learning strategies are part of language learning strategies. Strategies should aid both in discovering the meaning of a new word and in consolidating a word once it has been encountered. Thus, learners should approach independent learning of vocabulary by using a combination of extensive reading and self-study strategies.

Hedge (2000:117-8) devides vocabulary learning strategies into two categories: cognitive and metacognitive. Cognitive strategies are direct mental operations which are concerned with working on new words in order to understand, categorize, and store them in the mental lexicon. Examples are making associations, learning words in groups (synonyms, antonyms, and

semantic mapping or hyponymy), asking peers or the teachers, translation through the use of bilingual dictionaries or directly ask the teacher for the equivalent in the mother tongue. Another strategy learners can use is consulting a reference source such as dictionaries, glossaries, and lists. In FL learning students should not be Lazy-dependents of dictionaries. Despite that dictionary is a valuable support to clarify the uncertainty of the meaning of words and provides a valuable phonetic transcription and stress marking, Ellis (1995)argues: "dictionaries fall far short of providing complete coverage of word meanings, which means vocabulary learning from dictionaries is an error-prone process which requires cognitive sophistication". Dictionaries does not significantly increase reading comprehension. Another cognitive strategy reported by learners is that of using 'key words'. A key word is a word chosen from the first Language which sound like the new word in the L2, and where it is possible to make some kind if association between the two. Another strategy learners use when they encounter new word is inference or guessing the meaning from context. This strategy will be discussed later in details. On the other hand, metacognitive strategies are not direct mental operations but indirect strategies which facilitate learning by actively involving the learner in conscious efforts to remember new words. They include: consciously collecting words from authentic contexts ; making word cards; categorizing words into lists ; and reactivating vocabulary in internal dialogue.

7.2Guessing meaning from context

One of the most important strategies investigated and on which an extensive literature (Huckin, Haynes and Coady, 1993; Nation, 1990; Nagy, Herman, and Anderson, 1985) exists is "guessing from context". This strategy is a key vocabulary learning skill for dealing with low-frequency vocabulary, particularly in reading authentic texts. Nation(1990)has championed guessing meaning from context as the "undoubtedly most important vocabulary learning strategy"(ibid:130).

Factors that affect the likelihood of success in inference include a context rich enough to provide adequate clues to guess a word's meaning. Both background knowledge about the topic and the culture greatly aid inference and retention by providing a framework (schema) for incorporating the new word with information already known, but even without such a background learners can become skilled in guessing. The key is to help students learn what clues to look for and where to find them.

Clarke and Nation (1980-90) propose a guessing strategy based on such clues. The basic steps in this system include first deciding the part of speech of the unknown word (e.g., noun, verb, adjective, adverb), and then examining the context of the clause or sentence containing the word. For instance, if the unknown word is a noun, what adjectives describe it? What verb is it near?, etc. The next step is looking at the relationship between this clause or sentence and other sentences or paragraphs. Signals to look for might be coordinating or subordinating conjunctions such as "but, because, if, when" or an adverbial such as "however", or "as a result". Even if there is no explicit signal, it is helpful to be aware of the possible types of rhetorical relationship, which include cause and effect, contrast, inclusion, time, exemplification, and summary.

Punctuation may also be helpful as a clue, since semicolons often signal a list or an inclusion relationship, and dashes may signal restatement or clarification. Reference words such as "this, that", and "such" also provide useful information if the antecedent can be identified. The final steps for them include using knowledge gained from such clues to guess the meaning of the word, and then checking in the following ways to see if the guess is correct: students compare the unknown word and the guessed one, if they belong to the same part of speech then, replace the unknown word with the guessed one. If the sentence makes sense, the guessed word is probably a good paraphrase for the unknown word. As a final step, students break the unknown word into its prefix, root, and suffix, if possible, to see if the meanings of those parts correspond to the guessed word.

41

The steps in this strategy focus mainly on context rather than looking at word parts, a step that is delayed until the end. According to Clarke and Nation(ibid), using affixes and roots alone is not a very reliable aid to guessing, whereas using the context is more likely to lead to correct guesses. Considering what is stated above, guessing meaning from context is the mirror image of incidental learning on the strategy side. This will allow the learners to meet the words and therefore learn them adequately.

7.3 Intentional versus Incidental learning

Vocabulary can be learned intentionally or 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 context.
- 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 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

42

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 with they were used. Others reported that they drilled themselves deliberately putting words in different sentences or reading or playing word games. The techniques used for teaching 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 interested in. Naiman et al(ibid) conclude that the techniques associated with vocabulary learning are 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 delibrate 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 learn 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(1995) 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, authentic, 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.

43

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43

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 learn 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. According to Nagy and his followers(1987) the pedagogical trust of their argument has been that vocabulary growth is Largely determined by reading and that students must be encouraged to spend much time on reading:"incidental learning of words during reading may be the easiest and single most powerful means of promoting Large-scale vocabulary growth"(Nagy and Herman, 1987:27). 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. Contracting 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 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. Krashen's (1989) studies show that the mere reading of a text in the SL/FL causes vocabulary

learning. 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.

Conclusion

In the process of learning FL/SL, learners need to learn, to understand, and to produce 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-centered approaches in teaching have taken over teacher-centered 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 TWO

Processing information in writing

Introduction

1. **Cognitive theory of learning**

    1.1 Short-term working memory

    1.2 Long-term memory

2. **Information-processing theory**

    2.1 Input

        2.1.1 The source vocabulary

    2.2 The sequence of information processing

    2.3 Retrieving information from Long-term memory

3. **The Mental lexicon**

4. **Remembering**

5. **Vocabulary's Influence on writing**

    5.1 Reading and writing

    5.2 Using vocabulary to improve writing

6. **Topic-type**

    6.1 Topic-type Hypothesis

7. **Transfer of learning**

7.1 Teaching for positive transfer

7.2 Stages of transfer for strategies

7.3 Good learner and vocabulary

Conclusion.

Introduction

Learning and memory are like two sides of a coin neuroscientists. You cannot talk about one without the other. After all, if you have learned something, the only evidence of learning is memory. One acknowledged expert on human memory, Baddeley (1999:19) slates:"Memory does not comprise a single unitary system, but rather an array of interacting systems, each capable of encoding or registering information, storing it, and making it available for retrieval in new context". The role of memory is crutial in any kind of learning and vocabulary learning is no exception. Vocabulary learning is a four stage encoding process involving selection, learning, construction and generation with transfer of the learned words in new contexts. The way learners store the items learned contribute to their success in retrieving them when needed. Most learners simply list the items learned in chronological order, indicating meaning with translation, synonyms, or using dictionary. This system is far from helpful. As items are de-contextualized. The more familiar learners are with words, the easier it will be for them to improve their writing production.

1. Cognitive theory of learning

The cognitive view of learning is a general approach that views learning as "an active mental process of acquiring, remembering and using knowledge" (Woolfolk, 2004:236). According to this view learners, rather than simply receive knowledge, seek new information to solve language problems and reorganize what they already know to achieve new insights. On the same scope, Rubins (1987:29) defines learning as :"the process by which information is obtained, stored, retrieved ,and used".

The cognitive theory of learning, which is largely based on the theory of human information processing, deals with mental processes involved in learning. This mainly refers to three fundamental cognitive aspects of learning: how knowledge is developed, how knowledge

48

becomes automatic and how new knowledge is integrated into an existing cognitive system of the learner.

Emphasis is placed on 'meaningful learning', i.e. learning with understanding which is not manifested in behaviour, but which can be described as 'a clearly articulated and precisely differentiated conscious experience that emerges when potentially meaningful signs, symbols, concepts, or propositions are related to and incorporated within a given individual's cognitive structure' (Ausubel, 1963:10).

Researchers in this domain have also endeavoured to explain the way in which knowledge about the language is stored in the memory and how the process of language learning results in automatic comprehension and production of language. The cognitive theory suggests that linguistic codes and structures are stored and retrieved from the memory in exactly the same way as other kinds of information. What is important is the extend to which the learner has learned formal and functional characteristics of the language and mental process. This implies the possibility of 'degrees' of knowledge, i.e. the fact that the learner can know something only partially (Ellis, 1996).

The cognitive theory defines SL learning as a complex cognitive skill which like other such kills, engages cognitive systems (such as perception, memory and information processing) to overcome limitations in human mental capacity which may inhibit performance (Ellis, 2000:1975). This theory sees memory as functioning into stages. The first is the working (or short-term) memory, and the second stage of storing information is the long-term memory.

1.1 Short-term or working memory

Short-term memory is a storage system that can hold a limited amount of information for a few seconds. According to Baddeley (1986:43), working memory is "the temporary storage of information that is being processed in any range of cognitive tasks". It is the "workbench" of the

memory system where new information is held temporarily and combined with knowledge from long-term memory i.e. it has limited capacity. This means that short-term memory requires conscious effort and control to retain only modest amounts of information.

1.2 Long- term memory

Long- term memory is that part of our memory system where we keep information for long period of time. Allan Paivio (1971-86; cited in Woolfork, 2004:247) suggested that information is stored in long-term memory as either visual images or verbal units, or both. It is hypothesized by Ericsson and Kintch (1995) that not only information is stored in long-term memory but also learning strategies.

Theorists devide long-term memory into at least three part: episodic memory, semantic memory, and procedural memory. Episodic memory is our memory of personal experiences, a mental movie of things we saw or heard. When someone remembers what happened at his/her high school prom, she/he is recalling information stored in his/her long-term episodic memory. Long-term semantic memory is memory for meaning including facts and generalized information that we know; concepts, words, theories, principles, or rules and how to use them, and learning strategies. Procedural memory refers to "knowing how" in contrast to "knowing that" (Solso, 2001; cited in Woolfork). The abilities to drive ,type, and ride a bycycle are examples of skills that are retained in procedural memory. According to Anderson (1995), episodic, semantic, and procedural memory store and organize information indifferent ways. Information in episodic memory is stored in the form of images that are organize on the basis of when and where events happened. Information in semantic memory is organized in the form of networks of ideas. Whereas, information is stored as a complex of stimulus-response pairings in procedural memory.

2. Information -processing theory

Information -processing theory is a dominant theory of learning and memory since the mid-1970s. The most prominent example of the information-processing approach is a model that was designed and developed by Richard Atkinson and Richard Shiffrin (1968) to explain memory. Figure1 is a schematic representation of a typical information processing model of memory by (Atkinson & shiffring, 1968).

Information received from external input is encoded in sensory memory where perception and attention determine what will be held in working memory for further use. In working memory, new information connects with knowledge from long-term memory. Thoroughly processed and connected information becomes part of Lon-term memory. Thoroughly processed and connected information becomes part of Long-term memory, and can be activated to return to return to working memory.
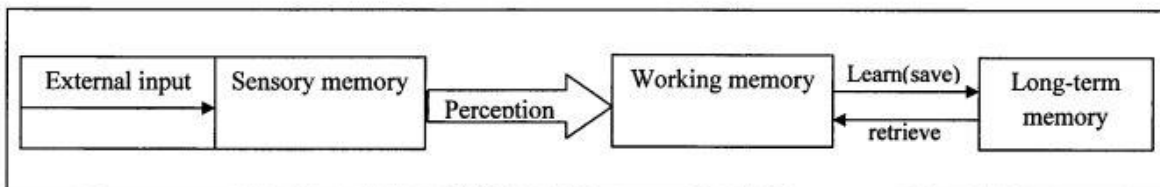
Figure1: Information -processing Model by Atkinson& Shiffrin, 1968 (cited in Matlin, 2003:11).

Following this model the source of information that enter our memory is external input. Since this present research is carried in the field of FL teaching and learning, I will focus on Language input.

2.1 Input

The term input has become specific to language teaching. It refers to the linguistic forms to which learners are exposed. In other words, it stands for the language that is addressed to the SL learner by either a native speaker, a teacher or another SL learner. This language can be written or spoken.

One of the first SL learning researchers to investigate issues related to input, Krashen (1987), he proposed that SL learners require comprehensible input (i.e. language that is understandable). More specifically, Krashen hypothesized that when learners understand language at the level of i+1 (i.e. language that is slightly more advanced than their current level of competence), learning would automatically occur. krashen (1987:27) writes: "a necessary (but not sufficient) condition to move from i to stage i +1 is that the learner understands input that can contains i+1, where "understands" means that the learner is focused on the meaning and not the form of the message". However, while this proposal represented a learning major first step in exploring the relationship between input and learning, researchers (e.g. Swain, 1985) have pointed out that input is not sufficient for SL learning. In other words, while input is obviously a crucial element in learning English, input alone cannot account for the entire process.

2.11 The source of vocabulary

Research on L1 vocabulary acquisition has shown that the primary source of vocabulary for native speakers is a wide range of contexts that enables them to experiment and to confirm, expand or narrow down the lexical nets(Carter& McCarthy, 1988). Naturally, this process is not based on explicit formal instruction, but on incidental learning from large amounts of language input. When it comes to learning a SL, however, the answers is not that simple. Although some research results have confirmed the assumption that L2 vocabulary can also be learned through exposure to various contexts (such as reading).

An important source of vocabulary in L2 learning is a wide range of contexts. Learners can learn lexical items if they are exposed to sufficient amounts of comprehensible input. Nagy (1997) claims that an overage learner can learn to recognize up to 1000 words a year from written materials. As has already been stated, the role of the context in initial stages of learning is limited, but its significance grows as the learner's knowledge expands. An ideal source for learning L2 vocabulary from context is reading, low-frequency lexical items (the ones that are characteristic of individuals with a wide vocabulary) occur more frequently in written than in spoken language. Besides, the learner has more time at his/her disposal for analysis, hypothesis testing and inference, if working on a written text. Researches on the field confirm that this strategy helps learner in an effective retention of the word in long-term memory and leads to an easy output (reproduction) in new contexts.

Interactionnists as opposed to the behaviourist and mentalist views of learning, emphasize the importance of both input and internal language processing. They argue that learning a language is the result of an interaction of the linguistic environment (input) and the learner's internal mechanisms.

2.2 The sequence of information processing

Information is received from the external input and held in the sensory memory which meets large amounts of information from each of the senses (sight, hearing, touch, smell, taste). The received information is held for a very short time, no more than a couple of seconds. The existence of sensory registers has two important educational implications. First, learners must pay attention to information if they are to retain it. Second, it takes time to bring all the information seen in a moment into consciousness (Slavim, 2003:174). The information content of sensory memory resembles the sensations from the original stimulus (external input). Visual sensation are coded briefly by the sensory memory as images (an image of the word). Auditory

sensations are coded as sound patterns. In these moments, we have a change to select and organize information for further processing. Perception and attention are critical at this stage.

- **Perception:** Woolfork (2004:240) states that the process of detecting a stimulus (word) and assigning meaning to it is called perception. It involves mental interpretation and is influenced by our mental state, past experience, our knowledge, motivation, and many other factors. Since perception is the interpretation of sensory information, two kinds of explanations for how we recognize patterns and give meaning to those information are part of information processing theory. The first is called 'feature analysis', or 'bottom-up processing' because the stimulus must be analyzed into features or components and assembled into a meaningful pattern from the bottom up. Perception does not rely on feature analysis, otherwise learning would be very slow. Humans are capable of other type of perception based on knowledge and expectation often called top-down processing. To recognize patterns, in addition to noting features, learners use what they already know about the situation and what they know about words.

- **Attention:** Psychologists maintain that attention (focus on stimulus) to stimulus is needed for long-term memory storage and that, little; if any; learning can take place without attention. The most widely accepted view in SL learning is that without awareness, input can be processed only in short-term memory and therefore cannot be deeply processed for learning to occur. According to Schmidt's (2001) "attention is the necessary and sufficient condition for the conversion of input into intake". What we pay attention to is guided to a certain extent by what we already know and what we need to know, so attention is involved in and influenced by all three memory processes.

Information that a person perceives and pays attention to is transferred to short-term memory where the mind operates on information, organizes it for storage or discarding, and

connects it to other information. Information may enter working memory from sensory memory or from long term memory. To hold information in working memory learners need to repeat the word more than one time. This process of maintaining an item in working memory by repetition is called rehearsal (Baddeley, 1999). Rehearsal is important in learning because the longer an item remains in working memory, the greater the chance that it will be transferred to long-term memory. Without it, items will probably not stay in working memory for more than about 30 seconds. Rehearsal helps learners to process information in working memory and thereby to establish it in long-term memory.

Long-term memory seems to store an unlimited amount of information for a very long time. Information is stored in one of the three types of long-term memory (semantic, episodic and procedural memory) as explained before. The way information is learned in the first time affects its recall later. One important requirement is to integrate new material with knowledge already stored in long-term memory using elaboration. Organization is a second element of processing that improves learning. Material that is well organized is easier to learn and to remember than bits and pieces of information. Context is a third aspect of processing that in fluencies learning. It is a kind of prime that activates the information. If a learner learn a vocabulary item in context (linguistic or situational) later, it will be easier to remember and transfer it if the current new context is similar to the original one.

2.3 Retrieving information from long-term memory

When learners need to use information from long-term memory, they search for it. Sometimes the search is conscious as when you see a 'robin' and search for its name. At other times, information from long-term memory is automatic, as when you fill in a CV without having to search for the words. Retrieval or recall from long-term memory is partially through

the spreading[2] of activation from one bit of knowledge to related ideas in the network (woolfork, ibid). According to Thornburg (2002:24) a word is retrieved easily from long-term memory, this depends on how this word was stored. Nation (1990) argues that guessing word meaning from context is an effective strategy for permanent retention and it leads to a successful retrieval of the word in new contexts. The way a learner encode (that is, put information into memory) determines his/her ability to retrieve it when needed.

To sum up, processing generally consist of: recognition, storage, recall and reconstruction or construction of information.

3. Mental lexicon

The way words are stored in the mind resembles less a dictionary than a kind of network or web. Words are stored in semantic memory neither randomly nor in the form of a list, but in a highly organized and interconnected manner in what is often called the mental lexicon. The mental lexicon is "a memory system in which a vast number of words, accumulated in the course of time, have been stored and organized". (Takac, 2008:125). In other words, vocabulary words are stored in semantic memory in schemata. Piaget introduced the word scheme to describe a cognitive framework that individuals use to organize their perceptions and experiences. Cognitive processing theorists similarly use the term schema and schemata to describe net work of concepts that individuals have in their memories that enables them to understand and incorporate new information. According to Slavim (2008:180), schema is like an outline, with different concepts or ideas grouped under larger categories. Various aspects of schemata may be related by series of proposition. For example, Figure2 illustrate a simplified schema for the concept "antique". The schema tells what features are typical of a category.

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[2] Retrieval of pieces of information based on their relatedness to one another.

```
+-------------------------------------------------------------------------------+
|                                  Antique                                      |
|                                     |                                         |
|                                     v                                         |
|          +--------------+-----------+-----------+                             |
|          v              v           v           v                            |
|                                                                               |
|  • Uses          • characteristics   • Kinds        • Sources                |
|                                                                               |
|  • Decoration    • older than 25 years  • Cars      • Stores                 |
|                                                                               |
|  • Investment    • served a function    • Jewelry   • Other collectors       |
|                                                                               |
|  • Hobby         • preserved            • Furniture • Ads                    |
|                                                                               |
|  • Understand history  • natural materials (no  • Silver   • Flea markets    |
|                          plastic or polyester)                               |
|                                                                               |
|                  • valuable             • Costumes  • Trips to the country   |
|                                                                               |
|                                         • Dishes                             |
|                                                                               |
|                                         • House hold                         |
|                                         implement                            |
|                                                                               |
|                                         • Tool                               |
+-------------------------------------------------------------------------------+
```
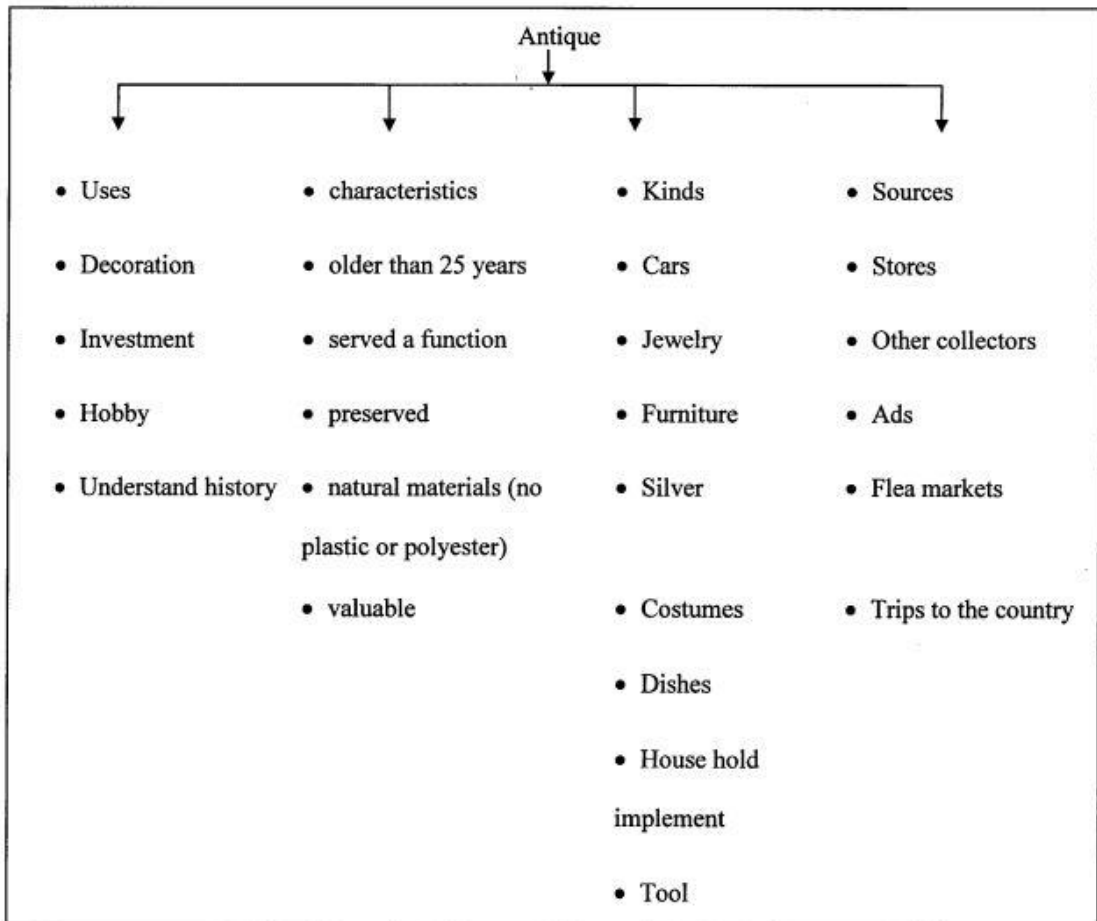
Figure2:A schema for

"antique"

The sentence "my grandparent's house is full of antique furniture that belong to the Victorian Age" is an example of information that will be easily incorporated into a learner's 'antique' schema, because a learner knows that (1) furniture is a kind of antique objects(2) and other kinds, such as: cars, jewelry also belong to it(3) all what belongs to the Victorian age is antique because it is very old, and belongs to a historical period. Furthermore, when a learner encounter a vocabulary item in several contexts, in each context the word holds a new meaning,

57

a schema network will be built of the various meanings of that item under its superordination with relation to other features deduced from each context. Because of this incorporation of meaning into the learner's schema with the help of the contextual clues, the learner's writing performance will be improved. Any new information relating to this schema will probably be learned and incorporated into the schema much more readily than would information relating to less established schemata or rote learning that does not attach to any schema.

According to Alexander (1992; cited in Salvim 2003:201), one important insight of schema theory is that "meaningful learning requires the active involvement of the learner, who has a host of prior experiences and knowledge to bring to understanding and incorporating new information.

4. Remembering

To move from input to achieve a successful output, the learner needs not only to learn a lot of words, but to remember them. In fact, learning is remembering. Unlike the learning of grammar, which is essentially a rule-based system, vocabulary knowledge is largely a question of accumulating individual items.

In the view of the literature on vocabulary learning, there are three important general processes that may lead to a word being remembered. These comprise noticing, retrieval and creative or generative use.

The first process encouraging learning is noticing, that is to give attention to an item. This means that learners need to notice the word, and be aware of it as a useful language item this process also occurs when learners rely on different strategies to get the meaning of a word especially when guessing from context. Sanz (2005:207) argues that noticing a word in context leads to mere intake. Another important aspects to consider as far noticing is concerned are interest and motivation. Texts to be taught to or read by the learners must be of their interest.

"Natural learner interest and motivation may cause learners to pay more attention to some words than others". (Hatch Brown 1995:373).

The second process that may lead to a word being remembered is retrieval. According to Baddeley (1990:156) "A word may be noticed and its meaning comprehended in the textual input to the task, through teacher's explanation or [inferring]. If that word is subsequently retrieved during the task then, the memory of that word will be strengthened".

He explains that retrieval can be receptive or productive. If receptive retrieval involves perceiving the form and having to retrieve its meaning when the word is met, in reading, productive retrieval involves wishing to communicate the meaning of the word and having to retrieve its written form.

As far as repetition is concerned, Baddeley (1990:156) suggests that "It is not simply repetition which is important, but the repeated opportunity to retrieve the item which is to be learned".

He explains that when learners hear or see the form of the word, they need to retrieve what they know of its meaning. In fact, for him, each retrieval of a word strengthens the path linking form and meaning and makes subsequent retrieval easier.

The third major process in word remembering is generation. There is an increasing number of studies (Joe, 1995; R.Ellis, 1995) that show that generative processing is an important factor in language vocabulary learning. Nation (2001:68) states that "Generative processing occurs when previously met words are subsequently met or used in ways that differ from the previous meeting with the word".

This process is mainly concerned with the different meanings a word may have according to context. For example, if a learner has met the word 'crush' used as a verb as in 'We crush grapes to make wine', and then meets 'Her refusal crushed all our hopes' ,the learners will need

59

to rethink the meaning and uses of"crush"and this will help firmly establish the memory of this word.

To conclude this third process, I may say that generative uses of vocabulary are those where meeting the word in new context forces learners to reconceptualize that they previously had for that word.

5. Vocabulary's Influence on writing

Vocabulary is strengthened by use. The more the new words are used, the more they are solidified in the mind. "Vocabulary is particularly strengthened when new words are used in writing. Consequently, we should look for opportunities to have students use the new learned words in their writing" (Lauflamme, 1997:373).

English learners need exposure to the English language in a variety of contexts.They need to see the similarities and differences of English words within and across types of texts. It is through his exposure that learners will learn when and how to use words and generate sentences properly. According to Flores (2008:9-10) writing is a process by which we transfer our knowledge, our ideas, our vocabulary into written form. For learners, their vocabulary knowledge of the English language, their experiences will serve as building blocks for writing. Teachers will in turn supply the context (authentic texts) as support for learners about how written English is structured and organized and as source to show how vocabulary is used in its real context.

5.1 Reading and writing

If the writing process is inextricably linked to the reading process, and the reading process is heavily dependent upon vocabulary, it naturally follows that the writing process is likewise dependent. On the same scope Wu (1994; cited in college connection, 1997) states that reading is one of the best ways to improve your vocabulary since words are used in context. Not

only will reading help you better understand new words and deduce their meaning, reading also helps you to become a better writer by exposing you to well-written prose.

Wu(1994) reports on a study that focused on a reading-to-write task that the findings indicate that learners produce successful passages rich of vocabulary borrowed from the source text.

In some ways, the ability to write effectively hinges upon having an adequate vocabulary even more than does the ability read. Once students have learned to decode words, they may be able to read and pronounce many words that are unfamiliar to them. They may even be able to determine accurate meanings of unfamiliar words simply by examining the context in which those words are used. During the writing process, however, a student does not have the luxury of examining the context in which a word is used; he or she is creating the context. Therefore, the learner must be able to spontaneously recall words that are known not only by sight, but that are understood well enough to use correctly.

The breadth and depth of a students' vocabulary will have a direct influence upon the descriptiveness, accuracy, and quality of his her writing. As Ediger (1999:1) notes, "variety in selecting words to convey accurate meanings is necessary in speaking and writing, the outgoes of the language arts".

5.2 Using vocabulary to improve writing

While improved vocabulary can enhance students' writing performance, there is no guarantee that it will do so automatically. Improvement in vocabulary will result in improved writing performance only if the teacher is able to create a classroom that takes writing seriously. "In such a classroom, process and environment are closely intertwined and interdependent. The process does not come alive unless the environment is conducive to it" (Corona, Spangenberger& Venet, 1998:24).

Laflamme (1997:377-84) proposes five techniques teachers can use to create a writing-centered classroom:

- Sharing vocabulary-rich literature. He explains that in his quest to help his students become better writers, he "went to the best source for teaching good writing: good books". By having students read books, poems, and stories that contain interesting vocabulary, teachers can both help learners deduce the meaning of new words and provide a forum for discussing them.

- Helping students become aware and look for interesting words. There are many different forms this can take. For example, students could pair up and look through books for words that catch their attention, then write down common words that the author could have used instead. Other method include having student: write words they deduced their meaning on a notebook where they have to generalize sentences.

- Offering a variety of writing opportunities. "A writer-centered classroom emphasizes written expression to communicate ideas. Writing is an important part of all areas of the curriculum". Laflamme goes on to note that students have a greater investment in their writing when they are given choices about their assignments.

- Another interesting technique for him is providing ample time for students to fully experience the writing process. The teaching of writing should be approached as a process that must be studied in depth, and substantial blocks of time should be devoted to writing.

- The last technique Laflamme proposes is allowing students to conference with teachers and fellow students. When the teacher chose a topic which must be of students' interest, he should allow students to recall all the words they have in their schemata that are related to the topic of discussion, exchange ideas with each other and ask him questions for more

clarification. Through this discussion writing is going to be an easy task where learners can successfully a text or composition rich in terms of vocabulary and ideas.

To sum up, we can say that reading is one of the best ways to learn vocabulary. It does not only help learners get words meaning but also helps them become better writers by showing learners how written texts are structured, organized and how vocabulary is used in its real context.

6.Topic-type

It is believed that the best way to teach vocabulary is through authentic texts where words are used in their native context.

In this scope, the TAVI approach[3] whose objective is to provide students with the experience of dealing with the full range of authentic texts, they are likely to encounter in their studies, makes use of the notion of topic-type (Davies 1982-83) sometimes called conceptual frame (Fillmore 1976).

6.1 The topic-type Hypothesis

According to Davies (1985:7) the topic-type hypothesis is as follows:"while it is possible to envisage an unlimited range of topics which might be identified in ESP texts, there is a strictly limited set of topic-types. A topic-type can be defined by means of its 'information constituents'-certain categories of information which consistently co-occur over a wide range of different topics. For instance, the following topics appear on the surface to be quite unrelated: a suspension bridge, a flowering plant, a skeleton, a blast furnace".

While such topics are clearly distinct, descriptions of them are consistently represented through certain categories of information: namely information about parts, about the location of parts, and about the properties or attributes of parts, including their function. Furthermore, Davies claims that coherent texts describing such 'physical structures', (the topic type lable for this class

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[3] An alternative approach that starts from the function of text as a vehicle for information.

of texts) consistently contain information fitting each of these categories, but (virtually) no information of any other kind.

The approach is based on the premise that writers make choices at the lexico-grammatical and rhetorical levels in order to achieve their purpose, but in doing this they draw upon the underlying information which they wish to present and over which they have very little choice. It thus focuses on the semantic level of text and uses the concept of frame in which an overall framework is made up of slots with the potential for containing information constituents (Davies, 1985). The topic-type hypothesis states that 'while it is possible to envisage an infinite number of topics which might be represented in text, there is a strictly limited set of topic-types' (Davies ibid) and the topic-types which have so far been suggested for informative texts are as follows: instruction, physical structure, mechanism, process, concept-principle, hypothesis-theory, characteristics, force, social structure, state/situation, adaptation, system/production and classification. The pedagogical value of topic-type is helping L2 students in their reading and writing. In other words, the value of the topic-type approach for ESL students is that it allows the use of authentic texts, thereby providing an opportunity for students to work with the actual syntax and lexis which they will meet in their subject disciplines. It thus provides face validity and should encourage the principle of intertextuality to come into play, thus assisting transfer. It also involves an interactive approach to text, whereby top-down and bottom-up processing can take place conjointly, the topic-type acting as the controlling schema, and while the dominant focus is on the semantic level (with the surface level seen as its realization), the approach allows for subsequent focus on the rhetorical and surface levels and for authentic tasks to be completed in follow-up work.

Learners should be pushed to write on a range of topics. Topic is most likely to have an effect on the vocabulary that is used as each topic is likely to have its particular technical topic related vocabulary. Covering a good range of topics in a course ensures that a wide range of

vocabulary is used. The topic-type approach helps learners to analyze a text and see how information are classified through reference to certain super-ordinate semantic categories, through his analysis learners can rewrite a text (composition) based on the different categories of information deduced from the topic-type. Nation (2008:127-133) states that the greatest value of a topic-type approach is in gathering ideas for writing where the topic clearly fits into a known topic type. Using guiding questions like those proposed by Davies for the twelve topic-types mentioned above can be a very effective way of putting learners in control of the data gathering part of the writing process. The following example is taken from the list of the topic-types given by Davies with their information constituents:

Process → state or form of object/material→ location + time or stage + instrument or Agent + property or structure + Action

Social structure → Member or Group → location(place, time)+conditions+Effects+event or innovation(Davies 1985:8).

Topic-type approach helps learners widen their schema of different topics which lead to easy recall of the incorporated features or ideas in the students' writing.

7.Transfer of learning

Learners may remember that they learned these words, but they will not be quite sure exactly what they learned. These questions are about the transfer of learning.

Whenever something previously learned influences current learning, transfer has occurred (Mayer Wittrock, 1996). If a student learn the meaning of a word in a given context and use it days or weeks later in another context, then transfer has taken place. However, the effect of past learning on present learning is not always positive. If a learner grasp the meaning of a word in a situation and is unable to re-use it in a new one, this is called in psychopedagogy 'functional

fixedness' (inability to use what has been learned previously in a new situation) which is an example of negative transfer.

Gavriel Salomon and David Perkins (1989) describe two kinds of transfer, termed low-road and high-road transfer. Low-road transfer "involves the spontaneous, automatic transfer of highly practiced skills, with little need for reflective thinking" (P118). The key to low-road transfer is practicing a skill often, in a variety of situations, until the performance becomes automatic. So If a learner practice the guessing strategy on any text he meets, after certain period of time, he probably would be able to guess the meaning of new words from most texts easily. The learner practice with many texts would let him/her transfer his/her strategy automatically to a new situation.

High-road transfer, on the other hand, involves consciously applying abstract knowledge learned in one situation to a different situation. For instance, if a learner has met the word 'cement' used as a verb as in 'we cemented the path', and deduce its meaning and learn it, then he uses it in new context such as 'we cement our relationship with a drink'. In this situation, transfer is successfully achieved.

The key to high-road transfer is mindful abstraction, or the deliberate identification of a principle, main idea, strategy, or procedure that is not tied to one specific problem or situation but could apply to many. Such an abstraction becomes part of the learners' metacognitive knowledge, available to guide future learning.

7.1 Teaching for positive transfer

Students will master new-knowledge, procedures, and learning strategies, but they will not use them unless prompted or guided. For example, studies of real-world mathematics show that people do not always apply math procedures learned in school to solve practical problems in their homes or grocery stores (Lave, 1988; Lave &Wenger, 1991). This is the case in foreign

language learning, learners do not always apply the learned vocabulary in their writing and speaking. This happens because learning is situated, that is, learning happens in specific situations. Because knowledge is learned in a particular situation, we may not realize that the knowledge is relevant when we encounter a situation that seems different, at least on the surface (Anderson, 1989:304-05).

To reach transfer effectively two conditions have been stated by Woolfolk (2004:305), how well students understood the material to be learned, material that is memorized by rote is unlikely to transfer to new situation no matter how thoroughly it was mastered. Learning must be contextualized.

To have something to transfer, students must first learn and understand. They will be more likely to transfer information to new situations if they have been actively involved in the learning process. Satisfactory learning is unlikely to take place in the absence of sufficient motivation to learn. Corder (1967:196) states that in language teaching, given motivation, a student will inevitably learn a language if she/he is exposed to date of that language. Motivation, then, is that energizer which drivers forwards the learning operation for success. It is widely recognized that motivation is of an immense importance for successful SL learning. It affects the degree of attainment to which individual learners persevere in learning the SL, the types of learning behavior and their real achievement, as proposed by Ellis (1994).

Another aspect for worth learning is that of comprehensible input. Krashen's(1985) input hypothesis posits that language is picked up, or learned when learners receive input from texts which contain language a little above their existing understanding and from which they can infer meaning. An ideal source for learning L2 vocabulary from context is reading because it contextualize lexical items for students and show how words are used in natural situation items for students and show how words are used in natural situation to ensure effective transfer in

similar or different situations. Teachers should provide students with interesting input. The more interest, the more deep processing, remembering and successful use of the material.

Greater transfer can also be ensured by over learning, practicing a strategy or a vocabulary learned item past the point of mastery.Over learning helps students retrieve the information quickly and automatically when it is needed. The more learners practice the new words they have learned through different activities and contexts the more retention and successful transfer are achieved.

7.2Stages of transfer strategies

Sometimes students simply do not understand that a particular strategy applies in new situations or they don't know to adapt it to fit.

Gary Phye (1992-2001) suggests we think of the transfer of learning strategies as a tool to be used in a "mindful" way to solve academic problems. He describes three stages in developing strategic transfer. In the acquisition phase, students should not only receive instruction about a strategy and how to use it, but they should also rehearse the strategy and practice being aware of when and how they are using it. In the retention phase, more practice helps students hone their strategy use. In the transfer phase, the teacher should provide new situations that help the students to use the same strategy, even though the situation appears different on the surface.

Positive transfer is encouraged when vocabulary is practiced under authentic conditions, similar to those that will exist when vocabulary is needed. In other words, vocabulary is transferred successfully in new situation depending on how it was learned at the first time. According to nation and Newton(2008:48), information transfer has a useful role in pushing learners' production. By providing original input, vocabulary can be deduced and learned, and learner can use to re-write a text based on the given input.

7.3 Good learner and vocabulary

The Ahmed (1989) study was amongst the first to elicit vocabulary strategies learners spontaneously employ. The good learners were found to be more aware of what they could learn about new words, paid more attention to collocation and spelling and were more conscious of contextual learning. Good learners learn vocabulary through reading they immediately practice the new learned words by keeping a notebook where words are put in sentences of their own to ensure retention and positive transfer in new contexts. By, contrast, the underachieving learners refused to use the dictionary and almost always ignore unknown words. They were generally characterized by their apparent passiveness in learning. They also took each word as a discrete item unrelated to previously learned words. Another study that explored students' ability level and their guessing strategies is Schouten-van Parreren (1989). It was found that, compared to their counter parts, weak students tended to focus on the problem word and ignore the context, their knowledge of the world was more restricted, they had difficulty integrating knowledge from different sources, and they had difficulty generalizing from words they had already learned to slightly different new words.

Conclusion

One way to see the overall task of vocabulary learning is through the distinction between knowing a word and using a word . in other words, the purpose of vocabulary learning should include both remembering words and the ability to use them automatically in a wide range of language contexts when the need arises (MacCarthy, 1991). Thus, each strategy a learner uses will determine to a large extent how and how well a new word is learned and used.

CHAPTER THREE

The study

1. Research foundation

    1.1. Hypothesis

2. Design of the study

    2.1. Type of Experiment

    2.2. The population

    2.3. The sample

3. The teacher's questionnaire

    3.1. Description of the questionnaire

    3.2. Analysis and interpretation of the questionnaire

    3.3. Summary of finding

4. The learner's questionnaire

    4.1. Description of the questionnaire

    4.2. Analysis and interpretation of the questionnaire

    4.3. Summary of finding

5. Pedagogical instrument

    5.1. Texts

    5.2. Dictionary use

    5.3. Types of texts for vocabulary learning in context

6. The test

    6.1. Discretion of the pre-test

    6.2. Analysis and interpretation of the pre-test

    6.3. Discretion of the post-test

6.4. Analysis and interpretation of the post-test

6.5. Summary of finding

6.6. Correlation of the questionnaire and test

General conclusion

1. Research foundation

The present study is designed to investigate the degree of learners' achievement in vocabulary learning through the use of authentic texts (context) and to measure its effect on the learners' writing performance.

This will be evaluated through an experiment we led in four steps. First, teacher's questionnaire and learner's questionnaire were administered. Then a pre-test was organized.In the next step, the learners were given some instruction. After two weeks break, a post-test was administered. Scores obtained in the pre-test and the post –test were analyzed and interpreted.

1.1. Hypothesis

The following study is related to the nature of the relationship between contextual vocabulary learning and learners' writing performance. The general Hypothesis is: contextual vocabulary learning will improve learners' writing performance. So the two Observable and measurable variables on which this Hypothesis is build are:

Independent variable: contextual vocabulary learning.

and   dependent variable: learners' writing performance.

2. Design of the study

2.1. Type of Experiment

According to Campbell and Stanley (1963:223-27), the experimental research design consists of organizing an experimental treatment and an observation or measurement of the effects of the treatment. Two major designs prevail: the one-shot design 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 where we rely on a pre-test, a treatment and a post-test 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

72

obtained in the 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 this 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 post-test was taken a long time after the pre-test to avoid the likely disadvantages of the system – the pre-test may sensitize the subjects to specific aspects of the treatment, 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 she/he is studying. " In second language learning research, questionnaires are used mostly to collect data on phenomena which are not easily observed " .In the contest of this research, two questionnaires: one to the teachers of written expression and the other to learners who participate in the study were administered in order to investigate the area of vocabulary teaching /learning in context, and the effect of this strategy /technique on students' writing performance they were also administered to help In designing the pre-test and post-test and analyzing and explaining the results we will obtain

2.2. The 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 generalize to the results of the experiment ,is learners of 2nd year L.M.D students in Mentouri University, Faculty of Letters and languages, Department of foreign languages (English). the total number of the students during the University year 2008-2009 was ≈ 600 students scattered over 19 groups. they study written expression module for 3hours pre-week devided in two sections, 1H30mn for each.

2.3. The sample

A sample is a relativity small group selected from a population. This group is supposed to be representative of the target population. When developing an experimental research within the human and social sciences, we generally take a sample of the population to which we wish to generalize the finding of the study.The sample of the present research consist of 42 students who belong to different groups since the sample was chosen randomly. The size of the sample population could have been enlarged in order to be more representative ; however, the existing conditions were not fit. We started our research work at the second semester of the university year 2008-2009. We administered the pre-test and the post-test at nearly the end of the year where it was not possible to gather all the students. In normal situation the sample consists of 120 students whereas for the above mentioned reason only 42 students were present. They took the pre-test and the post-test (02 students were absent the day of the post-test for non justifiable reasons).

3. The teachers' Questionnaire

The administration of the questionnaires and their collection was held from hand to hand.25 questionnaires were given to teachers of written expression in Constantine Mentouri University,

department of English and were collected two days later.20 questionnaires were given back: the teachers, who did not return 5 questionnaires, were absent the day of the collection of the questionnaires 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 qualification and experience, teaching vocabulary, dealing with unknown words and check vocabulary learning. In the introduction, we explained to the teachers the aim of this questionnaire: to investigate how teachers of written expression proceed while teaching vocabulary. 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 9 questions devided into four sections:

Section one: teaching qualification and experience (Q1→Q3)

It aimed at collecting information about the respondents' teaching qualification and experience, and the different levels they teach.

Section two: teaching vocabulary (Q4→Q5)

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

Section three: dealing with unknown words (Q6→Q9)

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

Section four: Check vocabulary learning (Q10→Q12)

It inquires about the check of students' vocabulary learning and which activities the teacher relies on to achieve this aim.

3.2. Analysis and interpretation of the questionnaires

Section one: Teaching qualification and experience

Degree: 1 – what degree do you have?

Degree	Number of teachers
B.A	6
M/A Magister	12
Doctorate	2
Total	20

Table 1: teachers' degree

Nearly, the majority of the teachers have Magister (12), six teachers have B.A and only two have doctorate. this indicate that there is no big significant difference between teachers' qualifications.

2 – How many years have you been teaching written expression?……..years.

Number of years	Number of teachers
1	4
2	4
3	4
4	3
7	1
9	1
22	1
27	1
28	1
Total	20

Table 2: Teaching Experience

The average teaching experience of the teachers is approximately 4 years. the longest teaching experience is of 28 years, and the shortest is of 1 year. This indicates that teachers belong to different generations, and thus have most probably used different types of approaches to teach vocabulary.

3 – What level(s) have you been teaching ?

1st ☐

2nd ☐

3rd ☐ year(s).

Levels	Number of teachers
1st	3
2nd	6
$1^{st} + 2^{nd}$	6
$2^{nd} + 3^{rd}$	1
$1^{st} + 2^{nd}$	2
$1^{st} + 2^{nd} + 3^{rd}$	2
Total	20

Table 3: Teaching Experience of Written Expression Teachers By Level.

Eleven teachers have taught more than one level: six taught 1st and 2nd levels, one taught 2nd and 3rd levels, two 1st and 3rd levels and two taught the three levels (1st, 2nd and 3rd) the others (9) have taught only one level: 6 taught 2nd year and 3 taught 1st year. No teacher taught the 3rd year only. This indicates that generally, the same teachers are in charge of the same levels.

Section Two: teaching vocabulary

4 – Do you present new words in every lesson?

- Yes ☐

- No ☐

	N	%
Yes	13	65
No	07	35
Total	20	100

Table 4: Rate of Teachers Who Present New Words In Every Lesson.

Figure 03: Rate of Teachers Who Present New Words in Every Lesson

65% of 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

5 – When you teach new words do you use:

a- Translation □

b- Definition □

c- Word in context □

d- Synonyms /opposites □

Techniques used to teach new words		N	%
C		1	05
c+d		9	45
b+d		2	10
a+d		1	05
b+c+d		4	20
a+b+c+d		3	15
Total		20	100
Other	Gestures/mimes	02	
	Concrete objects	02	
	dictionary	01	

Table 05: Techniques Used to Teach New Words

It appears from table05 that the most used techniques are "d" (giving synonyms and opposites) 19 teachers used it (09"c+d", 04 "b+c+d", 03 "a+b+c+d", 02"b+d", 01" a+d") and putting words in context "c" used by 17 teachers (09 "c+d", 04"b+c+d", 03"a+b+c+d", 01 "c"). We think that these two techniques make the learners memorize the new words easily and help recalling them at any moment. Nine teachers use definitions. This can be explained by the fact that it is difficult for the learners to memorize or write dawn a definition since most of the time the latter necessitates the use of t other unknown words. Only four teachers opted for translation. This implies that teachers think that since they are teaching a foreign language (FL), The use of the L1 (mother langue) must be prohibited. 5teachers mentioned other techniques they use when presenting new words. 02 use concrete objects; two teachers explain words using gestures or mimes; 01 teacher stated that s/he gives the opportunity to his/her learners to look words up in the dictionary.

Section three: Dealing with unknown words

6 – Do you explain all the unknown words in a text?

Yes ☐

No ☐

	N	%
Yes	06	30
No	14	70
Total	20	100

Table 6: Rate of Teachers who Explain all the Unknown Words in a Text.
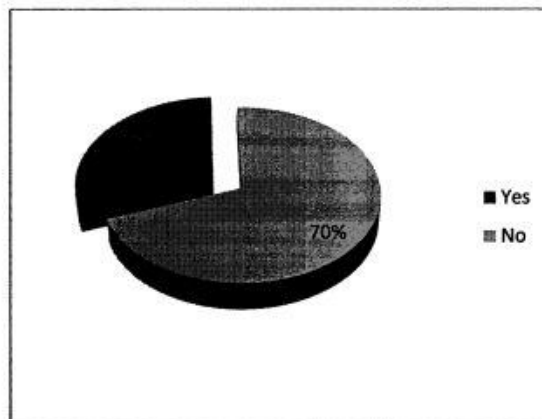
Figure 4: Rate of Teachers Who Explain All the Unknown Words in a Text.

The majority of the teachers (70%) 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.

7 – If "yes", do you do it:

a-   Before reading   ☐

b-   During reading   ☐

c-   After reading   ☐

Moment of explanation	N	%
a	1	16.66
b	3	50
C	1	16.66
b+c	1	16.66
Total	20	100

Table 4: **Rate of Teachers Who Explain Words Before, During and After Reading a Text.**
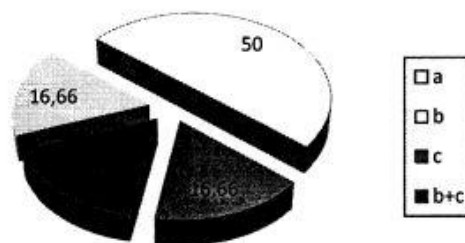
Figure 5: Rate of Teachers who Explain words Before, During and After Reading a Text

Option "b" (during reading) recorded 4 answers (03 during reading + 01 during reading and after reading). Option "a" (before reading) recorded 01 answer. Option "c" (After reading recorded) 02 answers (01 after reading + 01 during reading and after reading). So the most common answer given by teachers is "during reading" followed by "after reading".

81

8 – When the learners encounter unknown words, do they:

a- Ignore them ☐

b- Ask a peer ☐

c- Ask you ☐

d- Look them up in a dictionary ☐

Options	N	%
a	01	05
c	02	10
d	01	05
a+b	03	15
c+d	05	25
b+d	02	10
a+b+c	02	10
b+c+d	04	20
Total	20	100

Table 8: What The Learners Do When they Encounter Unknown Words

Option "c" (ask you) recorded the highest number of answers 13(05"c+d"04"b+c+d" 02 "a+b+c" 02 "c").Option "d"(look them up in a dictionary) comes second with 12 answers (05 "c+d" 04 "b+c+d" 02 "b+d" 01 "d"). Option "b" (ask a peer) recorded 11 answers (04 "b+c+d" 03"a+b" 02 "a+b+c" 02 "b+d"). Option "a" (ignor them) recorded 06 answers (03 "a+b" 02 "a+b+c" 01 "a"). Therefore, the learners most of the time ask their teachers or look up in the dictionary the meaning of an unknown word. They ask a peer about the meaning of the unknown word more than ignore it.

9 – 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 ☐

Options		N	%
b		01	05
b+c		03	15
b+d		01	05
C+d		04	20
A+b+c		02	10
b+c+d		06	30
A+b+c+d		01	05
a+b+c+d+e		02	10
Total		20	100
other	Gestures/mimes	01	
	Ask to use a dictionary	01	
	Give an example	02	

Table 9: What Teachers Do If Learners Ask The Meaning Of Words In Class

The teachers demonstrated that they have a preference to put words in context ("c"). This option was opted for by 18 teachers (06 "b+c+d", 04 "c+d", 03 "b+c", 02 " a+b+c+d+e",02 "a+b+c" ,01"a+b+c+d").Option "b" (give a definition) recorded 16 answers (06 "b+c+d" 03"b+c", 02 "a+b+c", 02 "a+b+c+d+e", 01"a+b+c+d",01 "b+d",01 "b"). The option "d" (give a synonym/ opposites) comes third with 14 answers (06 "b+c+d", 04 "c+d", 02 "a+b+c+d+e", 01"a+b+c+d",01 "b+d") .Option "a" (give a translation) and "e" (show a picture) did not get the

same high number of answers. they get 05 and 02 respectively. we think, this is, because translation is avoided by teachers and showing a picture is much more used in the elementary level rather than at the university. Other techniques were proposed: the use of gestures and mimes "01", "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 materials.

Section four: Check vocabulary learning

10 – Do you check students' vocabulary learning?

- Yes ☐
- No ☐

	N	%
Yes	14	70
No	06	30
Total	20	100

Table 10: Rate of Teachers Who Check Student's Vocabulary Learning.
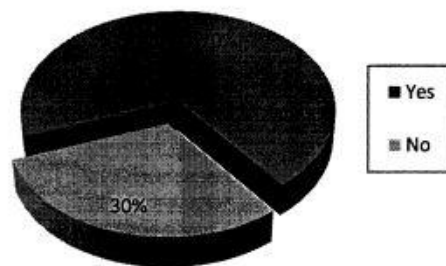
Figure 6: Rate of Teachers Who Check Student's Vocabulary Learning

The vast majority of teachers (70%) affirm that they check their students' vocabulary learning; whereas 30% of the remaining teachers do not.

11 – If "yes ", how often do you check it?

    a- Always   ☐

    b- Often   ☐

    c- Sometimes   ☐

    d- Rarely   ☐

Times	Always	Often	sometimes	rarely	Total
N	01	05	07	01	14
%	7.15	35.70	50	7.15	100

Table 11: Rate of Times Teachers Check Students' Vocabulary Learning.
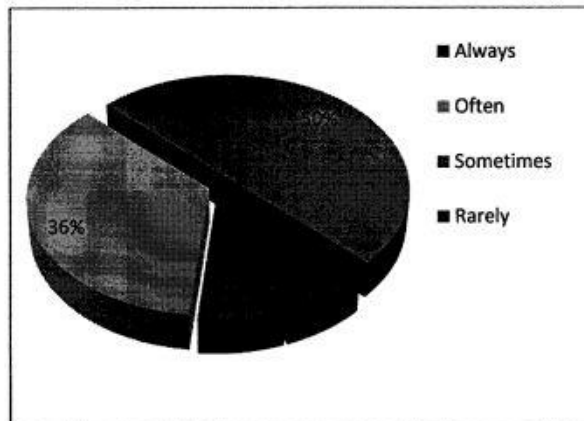
Figure 7: Rate of Times Teachers Check Students' Vocabulary learning

85

The results show that teachers'check of vocabulary learning is not an occasional one: 50% of the teachers sometimes check it, and 35.70% do it often. Except one teacher is a regular user of this technique.

12 – Which techniques/ activities do you rely on to check vocabulary learning?

a- Composition ☐

b- Guided writing ☐

c- Rewriting the full sentences ☐

d- Matching items with definition / synonyms ☐

e- Fill in the gaps ☐

f-

techniques/ activities	N	%
a	05	25
a+b	06	30
a+c	01	05
a+e	03	15
b+c	02	10
a+b+c	01	05
a+b+d+e	01	05
No answer	01	05
Total	20	100

Table 12: Techniques Used by Teachers to Check Vocabulary Learning

As it can be seen in table 12, the most frequently used technique is composition 17 teachers use it (06"a+b", 05 "a", 03 "a+e", 01"a+c", 01"a+b+c", 01 "a+b+d+e") Technique "b" (guided writing) comes second with 10 answers (06 "a+b",02 "b+c", 01"a+b+c", 01

"a+b+d+e").Techniques "c" (Rewriting full sentences) and "e" (Fill in the gaps) are not highly used by teachers. These techniques were opted for by 04 teachers. Technique "d " (Matching items with definition / synonyms) received the lowest answer, only one teacher use it. Therefore, teachers often use composition and guided writing to check the degree to which vocabulary has been learned by their students.

For further suggestion for teaching vocabulary, 05 teachers wrote that, we need to convince students to read a lot since it is the most effective method to learn vocabulary, two others emphasized on the use of authentic texts for presenting (teaching) vocabulary.

3.3 Summary of finding

Through the analysis and the 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 written expression. The use of the context as a teaching material to present new words or explain unknown words for students has proved to be applied. The results obtained in the section about teaching vocabulary and dealing with unknown words show the importance given by teachers to teach vocabulary using different techniques of presentation and explanation. Thus, we noticed that there was some 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. As what concerns what techniques teachers use to check students' vocabulary learning, teachers showed their frequent use of composition and guided writing.

4. The learners' Questionnaire

The learners' questionnaire was handed in at nearly the end of the second semester of the university year 2008-2009 .Only 23 students were present since it was nearly the end of the year and we did not start early doing our research work. The questionnaire was finished in class and

collected immediately. The aim of this questionnaire was not mentioned explicitly in order not to bias the research. What was mentioned is only that this questionnaire will help in the preparation of a research work, it was also mentioned that they do not hesitate to ask any question 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 students' age and gender, their strategies in learning vocabulary, their behaviours toward the use of context as a vocabulary input, and their ability to recall the leaned vocabulary from different strategies to improve their writing performance. The students were requested to answer the questionnaire by ticking the appropriate box and making full statements whenever required. the questionnaire (see appendix II) consists of 14 questions devided into two sections:

Section one: About the students (1→2)

This section is about the learners' age and gender.

Section two: Learning vocabulary (Q3→Q4)

In this section, we investigate what the learners do when they encounter an unknown word ; the type of dictionary they use if they do, the use of notebook if they keep one, and what they prefer as an answer to explain a word. In addition, we investigate the recall ability of the learned vocabulary, guessing meaning from context, and the students' use of vocabulary in their writing performance.

4.2. Analysis and interpretation of the questionnaire

Section one: About the students

1 -Age:

Age	N
19	3
20	5
21	1
22	6
23	3
24	1
25	/
26	2
27	2
Total	23

Table 13: Learners'Age

Nearly all the students are between the age of 19 and 23. The youngest student has 19 years old and the eldest is 27. This implies that their cognitive strategies to learn and use vocabulary are different.

2- Gender: Male   ☐   female   ☐

Gender	N
Male	04
Female	19
Total	23

Table 14: Students' Gender

4.2. Analysis and interpretation of the questionnaire

Section one: About the students

1 -Age:

Age	N
19	3
20	5
21	1
22	6
23	3
24	1
25	/
26	2
27	2
Total	23

Table 13: Learners'Age

Nearly all the students are between the age of 19 and 23. The youngest student has 19 years old and the eldest is 27. This implies that their cognitive strategies to learn and use vocabulary are different.

2- Gender: Male   ☐   female   ☐

Gender	N
Male	04
Female	19
Total	23

Table 14: Students' Gender

89

It is clear from the table that the highest majority of students are female. In the field of foreign languages (e.g. English) the percentage of girls is higher than boys which is not the case in the scientific fields.

Section two: learning vocabulary

3 – When you encounter an unknown word while reading do you:

a- Read again to guess the meaning from the context ☐

b- Ask the teacher about its meaning ☐

c- Ask a peer ☐

d- Look it up in the dictionary ☐

e- Ignore it ☐

Options	N	%
a	6	26.07
d	9	39.13
e	1	4.35
a+b	1	4.35
a+c	1	4.35
a+d	1	4.35
b+d	2	8.70
a+b+d	2	8.70
Total	23	100

Table 15: Rate of What the Learners do When Encountering New Words While Reading

These results demonstrate that in most cases the learners either have recourse to the dictionary: 14/23 learners (d: 39.13%, b+d: 8.70% ; a+b+d 8.70%, a+d: 4.35%)or to the context

90

by reading again to guess the meaning (a: 26.07%, a+b+d: 8.70%, a+b:4.35%, a+c: 4.35%, a+d:4.35%).

Learners showed low score for option "b" (asking a teacher) (a+b+d: 8.70%, b+d:8.70%, a+b: 4.35%). However, very few students (2) said that they ignore an unknown word while reading (e:4.35%) or ask a peer as a mutual help (a+c: 4.35%).

4 – If you use a dictionary, is it:

- An English dictionary   ☐

- An English –Arabic dictionary   ☐

- An English – French dictionary   ☐

Options	N	%
a	15	65.20
b	4	17.40
c	2	8.70
a+b	2	8.70
Total	23	100

Table 16: Rate of Types of Dictionaries Learners' Use

This shows that when the learners use a dictionary, it is rather an English–English dictionary (a: 65.20%, a+b: 8.70%) this is due to their ability to learn English and the dictionary is the most available source. Others rely on English –Arabic dictionary (b ; 17.40%, a+b:8.70%). This is because of the influence of the mother tongue. We note that only 8.70% of the students (c: 8.70%) said they use an English-French dictionary. this is explained by the learners level of proficiency at French.

91

5 – When you come across a new vocabulary item do you use a note book?

- - Yes ☐

- - No ☐

	N	%
Yes	15	65.22
No	08	34.78
Total	23	100

Table 17: Rate of Learners Who Use a Notebook.

Figure 8: Rate of Learners Who Use a Notebook

Most learners have affirmed that they have recource to the use of a notebook (65.22%).

6 – If "yes" is it:

a- Always ☐

b- sometimes ☐

c- seldom ☐

d- rarely ☐

options	N	%
a	04	26.66
b	10	66.68
C	01	6.66
Total	15	100

Table 18: Rate of Times Learners Use a Notebook.
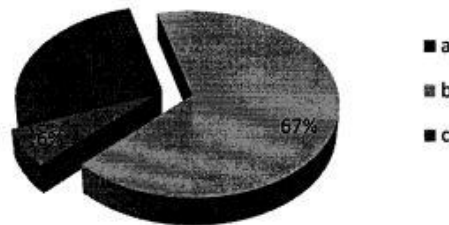
Figure 09: Rate of Times Learners Use a Notebook

This shows that the use of the notebook is not an occasional one: 66.68% of the learners

sometimes use it, and 36.66% always use it.

7 – Do you use a notebook to:

a- write the meaning in your mother tonngue / or French   ☐

b- write the meaning in English using synonym / opposites ☐

c- put it in a sentence of your own   ☐

Options	N	%
a	7	30.34
b	9	39.14
c	3	13.04
a+b	3	13.04
b+c	1	4.35
Total	23	100

Table 19: Rate of What Learners do in a Notebook.

These answers demonstrate that using synonyms and opposites: 56.53% (b: 39.14%, a+b: 13.04%, b+c: 4.35%) and translation: 43.47% (a: 30.43%, a+b: 13.04%) are the most preferred techniques by the learners.

8 – 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 ☐

Options	N	%
a	5	21.73
b	3	13.04
c	2	8.70
d	7	30.43
a+d	2	8.70
c+d	4	17.40
Total	23	100

Table20: 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: 56.53% (d: 30.43%, c+d: 17.40%, a+d: 8.70%). This is mainly because the learners are most of the time in a situation of looking for synonyms or opposites in the reading comprehension of texts in class or in their controls. The second preferred answer is getting a translation: 30.43% (a: 21.73%, a+d:8.70%) rather than a word in context: 26.10% (c+d: 17.40%, c: 8.70%), which is an effective technique,yet not all students use it, or to a lesser degree a definition: 13.04% (b: 13.04) that are considered as difficult to grasp.

9 – When you rely on dictionary each time you encounter a new word, do you recall it in new context:

     a- Easily   ☐

     b- Some how Easily   ☐

     c- Hard   ☐

Options	N	%
a	1	4.35
b	15	65.21
c	7	30.44
Total	23	100

Table 21: Rate of How Easy Learners Recall the Learned Vocabulary From Dictionary in New Context

The results obtained show that the process of recalling items (words) learned through the use of dictionary is some how easy for 65.21% of the students and 30.44% find it hard. It seems to imply that the use of dictionary each time limits the recall ability of vocabulary in new contexts.

10 – Have you ever tried to infer the meaning of new words form their context?

- Yes ☐
- No ☐

	N	%
Yes	21	91.30
No	02	8.70
Total	23	100

Table 21: Rate of Learners Who have Tried to Infer the Meaning of New Words Form Context.

Figure 10: Rate of Learners Who have Tried to Infer the Meaning of New Words Form Context.

Almost all the learners (91.30%) affirm that they have tried to infer the meaning of new word from context. This high percentage means that this strategy is not avoided by students.

11 – If "yes" is it because it will be:

a- Very easy to learn ☐

b- Easy to learn ☐

c- Some how easy to learn ☐

d- Very difficult to learn ☐

Options	N	%
a	3	14.28
b	12	57.15
c	6	28.57
Total	21	100

Table 22: Rate of Easiness to Learn New Words Through Inference From Context.

97

Option "b" (easy to learn) recorded the highest percentage of answers (57.15%), comes second with 28.57% option "c" (some how easy to learn). Whereas option "a" very easy to learn comes third but with a considerable percentage 14.28%. This shows that when the learners infer the meaning of new words from context, learning vocabulary become easier.In other words, this strategy helps students learn vocabulary.

12 – Which techniques / activities do you prefer to check your vocabulary learning?

a- Composition   ☐

b- Guided writing   ☐

c- Rewriting full sentences   ☐

d- Matching items with definition / synonyms   ☐

e- Fill in the gaps   ☐

techniques/ activities	N	%
a	6	26.08
d	3	13.04
e	5	21.75
a+e	6	26.08
d+e	1	8.70
a+c	2	4.35
Total	23	100

Table 23: Techniques Preferred by Students to Check Their Vocabulary Learning

We can notice that the two techniques the learners prefer are fill in the gaps: 56.53% (a+e": 26.08%, "e"21.75%, d+e: 8.70%) and composition 56.51% (a: 26.08%, a+e: 26.08%, a+c: 4.35%).This is mainly because learners are most of the time in a situation of looking for a context where they can check the vocabulary learned rather than listening.

13 – Which learning strategy helps you better improve your writing performance?

a- translation   ☐

b- Look up words in a dictionary   ☐

c- Infer the meaning from context   ☐

d- synonym / opposite   ☐

Options	N	%
a	4	17.39
b	5	21.73
c	10	43.48
d	1	4.35
a+b	1	4.35
c+d	2	8.70
Total	23	100

Table24: Rate of Learning Strategies That Help Learners Improve Their

Writing Performance

From table 24 that option "c" (infer the meaning from context) is the most preferred technique by learners: 52.18% (c: 43.48%, c+d: 8.70%). This seems to imply that context gives a view on how the word is used so learners can get both the meaning and how the word is used, and reproduce it in their writing production successfully.

The second preferred answer is look up words in a dictionary: 26.08% (b: 21.73%, a+b:4.35%) rather than translation: 21.74% (a: 17.39%, a +b: 4.35%) or to a lesser degree giving synonyms and opposites 13.05% (c+d: 8.70%,d: 4.35%) that are considered as non effective for students to improve their writing performance.

14 – How often do you re-use the learned words in writing?

Source of learning vocabulary	Frequency of vocabulary use in writing		
	Always	Sometimes	Never
Dictionary			
Context			
Translation			

	Always	Sometimes	Never	Total
Dictionary	11	12	/	23
Context	5	17	1	23
Translation	3	15	5	23

Table 25: Frequency of Vocabulary Use in Writing

It appears from table 25 that the most re- used words in writing are those learned from dictionary and context. This implies that these two techniques help student re-used what they have learned in their writing but with certain differences.

4.3. Summary of finding

The analysis and the interpretation of the questionnaire make us say that learners are interested in inferring word meaning from context, even if it is not a well mastered strategy.As what concerns what they do when encountering unknown words, the learners showed their preferences to use English-English dictionary and guessing from context – the former is of prior dependence – on the other hand, students prefer their teachers to explain the meaning of new words by giving synonyms or opposites. 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. As far as writing performance is concerned, learners affirmed that they prefer composition and fill in the gaps as two writing tasks to recall words they have learned either from dictionary or guessing from context. The results obtained from the two questionnaires were of great contribution in the design of the test.

5. The pedagogical instruments

5.1. Texts

Vocabulary used to be offered to learners in the form of lists .Nowadays, the tendency is to present vocabulary in texts. For vocabulary building purposes, texts – whether spoken or written – have enormous advantages over learning words from lists. For a start, the fact that words are in context increases the chances of learners appreciating not only their meaning but

their typical environments, such as their associated collocations or grammatical structure. Moreover, it is likely that the text will display topically connected sets of words (or lexical fields) Evidence suggests that words loosely connected by topic may be easier to learn than more tightly connected lexical sets.

Short texts are ideal for classroom use, since they can be subjected to intensive grammatical and lexical study, without over taxing learners' attention or memory, as my be the case with longer texts. Learning to cope with short texts is also good preparation for independent reading and listening; including dealing with longer texts moreover short texts provide useful models for student production, in the form of speaking and writing.

According to Thornbury (2002:53), a characteristic feature of cohesive texts is that they are threaded through with words that relate to the same topic-what are sometimes called lexical chains. This is even more likely if the text is authentic – that is ,if it has not been especially written or doctored for the language classroom.

Different kinds of texts are likely to display different lexical features. Academic writing, for example, is noted for having a higher proportion of nouns over verbs than non-academic texts. Not only that, but the nouns are often stacked together with adjectives or nouns (or both) to from relatively long sequences. On the other hand, less formal kinds of texts also have their own lexical characteristics. Horoscopes in magazines, for example, are typically rich in idiomatic language, including phrasal verbs.

Finally, short literary texts offer multiple possibilities for vocabulary development. It goes without saying that writers and poets choose their words carefully, not only for their meanings but for their formal features as well. (Someone once defined poetry as "the right words in the right order"). Seeing how writers put words to use for their expressive function can only help enrich the network of word associations for the learner.

5.2. Dictionary use

For a long time the use of dictionaries in class was discouraged, generally on the grounds that dependence on a dictionary might inhibit the development of more useful skills, such as guessing from context. Also, it was argued that if the dictionary is a bilingual one, learners may over-rely on translation, at the expense of developing a separate L2 lexicon. Finally, indiscriminate dictionary use often results in the kind of errors where the wrong word has been selected for the meaning intended.

5.3. Types of tests for vocabulary learning in context

Vocabulary tests can be divided into tests of: recognition and production (Thornbury 2002: 93-102).

There are many different kinds of tasks that teachers can set learners in order to help move words into long-term memory. Some of these tasks will require more brain work than others. That is to say, they will be more cognitively demanding. Tasks in which learners make decisions about words are devided by Thornbury (ibid) into the following types, roughly arranged in an order from least cognitively demanding to most demanding:

- Identifying
- Selecting
- Matching
- Sorting
- Ranking and sequencing

- Identifying words simply means finding them where they may otherwise be "hidden", such as in texts. Selecting tasks are cognitively more complex than identification tasks, since they involve both recognizing words and making choices amongst them. This may take the form of choosing the "odd one out". A matching task involves first recognizing words and then

pairing them with -for instance- a visual representation, a translation, a synonym, an antonym, a definition, or collocates. Shorting activities require learners to sort words into different categories. The category can be given, or guessed.

Finally, ranking and sequencing activities require learners to put the words into some kind of order. This may involve arranging the words on a cline: for example, adverbs of frequency (always, sometimes, never, occasionally, often, etc).

Production tasks

The decision – making tasks we have been looking at are principally receptive: learners make judgments about words, but do not necessary produce them. However, tasks that are productive from the outset are those in which the learners are required to incorporate the newly studied words into some kind of speaking or writing activity. These can be classified as being of two main types:

- Completion – of sentences and texts
- Creation of sentences and texts

Thornbury states that sentence and text completion tasks are what are more generally known as gape-fills. They are usually writing tasks and they are often used in tests as they are easy to design and mark. They have many different formats, but a basic distinction can be made between open and closed gap-fills. The open type is one when the learner fills the gaps by drawing on their mental lexicon. In a closed gap –fill, on the other hand, the words are provided, in the form of a list at the beginning of the exercise, for example .It is simply a matter of deciding which word goes in which gap .In completion tasks, the context is provided, and it is simply a matter of slotting the right word in. Sentence and text creation tasks, however, require learners to create the contexts for given words. Here are some typical tasks instructions:

- Use each of these words to make a sentence which clearly shows the meaning of the word.

- Choose six words from the list and write a sentence using each one.

- Use each of these words to write a true sentence about yourself for someone you know.

- Write a short narrative text which includes at least five words from the list.

In the present research, we relied on two authentic texts from " an integrated course for advanced students " (see appendix III and IV) because the texts in this book have been fond suitable for teachers to teach vocabulary in authentic context and for students who wish to study on their own. The passages in this book are multi – purpose texts. Each passage is used to train the students in the following: reading silently, understanding ; vocabulary ; and composition. In order words passages in this book aims at training the students' three skills: understanding, reading and writing. The passages provided by this book are rich in terms of unknown vocabulary words and are examples of well structured English. In addition, they all discuss interesting topics for students. The questions used with the passages are almost all about vocabulary and writing a composition .For vocabulary questions students are required to explain the meaning of difficult words as they are used in each passage the question about the composition contain topic related to the previously mentioned passage or a different topic with clues related to the passage to help students use the learned vocabulary in their writing.

6. The test

To collect data about the learners' contextual vocabulary learning and their writing performance, a test was administered .The type of the test opted for is pre-test + post-test. Thus, a pre-test and post-test were held at a given interval (3 weeks). The first took place before the

learners were given some instruction and the second was after. 42 students participated in the per-test (8 males and 34 female) and 40 students (8 boys and 32 girls) took part in the post –test. So the sample is made up of 40 learners. These two tests were meant to measure the degree of the impact of context on the students' learning of some words which the learners of written expression agree that most of them are not known to their students.

6.1. Description of the pre-test

The pre-test contains a passage (see appendix III) and two questions. The questions 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 in addition to the way of checking vocabulary by the teachers and the preferred tasks to do so(see teachers' questionnaire and learners' questionnaire).The 1st question is about vocabulary to check the students ability to deduce the meaning of words from a context and to explain them by means of other words and phrases. After this exercise students are asked to write a composition on a topic which enables students to use the learned words. The aim of this production task is to see to what extent learners can create a context and use the vocabulary learned above.

It was explained to them that they are not in a testing session but in learning / teaching one.

6.2. Analysis and interpretation of the test (pre-test)

Scores obtained in the pre-test were analyzed to gain an idea or determine whether the learners have been able to deduce the appropriate meaning of the words from the context (text) and to check whether they have used the learned words in their writing (composition). In other words, the results will give an idea about their level in learning vocabulary through the guessing strategy and to what extent they can re-use those words in their composition.

I- vocabulary

Explain the meaning of the following words as they are used in the text:

1- Prevent

Word	Answer	Per-test	
		N	%
prevent	Avoid	25	59.52
	Stop	13	30.95
	Refuse	04	9.53
	Total	42	100

Table 26: Answers to the Word "Prevent"

The majority of the learners have explained the meaning of the word "prevent" by "avoid" (59.52%) . It would appear that the context were this word appears is not clear to certain extent for those students which is not the case for 30.95 of the students who deduce the appropriate meaning of the word from its context. We note that 9.53% appropriate meaning of "prevent".

2-Reliance

word	Answer	N	%
reliance	Trust	18	42.85
	Confidence	20	47.62
	dependence	04	9.53
	Total	42	100

Table 27: Answers to the Word "Reliance"

The results are surprising, the majority of the students' answers for the word " reliance" is either "confidence" (47.62%) or "trust" (42.85%) where as only 4 students (9.53%) gave the appropriate meaning of the word "reliance" in this context which is "dependence" this is mainly because of their proficiency level and the mastery of the strategy. The word "reliance" is a rather usual word. Most students associate it with trusting someone or have confidence on someone, this is may be the reason for giving such answers.

3-Puzzles

word	answer	N	%
Puzzles	problems	20	47.62
	Difficult problems	22	52.38
	total	42	100

Table28: Answers to the Word "Puzzles"

The results here strikingly change from the previous ones. The majority of the students (52.38%) explain "puzzles" as difficult problems" which is more closer to the appropriate meaning than "problems" only. It shows that at least the learners (47.62%) who explained the word "puzzles" as "problems" have identified that the word refers to a problems, no mater how difficult it is. It would seem that the context where this word appears has helped them to guess the meaning and to reach these results.

4-Particular

word	answer	N	%
particular	special	42	100
	total	42	100

Table29: Answer to the Word "Particular"

All the students gave a correct explanation for the word "particular" . This is mainly because this word has been previously learned effectively, when students encountered in this context they recall its meaning easily.

5-Occupations

word	answer	N	%
	jobs	15	35.72
occupations	professions	17	40.48
	works	10	23.80
	total	42	100

Table 30: Answers to the Word "Occupations"

As it can be seen in table 30 the most suggested answers are "profession" and "jobs" without the ignorance of "works" (23.80%) which is an acceptable explanation. However, still " professions" considered as the nearest explanation for the word occupation in this context.

6-Counteract

word	Answer	N	%
	Act against to reduce the effect	17	40.47
counteract	solve	3	7.14
	No answer	22	52.39
	total	42	100

Table31: Answers to the Word "Counteract"

More than half of the learners (52.39%) have given no answers. This seems to imply that those learners are dependent on the use of the dictionary. However 17 students (40.47%) have deduce the meaning of "counteract" and give an acceptable answer (act against and reduce the effect of something).Three students who represent (17.14%) of the sample gave a very far explanation from the expected one this could be because of their low proficiency level.

7-Reason

word	answer	N	%
	Cause	07	16.68
Reason	From an opinion	04	9.52
	Understand	31	73.80
	total	42	100

Table 32: Answer to the Word Reason

The highest majority of the students (73.80%) succeed in guessing the meaning of "reason" from the text and give a right answer "understand". We note that among the students' answers 7 students explain the meaning of reason as "cause". This result leads to one explanation that those students did not infer the meaning from the context but rather rely on the graphical assimilation between the verb "reason" which means (understand in this context) and the noun "a reason" which means" a cause". Others 9.52% explained " reason" as " form an opinion". In fact this meaning is one of the several meanings the verb " to reason" holds but in this context, they can not interchangeable.

8-Judge

word	answer	N	%
	Criticize (criticism)	18	42.85
Judge	Comment	08	38.09
	Form an opinion	16	26.19
	total	42	100

Table 33: Answer to the Word "Judge "

The answer expected for the word "judge" in this context is "form an opinion". In this situation, 13 students representing 30.95% answered "criticize" instead of "form an opinion" which is the right answer. The second answer that was given by 16 students representing (26.19%) is the acceptable one. finally, 8 other students, the word judge for them in this context means comment which is not acceptable.

The total number of the two answers combined is 80.94%, this may explain the fact that only 16 students (26.19%) manage to guess the right answer, even if the two answers "comment" and "criticize" are incorporated meanings in judge but they are not suitable in this context.

Students do not take into account the syntactic relation noun /verb or rather do respond to syntactic clues because some of them use "criticism" (noun) to explain the word "judge" which is a verb in this context. This shows students lack of awareness about what they read.

The results obtained from the explanation of the eight words "prevent, reliance, puzzles, particular, occupations, counteract, reason, and judge" show that guessing word meaning from context is not really a well mastered strategy by students.

II-Composition

Using the words you learned in the previous activity, write a composition (not more than two paragraphs) explaining how do you behave when you face a problem in life, do you solve it by yourself or seek help / advice from someone else?

The following table shows the number of words using by the students in their composition.

Number of words	N	%
1 word	04	9.52
2 word	11	26.19
3 word	22	52.38
4 word	03	7.15
5 word	02	4.76
Total	42	100

Table 34: Number of Words Used by Learners in Their Composition.

112

The results obtained show that the majority of the students (52.38%) recall only 3 words and use them in their composition. 15 students re-use only 01-02 words. the highest number of words used is 05 words but unfortunately only 02 students used this number. Not far from this result 03 students representing (7.15%) used 04 words. The result obtained from "composition" were expected since learners do not master guessing word meaning from context, thus effective vocabulary learning was not achieved and it can not be re-used or transferred in new context.

The scores obtained in this test form a base line against which I will measure the effect of contextual vocabulary learning /teaching on the students' writing.

6.3 Description of the post-test

With the help of the written expression' teachers I chose an authentic and interesting text (see appendix IV) from which we picked up ten words we think they are interesting and unknown for learners. We have classified them per category as in following table.

Nouns	Verbs	Adjectives
Debtor	Drawing	Firm
Instructions	Lending	Overdrawn
Forgery	Debit	
Specimens	obey	

Table 35: List of Words Picked up from the text Per Category.

The sample which consists of 40 students (8 males and 32 female) was divided into two groups of 20. The two groups were taught vocabulary through different strategy for the same period of time ($4h30_{mns}$) i.e.3 sections $1h30_{mns}$ per-section. I gave the first group the authentic text (see appendix IV) where the above mentioned words used, and taught them how to deduce

word meaning from the context following Clarke and Nation's guessing strategy(see chapter one). The meaning of the ten words was deduced and learned by students following this strategy. However with the second group we relied only on dictionary. The ten words were written on the board and the meaning is checked from the dictionary only. After the meaning of the words have been learned,students were given a break of two weeks before the administration of the post-test. After this break, the learners or the two groups were given the same post –test. The test contain only one question where the learners were asked to write a composition.

Composition

You were in the bank and a gentleman seeks your help to withdraw an amount of money.

Write a composition of not more than three paragraphs in which you explain how would you help this gentleman.

The objective of this test is to determine the effect of vocabulary learned through the previous mentioned strategies on the students' writing performance. In other words, this test seek to determine if the independence variable (contextual vocabulary learning) has an effect on the students' writing performance.

The result obtained are interpreted in the table 36. The results obtained represent the number of words used by learners in their composition.

Students	Group 1 (x_1)	Group 2 (x_2)	X^2_1	X^2_2
S1	06	03	36	9
S2	09	03	81	9
S3	08	05	64	25
S4	07	04	49	16
S5	07	02	49	04
S6	05	06	25	36
S7	09	01	81	01
S8	04	02	16	04
S9	08	02	64	04
S10	05	05	25	05
S11	04	01	16	01
S12	06	02	36	04
S13	09	06	81	36
S14	07	05	49	25
S15	05	03	25	09
S16	08	02	81	04
S17	05	04	25	16
S18	03	03	09	09
S19	10	05	100	25
S20	03	01	09	01
Total N =20	$\overline{X_1} = 6.4$	$\overline{X_2} = 3.25$	$\sum X_1^2 = 904$	$\sum X_2^2 = 263$

Table 36: The Number of Words Used by Students Following Two Different Strategies in Their writing (composition).

6.4Interpretation and analysis of the results

The analysis of the results is done through the t- test for independent groups because it is the most powerful one. This test facilitate the measurement of the effect of the independent variable on the dependent one. T-test is based on the idea that " if the observed value of 't' (level of significance) is equal or greater than the critical value of 't' then we reject the null – hypothesis in favour of the alternative hypothesis, which means that the independent variable has an effect on that students performance "

The calculation

1stCalculation of the means:

$\overline{X} \rightarrow the\ mean$

115

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum x}{N} \quad / \text{ N: the number of the students per-group}$$

$$\bar{X}_1 = \frac{\sum X_1}{N_1} \qquad / N_1 = 20, \quad \sum X_1 = 128$$

$$= \frac{128}{20}$$

$$\boxed{\bar{X}_1 = 6.4^5}$$

$$\bar{X}_2 = \frac{\sum X_2}{N_2} \qquad / N_2 = 20, \quad \sum X_2 = 65$$

$$= \frac{65}{20}$$

$$\bar{X}_2 = 3.25$$

2nd calculation of the variances: S_1^2, S_2^2

- S_1^2: the variance of the first group

- S_2^2: the variance of second group

The formula is: $S^2 = \frac{\sum x^2}{N} - \bar{X}^2$

So:

$$S_1^2 = \frac{\sum X_1^2}{N_1} - \bar{X}_1^2$$

$$= \frac{904}{20} - (6.4)^2$$

$$\boxed{S_1^2 = 4.24}$$

$$S_2^2 = \frac{\sum X_2^2}{N_2} - \bar{X}_2^2$$

X_1: represent the number of words used by group one who learned vocabulary from context (contextual guess work strategy) in their writing performance.

X_2: represent the number of words used by students who relied on dictionary to get the meaning of words, in the learners writing performance.

$$= \frac{263}{20} - (3.25)^2$$

$$\boxed{S_2^2 = 2.59}$$

3rd calculation of the level of significance "t":

$$t\,(n_1 + n_2 - 2) = \frac{(\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2)\,\sqrt{(N_1 + N_2 - 2)(N_1 N_2)}}{\sqrt{(N_1 S_1^2 + N_2 S_2^2)(N_1 N_2)}}$$

$$t\,(38) = 5.24$$

4th calculation of the degree of freedom "df"

$$df = N_1 + N_2 + 2$$

$$df = 38$$

Using statistical tables for 38 degree of freedom the value of 't' required is (2.9). As the observed 't' (5.24) is greater than (2.9) then we confirm the alternative hypothesis which means that contextual vocabulary learning improve the students' writing performance. We can notice from table 36 that students in group 1 who learned vocabulary through guessing from context produce high number of words in their composition. The number of words used by the highest majority of students can be represented as follows:

Words 5 ≤students≤ 10 words

(how many words they used)

However, students in group two who learned vocabulary in isolation and relied on the dictionary to check the meaning, produce few words in their writing i.e. their compositions were poor in term of vocabulary. This implies that vocabulary learning through dictionary was not achieved so the transfer of the previously learned words is not effective. The number of words

used by learners, who learned vocabulary trough the use of dictionary, in their compositions can be represented as follows:

$$1 \leq studnts \leq 4$$

(how many words they use)

This experiment pre-test, guessing word meaning(group1), using a dictionary(group2), post-test reveals that learners could benefit from exposure to authentic texts (context) were new words are used and develop a certain amount of learning words they are not necessarily familiar with, thus, improve their writing performance.

6.5 Correlation of the questionnaires and test

This research investigation – the degree of impact of context on vocabulary learning and students' writing – was carried out to answer the statement of the problem: whether learning vocabulary in context helps learners improve their writing performance. In this context, the teachers' questionnaire has given important data about what techniques the teachers used to teach and present unknown vocabulary items showing their preference of composition and guided writing to check their learners' vocabulary acquisition. The learners' questionnaire also was of great help to know about the learners' strategies in learning vocabulary, what they do once they confront an unknown vocabulary item, It also helped to know about the learners preferences toward production tasks to recall the previously learned words. The two questionnaires gave a clear view about the techniques or strategies the learners preferred to use. One technique from the two – guessing from the context- has proved be the more effective means for learning vocabulary. The results of the test showed that the learners acquired more than half the words, they did not know, from contextual guess work and re-use them in their compositions, with different degrees of attainment. Likewise, they also confirmed the research hypothesis that such strategy referred to as contextual vocabulary learning contribute greatly to

118

the improvement of learners' writing performance. The experiment has demonstrated the need of the learners for authentic texts (context) which can be beneficial to them. Thus, the use of this kind of text in foreign language teaching /learning is a good means not only to learn vocabulary but also as a model to improve the learners' writing.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

The present research concerned with the impact of learning vocabulary in context on the students' writing performance has led us to conclude that this strategy called learning words' meaning in context is of great benefit in learning lexis and improving writing production. We ultimately suggest recommendations which will contribute to the improvement of the teaching / learning situation at the Foreign Language Department, University of Constantine, and hopefully if our research will be confirmed by other investigations in the area of vocabulary development and writing, to others departments of English as a Foreign Language in Algeria.

In the process of language learning, reading, vocabulary and writing are of major importance. It is obvious that no language acquisition can take place without knowledge of vocabulary of the language in question. In our review of the literature, we observed that an increasing interest in lexical matters seems to be fully justified by the evidence of the importance of lexis in the functioning of language.

The test be carried out had for ambition to shed light on students proficiency in the deduction of words' meaning from context and the ability to recall them in their compositions. Through the literature on vocabulary learning, researchers have investigate sensitivity to syntactic structure; they have shown that, rather than using the syntactic and semantic cues in a text to integrate the meaning of the individual words, poor comprehenders seem to treat each word separately and fail to identify its meaning. Looking up words in a dictionary, which we believe is one of the most important strategies used by our learners, was both confirmed by the results obtained in the pre-test and by the questionnaire; student acknowledged that they are often dependent on the dictionary to understand vocabulary. This will be a hindrance to learning

because words are decontextualized and learned in isolation so they are unlikely to be transfered to new situations.

The learners, subjects of the study, through the results obtained in the post-test confirmed the impact of learning vocabulary through inference from context, rather than dictionary reliance, on improving their writing production. Thus, they also confirmed the research hypothesis that learning vocabulary in context contributes to the improvement of learners' writing performance.

According to the published literature studied in our research, reading is given great importance and is taken into account in every foreign language teaching situation. In addition, researchers have claimed that reading is one of the best ways to improve vocabulary. Not only will reading help students better understand words and introduce them to new items, reading also helps learners to become better writers by exposure to well written prose. Indeed, the mastery of lexical and grammatical patterns; text organization and vocabulary will certainly result in the improvement of writing. If this is taken into account, it will obviously contribute to the improvement of students' level, and the learning / teaching situation prevailing.

As far as vocabulary instruction is concerned, teachers have a crucial role to play in motivating their students and accompanying them; they need to generate interest in the study thus creating a desire for learning. Teachers have to present new vocabulary items in an interesting authentic context to gain the learners attention and increase their ability to learn. As far as reading is concerned, teachers must help students to read different text at different rates ,for different purposes.They may also have to teach students to read critically. Another role assigned to the teacher is to create a reading habit in the students, keeping in mind that reading is often a preliminary activity to other language activities mainly writing.

Through our work, we tried to contribute to the improvement of the Foreign Language teaching / learning situation. Our research remains open to any further development that would deal with other areas of teaching vocabulary that we did not investigate.

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125

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Résumé

Dans le processus d'apprentissage d'une langue étrangère, le vocabulaire est d'une importance capitale. Il est évident que l'acquisition d'une langue ne peut avoir lieu sans la connaissance du vocabulaire de la langue en question.

Fournir des textes authentiques (contexte) pour l'enseignement du vocabulaire est l'un des moyens importants dans lesquels les enseignants, peuvent améliorer les performances de l'écrit des apprenants. Car les mots sont les plus importants outils de l'écrivain, Les spécialistes de l'expression écrite mentionnent que pour écrire efficacement, il est nécessaire d'avoir un vocabulaire adéquat.

Ce travail de recherche vise à évaluer l'importance d'enseigner, apprendre le vocabulaire en contexte – comme une entrée compréhensible – et comment cela peut être un moyen utile pour améliorer les performances de l'écrit des apprenants d'une langue étrangère, en l'occurrence l'Anglais.

Afin de réaliser ce but, on s'est base 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 de l'expression écrite.

Le premier avait pour fin l'investigation des stratégies de l'apprentissage du vocabulaire utilisé par les apprenants et la possibilité de réemployer les mots précédemment appris dans leurs taches de l'écrit. Le second, destiné aux enseignants, cherchait à collecter des informations sur les techniques qu'ils se fient pour vérifier l'apprentissage du vocabulaire de leurs apprenants. Le test élaboré sur la base des stratégies différentes pour en apprendre dix mots choisis pour voir s'ils avaient un effet sur leur performance de l'écrit. Les résultats obtenus ont confirmé l'hypothèse et montré que les apprenants - sujets de cette étude – ont appris presque tous les mots à travers deviner à partir du contexte qu'a conduit à l'amélioration de leur production écrite.

Sur la base des résultats obtenus, certaines implications pédagogiques d'apprendre du vocabulaire en vue d'améliorer leurs compétences à l'écrit et d'autres pour aider les enseignants dans leur taches de développer la capacité de leurs étudiants.

ملخــص

لا يستطيع المرء أن يبالغ في وصف مدى قوة الكلمات. ربما تكون أعظم الوسائل التي نستطيع إن نزود بها الطلبة، ليس في إطار تكوينهم فحسب وإنما بصفة اعم في حياتهم، إذ أنها حوصلة لغوية كبيرة وثرية. يقدم هذا البحث تقريرا عن أهمية المفردات لتحسين الكتابة. توفير النصوص الأصلية (السياق) لتدريس المفردات هي واحدة من السبل الهامة التي تمكن الأساتذة من تحسين أداء صلا بهمالكتابي – لأن الكلمات هي أهم الأدوات التي يعتمد عليها الكتاب، فان الكتابة على نحو فعال تتوقف على وجود مفردات كافية.

يهدف هذا البحث إلى تقويم مدى أهمية تدريس / تعلم المفردات في سياق لغوي، وكيف يمكن أن يكون وسيلة مفيدة لتحسين الأداء الكتابي للطلاب في قسم اللغات الأجنبية (قسم الإنجليزية) للأجل تحقيق هذا الغرض تم الاعتماد على وسيلتين للبحث هما الاستبيان والاختبار حيث تم تقديم استبيانين كان الأول خاصا بالطلبة بينما خص الثاني للأساتذة – يهدف استبيان الطلبة إلى بحث الطرق المستعملة من طرفهم لتعلم واكتساب المفردات وإعادة استخدامها في تعبيرهم الكتابي. كان الاستبيان الموجه للأساتذة لجمع المعلومات حول الطرق المستعملة لشرح المفردات الجديدة في دروسهم وكذلك تلك التي يعتمدون عليها الاختبار مدى تعلم الطلاب لهاته المفردات. حرر الاختبار على أساس هذه المعلومات وأنجز قبل وبعد تدريس استراتيجيتين مختلفتين لا لاكتساب عشرة كلمات منتقاة ولمعرفة ما إذا كان لديها أي تأثير على أدائهم الكتابي.

معتمدين على هذه النتائج، تم تقديم بعض الاقتراحات لتوجيه الطلبة لاستعمال استراتيجيات لتعلم المفردات بطريقة فعالة من أجل تحسين أدائهم الكتابي، وغيرها لمساعدة الأساتذة في مهمتهم لتطوير قدرة طلابهم على القراءة، تنمية المفردات وتحسين كتابتهم.

APPENDIXES

Appendix I: The Teachers' Questionnaire

Appendix II: The Learners' Questionnaire

Appendix III: The Pre-Test

Appendix IV: The Text

Appendix V: The Post-Test

APPENDIX - I

TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear teachers

The objective of this questionnaire is to investigate how teachers of written expression proceed while teaching vocabulary. Your help will contribute in the elaboration of M.A dissertation, in language sciences. All information provided will remain anonymous.

We will be very grateful for your collaboration

Section One:Teaching qualification & experience:

1- **Degree:**   B.A   ☐

              M/A magister   ☐

              Doctorate   ☐

2- **Years**

   How many years have you been teaching written expression?

   Number............years

3- **Level**

   What level have you been teaching?

   1st ☐   2nd ☐   3rd ☐

Section Two:Teaching Vocabulary

1- Do you present new words in every lesson?

Yes ☐ No ☐

2- When you teach new words do you use:

- o Translation ☐
- o Definition ☐
- o Word in context ☐
- o Synonyms/opp. ☐
- o Others (please, specify)...
....

Section three:Dealing with Unknown Words

3- When dealing witch unknown words for the learners:

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

Yes ☐ No ☐

4- If "yes", do you do it

- o Before reading ☐
- o During reading ☐
- o After reading ☐

5- When the learners encounter unknown words, do they:

- o Ignore them ☐
- o Ask a peer ☐
- o Ask you ☐
- o Look them up in a dictionary ☐
- o Others:...
  ....
  ....

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

- o Give a translation ☐
- o Give a definition ☐
- o Put them in context ☐
- o Give a synonym ☐
- o Show a picture ☐

Others ....

....

Section Four:Check Vocabulary Learning

7- Do you check students' vocabulary learning?

Yes ☐   No ☐

If "Yes", How often do you check it?

- o Always ☐
- o Often ☐
- o Sometimes ☐
- o Rarely ☐

8- Which techniques / activities do you rely on to check vocabulary learning?

- o Composition ☐
- o Guided writing ☐
- o Rewriting full sentences ☐
- o Matching items with definition / synonyms ☐
- o Fill in the gaps ☐

9- Do you have further suggestion for teaching vocabulary? Please indicate

below..

....

....

APPENDIX - II

LEARNERS' QUATIONNAIRE

This questionnaire will help in the preparation of research work. Please, read very question carefully then put a tick in the right box or complete sentences where necessary. Do not hesitate to ask for help whenever you do not understand a given question.

Section One: About the Student

1. Age ☐

2. Gender :   Male ☐   Female ☐

Section Two: Learning Vocabulary

3. When you encounter an unknown word while reading, do you:

- Read again to guess the meaning from the context   ☐

- Ask the teacher about its meaning   ☐

- Ask a peer   ☐

- Look it up in a dictionary   ☐

- Ignore it   ☐

- Others (please, specify)

....

4. If you use a dictionary, is it

- An English -English dictionary   ☐

- An English Arabic dictionary   ☐

- An English French dictionary   ☐

5. When you come across a new vocabulary item, do you use a note book?

       Yes ☐   No ☐

6. If "Yes", is it:

- Always   ☐
- Sometimes ☐
- Seldom   ☐
- Rarely   ☐

7. Do you use a note book to:

- Write the meaning in your mother tongue / or French   ☐
- Write the meaning in English using synonyms / opposite   ☐
- Put it in a sentence of your own   ☐

8. What do you prefer as an answer to explain a word?

- A translation   ☐
- A definition   ☐
- A word in context   ☐
- A synonym / Opposite   ☐

    Others..

    ....

9. When you rely on dictionary each time you encounter a new word, do you recall it in a new context.

Easily ☐   Somehow easily ☐   hard ☐

10. Have you ever tried to infer the meaning of new words from their context?

Yes ☐   No ☐

11. Is "Yes" is it because it will be:

- Very easy to learn   ☐
- Easy to learn   ☐
- Somehow easy to learn   ☐
- Difficult to learn   ☐
- Very difficult to learn   ☐

12. Which techniques/activities do you prefer to check your Vocabulary learning?

- Composition   ☐
- Guided writing   ☐
- Rewriting full sentences   ☐
- Matching items with definition / synonym ☐
- Fill in the gaps   ☐

13. Which learning strategy helps you better improve your writing performance?

- Translation   ☐
- Look up words in dictionary   ☐
- Infer the meaning from a context   ☐
- Synonym / opposite   ☐

- Other:..
  ....

14. How often do you re-use the learned words in writing?

Source of learning vocabulary	Frequency of Vocabulary use in writing		
	Always	Sometimes	Never
Dictionary			
Context			
Translation			

Appendix - III

Pre-test

The fact that we are not sure what ' intelligence ' is, nor what is passed on, does not prevent us from finding it a very useful working concept, and placing a certain amount of reliance on tests which ' measure ' it.

In an intelligence test we take a sample of an individual's ability to solve puzzles and problems of various kinds, and if we have taken a representative sample it will allow us to predict successfully the level of performance he will reach in a wide variety of occupations.

This became of particular importance when, as a result of the 1944 Education Act, secondary schooling for all became law, and grammar schools, became available to the whole population. Since the number of independent foundation schools, became available could accommodate at most approximately 25 per cent of the total child population of eleven-plus, some kind of selection had to be made. Narrowly academic examinations and tests were felt, quite rightly, to be heavily weighted in favour of children who had had the advantage of highly-academic primary schools and academically biased homes. Intelligence tests were devised to counteract this narrow specialization, by introducing problems which were not based on specifically scholastically-acquired knowledge. The intelligence test in an attempt to assess the general ability of any child to think, reason, judge, analyse and synthesize by presenting him with situations, both verbal and practical, which are within his range of competence and understanding.

BEATRIX TUDOR-HART *Learning to live*

(Cited in Alexander 1967:55)

I- Vocabulary:

Explain the meaning of the following words as they are used in the passage:

prevent; reliance; puzzles; particular; counteract; reason; judge.

II- Composition:

Using the words you learnt in the previous activity, write a composition (not more than two paragraphs) explaining how do you behave / think when you face a problem in life. Do you solve it by yourself or seek help / advice from someone else?

Appendix - IV

Text

When anyone opens a current account at a bank, he is *lending* the bank money, repayment of which he may demand at any time, either in cash or by drawing a cheque in favour of an other person. Primarily, the banker-customer relationship is that *debtor* and creditor — who is which depending on whether the customer's account is in credit or is *overdrawn*. But, in addition to that basically simple concept, the bank and its customer owe a large number of obligations to one another. Many of these obligations can give rise to problems and complications but a bank customer, unlike, say a buyer of goods, cannot complain that the law is loaded against him.

The bank must *obey* its customer's *instructions*, and not those of anyone else. When for example, a customer first opens an account, he instructs the bank to *debit* his account only in respect of cheques drawn by himself. He gives the bank *specimens* of his signature, and there is a very *firm* rule that the bank has no right or authority to pay out the customer's money on a cheque on which its customer's signature has been forged. It makes no difference that the *forgery* may have been a very skilful one: the bank must recognize its customer's signature. For this reason there is no risk to the customer in the modern practice, adopted by some banks, of printing the customer's name on his cheques. If this facilitates forgery it is the bank which will lose, not the customer.

GORDON BARRIE and L. DIAMOND *The Consumer Society and the Law*

(Cited in Alexander 1967:55)

Appendix - V

Post test

You were in the bank and a gentleman seeks your help to withdraw an amount of money.

Write a composition of not more than three paragraphs in which you explain how would you help this gentleman.