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**Teaching General Academic Vocabulary to Undergraduate
EFL Students as a Means to Optimize their Academic
Language Proficiency: The case of Djilali Liabes University
of Sidi Bel Abbas**

*Thesis Submitted to the Department of English in Candidacy for the Degree of
Doctorate in Didactics*

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Dedications

In memory of my father and my brother, may Allah bless them.

To my beloved mother,

To my entire family,

To all those who stood by my side all through this research work and never gave up on me,

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Abstract

Vocabulary is increasingly recognized as a key component of foreign language learning programmes. The need for general academic vocabulary or tier 2 is accentuated at the university; especially within the undergraduate level which delimits the boundaries between general and advanced EFL learning. Accordingly, this study attempts to explore Algerian undergraduates' vocabulary knowledge with a special focus on tier 2 deemed a prerequisite for learning English for academic purposes. To achieve this objective, the study involved the participation of two levels; first and third year students from Djilali Liabes English Department and relied on a mixed method approach using two vocabulary tests, students' and teachers' questionnaire and classroom observation. The Vocabulary Size Test measured the participants' overall vocabulary knowledge and the Academic Word List Test gauged the participants' entry and exit profile in terms of tier 2 vocabulary. The tests' results revealed a deficit in the conversational and academic vocabulary knowledge of both first and third year students. This provides evidence that EFL students reach the university with an important gap in their prior vocabulary knowledge and that exposure alone during undergraduate education cannot meet the increasing vocabulary needs of the students. The questionnaires and the classroom observation examined the beliefs and practices of the students and their teachers. The questionnaire revealed the awareness of both participants about the importance of vocabulary as well as their positive attitude towards explicit vocabulary instruction. Yet, the classroom observation unveiled an inconsistency between the beliefs of the teachers and their practices in terms of vocabulary teaching. The research results eventually motivated us to suggest the explicit teaching of the Academic Word List (AWL) for it includes the most frequent words of tier 2, and the teaching of the vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) in a separate subject to remedy undergraduate students' limited vocabulary knowledge and lack of autonomy.

List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

ACL	Academic Collocation List
AE	Academic English
ANC	American National Corpus
AWL	Academic Word List
AWLT	The Academic Word List Test
BAC	Baccalauréat (Algerian secondary school certificate)
BAWE	British Academic Written English
BCIT	British Columbia Institute of Technology
BEM	Brevet d'Enseignement Moyen (Algerian Middle school certificate)
BICS	Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills
BNC	British National Corpus
CAEC	Cambridge Academic English Corpus
CALP	Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency
CBA	Competency Based Approach
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
COCOA	Corpus of Contemporary American English

DLED	Djillali Liabes English Department
DLU	Djillali Liabes University
EAP	English for Academic purposes
EAP	English for academic purposes
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
ESL	English as a Second Language
ESLCATA	The English as a Second Language Council of the Alberta Teachers' Association
ESP	English for specific purposes
EU	European Union
FIS	Le Front Islamique du Salut (Islamic Salvation Front)
FYGPA	College freshman-year grade point average/ first year college grade point average
GSL	General Service List
GTM	Grammar Translation Method
HEIs	Universities and higher education institutions
ICE	International Corpus of English
ICE	International Corpus of English
LMD	License, Master, Doctorat

MESRS	Ministère de l'Enseignement Supérieur et de la Recherche Scientifique
ONEC	Office National des Examens et Compétitions
PICAE	Pearson International Corpus of Academic English
SE	Social English
TD	Travaux Dirigés (in French), Tutorials (in English)
UG	Undergraduate
UK	United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (formerly), currently United Nations Children's Fund
USA	United States of America
UWL	University Word List
VLS	Vocabulary Learning Strategies
VST	Vocabulary Size Test
WLS	Word Learning Strategies

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General Introduction

It is a fact that the technological revolution in the means of transport and the means of communication contributed significantly to the shortening of time and the reduction of distances, making of the international community a global village. Such situation, characterized by the continual rapprochement between nations, explains the international need for learning foreign languages and the increasing interest in developing methods and techniques that can foster foreign language learning. More importantly, this state of affairs seems to favour English as the de facto language of communication not only in international politics and business, but also in academia.

Algeria, like many non-English speaking countries has adopted the teaching of English as a mandatory school subject to equip its citizens with a global communication means that is meant to help them towards a better adjustment with the changes imposed by globalization. This interest in English is reflected in the increasing number of Algerian students who major in English. Moreover, a considerable number of students who pass their 'Baccalaureate Exam' (BAC), and choose to pursue university studies, enroll in the English Department, making of the latter the largest department in most of the Algerian universities; the case of Djilali Liabes English Department (DLED).

Obviously, the objective from teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) at the university level is not merely to grant students degrees in the discipline, but to enable them to communicate effectively in different situations wherever English is required as the de facto means of communication, both with native and non native speakers. To approach this objective, Algerian students begin studying English at the first year of middle school which generally provides them with seven years of basic formal instruction in the language. By the time they reach the university our EFL students are required to exhibit the adequate language proficiency level that enables them to meet the requirements of university studies. Because the BAC exam does not reflect the actual level of the examinees, most of the students who

join the English course are not qualified to pursue advanced studies in English. They join the course with a limited knowledge of English vocabulary that naturally impinges on their overall language proficiency.

The gap in our students' vocabulary knowledge deepens as they progress in their university studies which are cognitively and linguistically more demanding than pre-tertiary education. University students have to follow a curriculum which comprises a number of teaching subjects that provide them with knowledge about the language as well as knowledge about the native speakers of the target language, namely the American and British people. In the former, students learn how the language is structured and how it is spoken and written through modules such as grammar, phonetics, written/oral expression, reading/listening comprehension, etc, while in the latter; they discover the literature; culture and civilization of the native speakers of the target language. In other words, they study the native speakers' history and lifestyles to understand how these people use their language to communicate and negotiate meaning in daily situations. So, through modules such as British and American literature and civilization, students get familiarized with the semantic and the pragmatic context in which the target language is naturally used which would help them better understand how this language functions.

Researchers argue that language learners are, in fact, faced with two types of discourse when learning English as a second or a foreign language. These two types of discourse are known among language experts respectively as 'Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency' (CALP), in short 'Academic English' and 'Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills' (BICS), in short 'Social English'. A close examination of the two types of discourse reveals that Academic English, which is the focus of this study, is more demanding than Social English and that both differ in structure and vocabulary. So, English language learners are often faced with a different type of vocabulary when they reach the university level. This

new register is identified as academic vocabulary and it is usually the main obstacle to learners' comprehension of lectures as well as to their performance during the exams.

Algerian EFL undergraduate (UG) students have consequently to close the gap in their prior vocabulary knowledge and gain new knowledge that would support their academic achievement in the target language. This state of affairs puts the EFL undergraduates, mainly first year, in a dilemma. On the one hand, they are faced with a significant mass of unfamiliar vocabulary which is important for lectures comprehension and which, in turn, is prerequisite for a quality achievement in the exams. On the other hand, there is practically no systematic explicit teaching of vocabulary at the level of the university and no specific module to teach vocabulary as it is the case for grammar and pronunciation or other language skills. This situation may be allocated to two possible reasons. First, students, at this level, are expected to be autonomous enough to learn vocabulary on their own and second the actual tendency in foreign language teaching let suppose that vocabulary can take care of itself through simple exposure to the target language in the different subjects.

However, a considerable body of research has demonstrated the foreign language learners' need for explicit teaching of vocabulary regardless of their learning level. Though, the use of explicit teaching method diminishes as EFL learners advance in their studies, it continues to play a significant role in scaffolding learners' vocabulary knowledge at the undergraduate level. This is simply because it has been proved that with that large size, vocabulary cannot take care of itself, particularly with the limited exposure to the target language and the lack of reading that generally characterizes the young generations, as is the case of Algerian EFL students.

Besides, the teaching paradigm dominating the Algerian educational system has proved to form dependent learners who spend most of their schooling time relying on their teachers' knowledge, guidance and support. Although, the current teaching tendency

advocates the learner- centered approach, the teacher-centered class is still a reality in the Algerian national education, not only at the first cycles, but even at the university level. Actually, lack of autonomy among tertiary students is the natural outcome of the lack of its practice in earlier stages; in primary and secondary cycles. Accordingly, one can assume that university students, at least undergraduates and particularly first year LMD students need to be assisted in learning the adequate vocabulary knowledge that supports their comprehension with a particular emphasis on general academic vocabulary which is common across different teaching subjects.

Indeed, the poor writing of the students during the exams reflects a deficiency at different language levels, especially at the level of vocabulary in general and academic vocabulary in particular. This is confirmed by the dissatisfaction of the EFL teachers who; irrespective of their teaching subject, complain about the limited participation of their students during lectures and their meager outcome during exams. These teachers, themselves, recognize that their students struggle mainly because of their limited academic vocabulary knowledge.

Accordingly, the present work focuses on undergraduate participants as the target population as this level is the first step towards specialized/advanced EFL learning. The study takes place in the English Department of Djilali Liabes University where the researcher is recruited and the sample population includes a group from first year students (33) and another group from third year (34). Therefore, the research is the result of the researchers' direct contact with the target population and the accumulation of hands-on experiences supporting the need of this population to general academic vocabulary, being part of the language of instruction at the university. Then, the current study attempts, on the one hand, to underline the importance of this type of vocabulary, aka tier two, by highlighting the role it actually plays in students' overall academic achievement. On the other hand, it endeavours to draw

attention to the deficit in our undergraduate students' knowledge of tier two. The study also seeks to elicit whether the EFL teachers, in the different teaching modules, play any role in the enhancement of students' vocabulary learning and if this contribution has any impact on their students' academic language proficiency by trying to answer the following questions:

1. Do UG students possess the adequate knowledge of general academic vocabulary (tier 2) needed for university/academic studies?
2. Are they able to assimilate and to implicitly learn the general academic vocabulary they encounter in different teaching subjects simply through exposure to the different lectures?
3. What are the attitudes of UG students towards explicit teaching of (general academic) vocabulary at the university level?
4. What are the attitudes of teachers towards explicit teaching of (general academic) vocabulary at the university level?

To answer the above questions, this research work will attempt to provide arguments for the research hypotheses that are formulated as follows:

1. Algerian EFL UG students have limited general academic vocabulary knowledge which impinges on their academic achievement.
2. Implicit learning through simple classroom exposure does not allow sufficient general academic vocabulary learning to take place.
3. UG students favour explicit vocabulary teaching because they need their teachers' support in the different teaching subjects to enrich their academic vocabulary knowledge.
4. University teachers do not favour explicit vocabulary teaching because they consider UG students autonomous enough to take responsibility of their vocabulary learning.

These hypotheses constitute the framework that guides the present research in an attempt to provide satisfactory answers to our research problematic. This framework is supported by a set of research tools employed to gather data that can help to confirm or disconfirm each of the previous hypotheses. The tools include two vocabulary tests; the first (VST) evaluates the students' lexical profile in term of their overall vocabulary knowledge and the second test (AWLT); administered to the participants, at the beginning and the end of the academic year, focuses on measuring their general academic vocabulary and compares their entry and exit profiles.

In addition, teachers in charge of the undergraduate level were invited to take part in this study and answer a questionnaire that targets their beliefs concerning the relationship between academic vocabulary and students' achievement as well as the teaching of their subject content. This questionnaire also investigate teachers' attitude towards the explicit teaching of (general) academic vocabulary not only within their module, but mainly as a separate teaching subject. Their attitudes towards their students' autonomy are also subject to investigation to gain insights in their beliefs and practices as regards explicit vocabulary instruction. Finally, some lectures from first and third year are observed to verify whether vocabulary is taught, how it is approached and which type is given more importance.

The overall structure of the current study takes the form of four chapters. The first chapter is concerned with the methodology guiding this study. It starts by identifying the research problem after providing a brief overview of the Algerian learning situation. The latter includes the description of the educational system and the reforms that reshaped education with its different cycles along with the teaching and the status of English in the Algerian context. The chapter also discusses the requirements giving access to higher education and particularly to a Bachelor's in English. It then moves on explaining the rationale of the study by exposing the different reasons behind conducting this research and

the aim from selecting the EFL undergraduates as the target population. This is followed by a description of the sample population and the different tools used for data collection.

The second chapter summarizes the main literature distinguishing between Academic English and Social English and makes reference to Cummins' theory being an essential theory in second language acquisition. The chapter then focuses on academic vocabulary as an important aspect of Academic English and discusses its characteristics and the need of tertiary level students for this type of vocabulary. It also examines the arguments that advocate the explicit teaching of vocabulary at this level and presents the most important word lists necessary to advanced EFL learners. The chapter also discusses the concept of quality vocabulary instruction and tries to shed some light on teachers' role and the different teaching principles for achieving this quality.

The third chapter displays the data gathered from the different research tools and tries to provide an objective interpretation of the findings in the light of the related literature. The tools are analysed in the same order they were implemented during the practical phase of the research. Thus, the discussion of the findings starts with the vocabulary tests, the VST and then the AWLT. It then moves to the questionnaire of the teachers followed by the students' questionnaire and the findings of both questionnaires are grouped into sub-sections based on the themes they generated. The five sessions of the classroom observation are separately analysed at the end of the chapter which concludes with a synthesis of their results.

The concluding chapter draws upon the entire thesis, combining the different theoretical and empirical strands reviewed in the literature and the findings of the current research with the aim to provide some recommendations that can contribute to resolving the research problematic. Learning English for academic purposes encompasses the learning of the vocabulary type that constitutes the language of its instruction. The researcher then highlights the significance of evaluating EFL students' prior knowledge and lexical

competence to decide about their eligibility to access the Bachelor's studies. Such evaluation can take the form of an admission test in addition to the traditional admission requirements, i.e. the completion of the secondary education. Then, a foundation year is suggested to open the door to students who fail in the admission test and still desire to major in English.

As for the successful candidates, a vocabulary-based programme is suggested to accompany them building the necessary lexical competence needed in their undergraduate studies. The programme combines the integration of explicit vocabulary instruction in the different subjects with the teaching of general academic vocabulary in a separate subject. It also devotes time for training the students with the main strategies that smooth the progress of vocabulary learning, allow its continuity outside the classroom and heighten their autonomy. Yet, students' need for their teachers' support is a *sharp reminder* of the primary and elementary place of teachers in this vocabulary programme, and so the chapter ends with a discussion on the relevance of training to teachers' professional development.

Chapter One:

Description of the Learning Situation

and Research Methodology

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1.1. Introduction

The current chapter is dedicated to the elucidation of the practical part being the core and the foundation of any research work. As the identification of the problem is generally the trigger of the scientific research, the first part of the chapter therefore tries to provide an overview of the general context of the research problem. It starts with a brief description of ELT in Algeria by tracing its evolution in the local educational system. It sheds light both on the National/Basic Education and Higher Education and discusses the reforms that took place at these two levels. It stresses the impact of these reforms on ELT as well as on the status of EFL in the Algerian context. It then tries to depict the problem resulting from the current learning situation and put forward the questions and the hypotheses guiding this research work.

To have a better understanding of the learning situation, the chapter also provides an account of the admission requirements giving access to the Algerian university and focuses on Djilali Liabes English Department; being the specific educational context and the selected case of the study. This part of the chapter ends with the discussion and analysis of the requirements needed to enroll particularly in the English course.

The second part of this chapter is devoted to the description of the methodology driving the current research. It introduces the targeted population and describes the sample participating in this work with reference to the objective behind this selection. It then exposes the research design and provides a detailed account of the tools employed for data collection, starting by the vocabulary tests, then the two questionnaires, and ending by the classroom observation.

1.2. ELT in Algeria

English is, for the time being, the second foreign language in Algeria after French an automatic heritage of the former French colonization of the country. Like French, English is a

compulsory teaching subject, yet the former is taught starting from primary school and the latter starting from middle school and the teaching of both continues till university level. It is worth mentioning that there has been an attempt to teach EFL at the primary level, but such attempt was soon abandoned (Rixon, 2013, p. 10-53). Yet, Algerian's interest in this language is constantly increasing driven by the search for the betterment of its economy and the belief that English is a prerequisite in establishing strong political and economic relationships with the international community as pointed by Miliani (2000):

In a situation where the French language has lost much of its ground in the sociocultural and educational environments of the country; the introduction of English is being heralded as the magic solution to all possible ills including economic, technological and education ones. (p. 13)

This belief is reflected in the Algerian efforts to prop up the teaching and learning of English throughout its educational system. Since the independence, Algeria has endeavoured to promote the economic and social situation of its population and the best way to achieve such objective is obviously to promote education that constitutes a key factor in the development of nations. Hence, the Algerian educational system; both basic and higher education, witnessed different reforms in terms of its structure, syllabuses and curricula, as well as the teaching methods and materials. These reforms aimed at coping with the changes that were reshaping the educational standards worldwide. In one way or another, these reforms influenced ELT and redefined the status of EFL in the Algerian context to the present day.

1.1.1. Basic Education

Basic education or what is called the 'National Education' in Algeria refers to primary, middle and secondary schools. As inherited from the colonial period, the Algerian school system was based on a 6+4+3 model with six years for primary school, four years for middle school and three years for secondary school, and English was taught starting from the

third year of middle school. In the 1980s a new system was applied involving this time a (6+3)+3 model, combining the six years of primary school and the three years of middle school in a nine year period commonly known as the fundamental school, followed by three years for secondary education. This reform introduced English in the eighth year of fundamental school which entailed that in these two models English was studied for five years by the completion of secondary school.

In 1993-95 there was an attempt to substitute English for French as the first foreign language by introducing the former in the fourth year of primary education as reported by the Coleman (2010): *“It was felt that English as a historically neutral language in the Algerian context would be able to play the modernising role that was hoped for from French but without the colonialist and non-Islamic associations that French had.”* (p. 13). This attempt coincided with the Algerian political crisis that followed the victory of the Islamic party (FIS¹), in the 1992 election (Campbell, 1996; cited in Bellalem, 2012, p. 04). However, the idea was almost immediately ignored (Rixon, 2013; Rezig, 2011) giving as such precedence back to French as the legitimate first foreign language, a situation heavily imposed by the Algerian deep and long tie with France; its last colonizer, but a situation which is also inevitably expected to change due to the winds of changes carried by globalization.

The latest reform of 2003 reshaped the school structure reusing the first 6+4+3 model, but this time opening primary education with a preparatory class, omitting the sixth form, and introducing English right from the first year of middle school. Thus, this last reform expanded EFL learning from five to seven years giving more opportunities to Algerian learners to study and practise the English language during basic education, and establishing the new position that this language is slowly but steadily gaining in the Algerian educational system. Mami (2013) describes the evolution of English in the Algerian context stating that:

¹FIS in French : Le Front Islamique du Salut ; in English : Islamic Salvation Front.

As a matter of fact, English has been defined as a second foreign language in the beginning of the 90s, and as a first foreign language after the 2000 reform, to gain the status of the langue of science and technology used in lifelong learning in recent years. (p. 912).

Such rising interest in English may be explained first by the new political and economic changes taking place in Algeria and worldwide and more importantly by the Algerian orientation towards the UK and the USA as a means “*to spread the Algerian economic market beyond the French market, to other countries in the world*” (Bellalem, 2012, p. 02). The second explanation for Algerian concern with the development of the English language is evidently related to the language itself. As a matter of fact, English imposed itself on the entire international community as a global means of communication which is widely used both formally at the level of officials and official institutions and informally among common individuals.

In view of that, the Algerian educational reforms put forth a framework that aims “*to support Algerian students of English in achieving English language proficiency that meets the challenges and requirements of communicating in the international community (The Algerian English Framework, 2010, p.2)*”. The framework was developed under the Partnership Schools Program and funded via the U.S. Department of State, Bureau of Near Eastern Affairs and Office of the Middle East Partnership Initiative (MEPI). The framework is available at *Maktabat MPEI Library* which is an online library that stores valuable and varied resources about the region of Middle East and North Africa (MENA)² including Algeria.

1.1.2. Higher Education

Along with the reforms of Basic Education, the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research similarly decided to reform the Algerian university so as to catch up with the political, economic and cultural changes affecting the Algerian society because of the globalization era. As a result, the Algerian university was restructured based on the

² Available at: <http://maktabatmepi.org/fr/projects/algeria-partnership-schools-program>

Bologna process by adopting the LMD system which stands for License/Bachelor-Master-Doctorate. This new system was initiated in the academic year 2004-2005 and unlike the classical or traditional system; it reduces the length of formation for each degree from four years bachelor, two years magister, and four years doctorate to three years bachelor, two years master, and three years doctorate. But, at the same time it increases the students' workload and attributes new roles for teachers who are conceived no more as the only source of knowledge but mainly as mediators and facilitators stressing as such the new learner-centered class approach.

The LMD system was created by the European countries in 1999, with the objective to set up "*a harmonised space for higher education across the European Union*" (Metatla, 2016). It was in fact a step toward the unification of Europe whose member states decided "*to restructure higher education so that it is compatible with a market-driven ideology [and where] National degrees were to be accepted among the member states of the EU*" (ibid) promoting as such "*citizens' mobility and employability and the continent's overall development*" (Curaj, Scott, Vlasceanu and Wilson, 2012, p.732). Likewise, the implementation of the LMD system in Algeria has got the objective to allow the compatibility of Algerian diplomas with the European degrees and accordingly to promote and facilitate Algerian students' mobility and employability and therefore their professional and social integration.

Concerning the teaching of English at the university level, it is guided by the same objectives guiding the advent of the LMD system in the country. While the Algerian university offers a wide range of academic disciplines, English which is one of these disciplines, is also integrated as a transversal teaching subject/unit in all specialties. Apparently, the status of English will be subject to new changes as it continues to gain more space within Algeria. The idea that English may one day take the place of French seems likely

to happen in the near future following the declaration of the Algerian Minister of Higher Education and Scientific Research Tayeb Bouzid who announced “*the French language does not get us anywhere*” (Ghanmi, 2019, p. 17) and ordered the different higher education institutions to use English instead of French. His strong declaration seems to reflect a strong political will to reduce the domination of French in the country starting with higher education.

In terms of methods and curricula, the Algerian educational system is in fact a reflection of the changes that have and are still reshaping education of the international community and EFL teaching is no exception. Thus, the teaching of English in Algeria like in many countries of the world was approached using different methods with the objective to facilitate the learning of this language and to equip Algerians with this international means of communication that is likely to widen their educational and professional perspectives. Accordingly, both traditional and modern approaches have been employed to teach EFL in the Algerian schools and universities including the Grammar Translation Method (GTM), the Communicative Language Teaching Approach (CLT) and the Competency Based Approach (CBA).

The combination between elements such as the LMD system, the learner-centered class and the Competency-Based Approach is ideally intended to promote learners’ personal work, critical thinking and autonomy in learning. All these criteria are a prerequisite in foreign language learning. Hence, studying English under such circumstances is likely to lead to the betterment of Algerians’ EFL academic achievement and the effective mastery and use of this means of communication. So, have these reforms attained the objectives set beforehand by the officials of the Algerian education? The following section is a tentative answer to this intricate question.

1.1.3. Outcome of the Educational Reforms

Unfortunately, the Algerian educational reforms; either the general ones that restructured the whole system of education or the particular ones that reshaped ELT were, as reported by Bellalem (2014): “*doomed to failure*” (p.4). Though the intentions were good the ways of proceeding were ineffective simply because the officials in charge of these reforms did not consult the field expert staff. According to Bellalem, Mr Benbouzid the ex minister of education “*has constantly ignored Algerian teachers’ and educational experts’ views on his reforms and relied mostly on foreign consultants*” (ibid). Alas, such practice was also adopted by the successors of Mr Benbouzid namely Mr Baba Ahmed and Ms BenGhabrit, who likewise excluded Algerian teachers and experts from their search for the supposed betterment of the national education. Not only the Algerian teachers were not consulted, but were not trained to apply these reforms either which generated much dissatisfaction and ambiguity among them as described by Miliani (2010) who shares this belief:

This new development at school level has generated uneasiness of teachers who are supposed to teach through it but know nearly nothing about it. Furthermore, the textbooks that have been designed along CBA characteristics are posing problems to the teachers who return systematically to their old ways and practices. (p. 71)

The same thing applies to higher education; reforms such as the implementation of the LMD system brought from a Western context and imposed on Algerians who have different social, economic and cultural characteristics and who did not have the opportunity to express their voice on these reforms. The result of this detrimental situation was as stated by Metatla (2016): “*it is less surprising that Algeria continues to sway under internal contradictions that are an inevitable consequence of plucking a system out of its context and applying it almost blindly in another*”. Even worse, such monopolized and unthoughtful decisions are harming not only the Algerian education but the society as a whole due to the genuine role that education plays in shaping societies. Metatla also referred to this point

claiming that: “*The LMD reforms have tied the fate of the Algerian higher education sector to European intellectual and economic development, reinforcing the neoliberal assault on higher education and on society at large*” (ibid).

Therefore, these reforms have been actually emptied of their original content and *raison d'être* and the result has been the foundation of an educational system that favours quantity over quality. It is a fact that the educational infrastructure has flourished and the number of students at all levels has considerably increased, as reported by Benouar (2012) who enumerates Algeria's achievements in higher education stating that:

The Algerian higher education system is constituted of 91 institutions spread over the 48 provinces covering the entire country. This system consists of forty seven (47) state owned universities, ten (10) university centers and nineteen (19) Higher education national schools and five (05) teacher training colleges, ten (10) preparatory schools and two (02) integrated preparatory classes where more than two million students are following their education and research... more than 600 research laboratories distributed through the universities (p. 362)

The statistics above were collected by Benouar in 2012; since then the number of higher education institutions has augmented to 106 institutions (MESRS, 2020). Likewise, in basic education the government deployed considerable financial and human resources which actually decreased illiteracy among children over 10 years old from more than 75% in 1966 to 22% in 2008 (UNICEF Algeria, 2014, p.1) and it even fell to 8.71% in 2019 (Algeria Press Service, 2020). The number of students almost doubled from 5.1 to 9.2 million from 1984 to 2017-2018 (ibid). Yet, such quantitative development was not reinforced by appropriate mechanisms to assure a parallel qualitative development. Based on a survey conducted by the UNICEF, Algeria's National Education suffers from:

the absence of a pre-primary policy and the weak preparation of children for primary education ... In addition to a lack of progress in developing pre-school, the major problem for the Algerian education system remains the high number of students who repeat years, particularly at lower secondary school, as this generates children dropping out of school and adds to school wastage, where school resources are expended on students who do not complete their schooling. (ibid, p.3)

As for higher education, some studies (Guendouzi and Ameziane, 2011) revealed that success rates within the LMD system are often inferior to what they used to be in the classical system (p. 22). In the same line, *echouroukonline* (2012) states that: “*The Algerian universities are lagging behind in terms of teaching quality and developing processes. The three major institutions that set the classification standards didn’t include any Algerian university among the 500 best worldwide*”. Such classification confronts the Algerian officials with an “*uncomfortable situation as it sets up additional hurdles to the Algerian students willing to join foreign universities and poses problems of conformity with the European and Asian ones*” (ibid). Consequently, many students graduate each year and find difficulty to get employed not only because of the unemployment problem that weigh heavily upon the country but also because of the quality of their education and diplomas which neither meet the political and economic needs of the country nor promote Algerians’ local and overseas mobility and employability as set by the LMD system.

Even the human resources i.e.: teachers, deployed to sustain these reforms seem lacking the necessary qualifications and training that enable them to fully fulfill their multiple roles imposed on them within the new system. In this context, Azzi (2012) claimed that a great number of teachers in different department including the English department are obliged to: “*teach new subjects they are not majored in using new methods they are not trained in and to comply with the rules of equity, diversity and comprehensiveness when assessing their students*” (p. 1010). As such, teachers themselves lack the clear vision about what exactly

their roles are and if these people lack clarity in their own role, it would obviously have a negative impact on the quality of their teaching as well as on their students.

Azzi (2012) investigated the perceptions of EFL Faculty members about the *The New Pedagogical Practices within the LMD System*, in the Department of English Language and Literature at Ferhat Abbas University (Setif, Algeria). The findings unsurprisingly revealed that:

The majority of the respondents (58, 3%) agreed or strongly agreed that they need to be highly qualified to be able to design by themselves the contents of the programs they deliver and to assess their students continuously and 75% of them held the same perceptions in the case of adopting the learner-centered approach” (p.1010)

More importantly, her study revealed that EFL teachers had got a negative perception about the pedagogical innovations prompted by the LMD system in Algeria with regards to their relative advantage, compatibility, complexity, trialability, and observability (ibid, p.1013). Such belief of dissatisfaction about these reforms is commonly shared by a great number of Algerian teachers not only in higher education but also in basic education where teachers often complain about the lack of training which should generally precede any change and pave the way to any educational reforms.

To sum up, a declaration made by Mr. Bouteflika; the ex-president of Algeria, describes well the status of the Algerian education. Mr. Bouteflika declared to the *Institut National de la Recherche en Éducation*(2004) that :”*The educational system generated a significant decrease in the general level of teaching, a strong school failure due mainly to the bad co-operation between the various levels of the educational system*” (cited in Benzerroug, 2019, p. 51). Having run the country for about twenty years (1999-2019), Mr Bouteflika was well placed to have a comprehensive idea about what was actually happening in our educational system.

Unfortunately, as Miliani (2010) puts it, because of the exclusion of the teachers and the field experts: “*quality education will remain just a trendy term. However, ‘quality’ is simply word of mouth among the decision-makers, and not reality on the field in the classrooms.*” (p. 68). So, could we expect that one day the decision-makers in Algeria will target quality and make it their priority when deciding about new reforms in education? Definitely, only time can provide an answer to such question, still we hope the answer is going to be affirmative.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

After they complete their secondary education, many Algerian students enroll in the English department. They come from different streams and with different EFL proficiency levels, but regardless of the motive behind their choice, a great number of these students struggle considerably to achieve their graduation in the English course. Even students who succeed to do so; they graduate with limited English proficiency.

Throughout our teaching experience at the English department of Djilali Liabes University, we met different colleagues who complain about undergraduate students’ limited participation and poor performance in exams and assignments. In addition, students themselves usually express their difficulty to understand the content of the teaching subjects. The difficulty is more prominent in the exams and tests where students cannot express their ideas because they do not know the relevant vocabulary or do not grasp the meaning of the instructions. As a result, they cannot respond effectively and fail to meet the writing requirements of their exams.

Evidently, most of the academic vocabulary used in the exams is usually employed in the lectures and the teaching sessions. Yet, students fail to learn all the amount of vocabulary they encounter during class as it is most of the time not the focus of the teachers whose main concern is often the delivery of the content of their subjects. Teachers may think

that vocabulary learning is a matter of simple exposure to the language and that at the university students can implicitly learn new words without being supported by their teachers. There is no doubt that students have an imperative role to play in developing their vocabulary. Teachers alone cannot undertake this task without parallel efforts from students. The latter are required to make use of different study skills including vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) to build their vocabulary knowledge. But, it is also not sound to expect them to learn all this mass of vocabulary alone.

Besides, many students at this level do not seem to differentiate between social English and academic English. Though, they have a limited mastery of both types of English, they seem to be relatively more influenced by social English thanks to the technologically developed means of communication that offer extensive opportunities to exposure to authentic social language including, but not limited to, watching videos, listening to podcasts, participating in games and chatting with native and non-native speakers of English. We were often impressed by some students' American accent and apparent fluency in speaking. Then, their poor achievement in writing led us to question their actual language proficiency.

Undergraduate students are often observed to write the same way they speak using informal words and expressions in academic context. Even when they make use of academic English, they generally tend to use a limited repertoire of academic vocabulary characterized generally by the misuse of words, their misspelling or the repetition of the same words. Students thus fail to express their ideas effectively.

We believe thus that students' limited vocabulary knowledge and particularly their general academic vocabulary (aka tier 2) is one of the main causes behind their struggle and their weak academic achievement. Vocabulary plays an indisputable role in ensuring comprehension and communication, besides general academic vocabulary constitutes the language of instruction in the different teaching subjects. Therefore, undergraduate students

should have a good command of basic vocabulary represented by the General Service List developed by West (1953) and the most frequent words of tier 2 summarized in the Academic World List (AWL) of Coxhead (2000).

1.3. Restatement of the Research Questions and Hypotheses

Based on what has been mentioned so far the current study tries to explore the academic lexical competence of undergraduate students. To address this central question which actually constitutes the leading topic of the whole work, the following sub-questions have been put forward:

1. Do undergraduate students possess the adequate knowledge of general academic vocabulary needed for university/academic studies?
2. Are they able to assimilate and to implicitly learn the general academic vocabulary they encounter in the different teaching subjects simply through exposure to the different lectures?
3. What are the attitudes of students towards explicit teaching of (academic) vocabulary at the university level?
4. What are the attitudes of teachers towards explicit teaching of (academic) vocabulary at the university level?

To answer the above questions, this research work endeavoured to provide arguments for the research hypotheses that have been formulated as follows:

1. Algerian EFL undergraduate students have limited general academic vocabulary knowledge which impinges on their academic achievement.
2. Implicit learning through simple classroom exposure does not allow sufficient general academic vocabulary learning to take place.

3. UG Students favour explicit vocabulary teaching because they need their teachers' support in the different teaching subjects to enrich their academic vocabulary knowledge.
4. University teachers do not favour explicit vocabulary teaching because they consider UG students autonomous enough to take responsibility of their vocabulary learning.

1.4. Description of the Learning Situation

As English is introduced right from the first year of Middle school, Algerian EFL learners usually spend seven years on average studying English by the time they reach the university level. As would be clarified in chapter two and based on Cummins' theory English learners usually need about two years to acquire social English (BICS) and about seven years to master academic English (CALP) (Cummins 2008, p. 72). As such, Algerian EFL learners are assumed to master both BICS and CALP when they complete their secondary education which is alas not always the case. But, it is worth mentioning that Cummins' study has been achieved in an ESL context where learners; namely immigrants, are supported by their linguistic immersion and direct contact with the English speaking community as regards the acquisition of BICS. Concerning the development of CALP, ESL learners are equally supported by their extensive exposure to academic English used as a means of instruction throughout the school grades and the different curricula.

In Algeria, learners of English face a totally different situation simply because English is a foreign language. The considerable divergence between the leaning conditions in the ESL and the EFL context entails that it would take a longer time for the Algerian EFL learners to master English with its two varieties. The learning of both BICS and CALP is almost restricted to the classroom environment. Unlike ESL learners, Algerian EFL learners do not have the possibility to benefit from the advantages of a linguistic immersion

neither through direct contact with an English speaking community nor through content-based instruction in English throughout Middle and Secondary school curricula. Being a Muslim and an Arab country, Algeria uses the Arabic language as a means of instruction while English is only one teaching subject through the two cycles and it is allotted a relatively limited time that does not act in favour of the successful mastery of a language. Hence, EFL is actually one of the subjects causing learners' failure in the official exams, namely 'BEM' and 'BAC'. Besides, even examinees that succeed in these exams are often observed to achieve unsatisfactory results in EFL.

The pass mark for these exams is calculated by computing the grades of all the teaching subjects composing each exam after multiplying each subject's grade by its coefficient and then dividing the total sum by the number of the teaching subjects multiplied by their coefficients. Therefore, a compensation principle is involved when obtaining the pass mark and success at the 'BEM' and 'BAC' exams does not automatically guarantee success in the EFL subject. Consequently, a great number of the students who pursue their higher education and arrive at the English department have an inadequate level in EFL; a level that does not match the requirements of the academic discourse that characterizes the university studies. The most important obstacle facing these students is the deficiency in their vocabulary knowledge both in terms of size and type.

Studying English for Academic purposes (EAP) requires basically 1) a good command of tier one (high frequency words) which is the focus of EFL teaching during the first grades in the Algerian context, as well as 2) an adequate knowledge of tier two (academic vocabulary) that is stressed mainly at the secondary school. However, Algerian EFL students arrive at the university with an important deficit in both tiers one and two and this gap in their vocabulary knowledge usually continues to widen throughout their undergraduate studies. This is reflected in the students' weak achievement that hampers or delays their graduation. A

great number of students repeat at least one academic year and/or move to the next year carrying failed credits/modules. Such weak results uncover students' vocabulary deficit which can neither be revealed, as mentioned previously, through the students' EFL results in the BAC exam nor detected through the admission requirements set by most of the English departments in the Algerian universities.

1.5. Access to University

In order to apply for a university programme or course students should be qualified for that programme. They should have the profile that matches the discipline of their choice. Such profile is determined by the university or the higher education institution which necessitates from the applicants to meet certain general and specific entry or admission requirements. These requirements may include successful completion with top grades in specific subjects that are prerequisite to the chosen discipline as well as "*other selection criteria and procedures, such as interviews, portfolio submissions, or aptitude tests*" (University Laval, 2018). Such practice is common across many universities around the world to ensure that students can progress with their studies and graduate within the fixed qualification timeframe benefitting and at the same time contributing to a quality education in the receiving university.

For instance to join one of the faculties of Medicine in Canada, applicants have to pass an extra test that aims not only at assessing "*the examinee's knowledge of science concepts and principles prerequisite to the study of medicine*" which is a sound and legitimate procedure, but also at assessing the applicants' "*problem solving, critical thinking and writing skills*" (The Association of Faculties of Medicine of Canada, 2013/2015, p. 3). Likewise to join a bachelor's degree programme at the Danish University of Copenhagen, applicants should first meet the general admission requirements which are to have accomplished upper secondary (high) school education, and to present a grade point average equivalent to the

Danish 6.0 – or more. Besides, applicants should meet specific requirements depending on the discipline they intend to specialise in as well as passing an entrance exam as it is the case for Veterinary Medicine at the Faculty of Health Science and the Department of Musicology at the Faculty of Humanities (University of Copenhagen, 2018). This means that higher education institutions in the Western countries aim at maintaining high standards which explains why they are very selective.

1.5.1. Admission Requirements to the Algerian University

Universities and higher education institutions (HEIs) are at the time being the Algerian state ownership. Therefore, their management is the responsibility of the state policies. Like basic education higher education is free in Algeria and thus it is made accessible to all Algerians who meet the admission requirements. These requirements and access to the Algerian university have witnessed some regulations since the independence. Yet, the general requirement in all universities and disciplines has been and is still success in the BAC exam, i.e. the accomplishment of secondary education; however the specific entry requirements have differed over time and from one discipline to another.

For instance, before 1983 students could join a discipline/course based on the marks obtained in the related subject during the BAC exam. However, in 1983-84, access to disciplines like Medicine and Architecture, was restricted to students who besides succeeding in the BAC exam were able to pass competitive examinations. This changed once more in 1989, making access to all disciplines again based only on the students' marks at the BAC exam, but this time limited by some quotas afforded to each discipline. The same enrollment principle is applied currently, but with a slight modification in the enrollment procedure which is more or less modernized. Students nowadays achieve their enrollment in two phases as explained by *Akkouche* (2017):

In the future, according to the Minister of Higher Education, an admission mark will be set in advance for all sectors and specialties. Thus, the student will know in advance, with his BAC score, what specialty he can choose. The registration calendar has also been revised to give the student enough time to choose a specialty and to review his choice before the start of studies. Thus, a first step was devoted to the first registrations and the orientation and a second stage was devoted to the study of the transfers provided that the request is justified. These two stages will take place next July and the final registrations, administrative and pedagogical, will take place in September, before the start of the academic year. [Own translation from French]

So, in the first phase students are required to achieve a pre-registration where they have to express their wishes by filling in a wish/choice³ card form and selecting a set of courses/disciplines put in order of priority always based on their BAC marks. This step takes place in July, immediately after the release of the BAC results and the candidate's request that best meets the requirement is generally accepted. Such operation is conducted online and the new candidates are exclusively required to transmit their wish/choice card electronically via two official websites dedicated to this end. Few days later, students have to visit again the websites to check the result of their pre-registration. The second phase occurs in September, at the beginning of the academic year, when students confirm their enrollment in the accepted choice. It is worth noting that even the number of wishes expressed by the students has changed over time from ten in 2008 to six in 2016 and finally four in 2017.

This method of enrollment seems to have failed to meet the needs of the Algerian students as only 50% of the new candidates have their first choice fulfilled (Akkouche, 2016), whereas many find themselves often oriented towards courses that have nothing to do with their academic aspirations and expectations. Subsequently, a great number of candidates; about 120,000, apply for their transfer each year. Another great number nearly 40 % of new university students redo their BAC by registering as free candidates for the following session, especially those who have been in a scientific stream and are ultimately oriented to social sciences or

³ Wish/choice card: *fiche de vœux* in French.

humanities such as the English language while they wish to follow higher studies in scientific or technical fields (ibid). Convinced of the inefficacy of this system of orientation, the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research is, as reported by *Akkouche* (2016) planning to gradually abolish the wish card for the new candidates who will have direct access to the specialty of their choice in the near future; within four to five years (ibid).

1.5.2. Access to the English Department of Djilali Liabes University

Before tackling the essential requirements for joining the English Department of Djilali Liabes University (DLU), it is worth giving a brief overview about the department and subsequently about the context in which this study took place. Describing and understanding the context of the research is a necessity as it offers a better grasp of the objectives driving the study and the nature of the variables steering the research methodology and influencing its results.

1.6.2.1. DLU English Department

Djilali Liabes English section as it was classified at that time, opened in 1986 with one first year class of EFL students in the first cycle i.e. Bachelor level (Licence in French). Djilali Liabes was created as a university centre in 1978⁴, and then in 1984 it took the status of the ‘National Institutions of Higher Education’ which was modified again in 1989 making of Djilali Liabes a university. At the beginning it consisted of a limited number of departments and as it grew larger, more departments opened and were grouped into faculties. Thus, the English department with the departments of French, Arabic, and later German were grouped as the Faculty of Letters and Human Sciences and currently with the addition of the department of arts the faculty’s name changed into the Faculty of Letters, Foreign Languages and Arts. Not only had the University of Djilali Liabes grown larger but also the English Department had.

⁴https://www.univ-sba.dz/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=124&Itemid=532&lang=fr#historique-de-l-universite

When the department opened the first time in 1986, there was only one class of first year with about thirty students, this number literary skyrocketed in 2018 to about 334 in First year, 247 in second year and 362 students in third year. Besides, there are three specialties in the Master degree with two levels in each specialty accounting for about 150 students added to the students enrolled in the Doctoral Degree. Alas, the number of EFL teachers working in the department is not sufficient to meet the needs of such a large number of students as shown in table1.1.

Table 1.1:DLED Students’ and Teachers’ Number Based on 2019-2020 Statistics

Number of EFL students					Number of Teachers			
Bachelor’s degree			Master’s Degree (all specialties)		Total	Full time Teacher	Part-time Teacher	Total
First Year	Second Year	Third Year	First Year	Second Year	1616	36	19	55
392	320	333	370	202				

As mentioned previously, the LMD system was launched in Algeria in the academic year 2004-2005 with the intent to gradually replace the classical system. Thus, it was applied in DLU of Sidi Bel-Abbes starting from the year 2008-2009 and its implementation was completed as regards the first cycle; the Bachelor degree, by 2011. However, the classical system continued to be applied in conjunction with the LMD system in the second cycle, hence the Magister degree was available alongside with the Master degree for until recently. In contrast, the enrollment in the third cycle i.e.: the Doctoral degree is still available in the two systems, the time of the achievement of this research work.

1.6.2.2. Admission Requirements to DLU English Department

As regards the admission requirements to the English Department of Djilali Liabes University (DLU), they are similarly based on the students’ average mark in the BAC exam. It is worth noting that all streams are accepted at the English Department, yet the streams are classified into priorities based on the nature of the stream i.e.: students from the stream that is the most related to the discipline has the first priority to enrol in this discipline. As such, the Foreign Languages stream is conceived as priority one to join the English Department, followed by the Literature and Philosophy stream as priority two and the remaining streams all grouped as priority three. The following table illustrates the admission requirements to the DLU English Department over the last ten years.

Table 1.2: Admission Requirements at DLU English Department over the Past Ten Years

Discipline/ course of Study	Academic year	Admission requirements in DLU English Department			
		General Requirements			Specific Requirements
		BAC Minimum Mark/Series and Priorities			
English Language		Priority 01: Foreign Languages	Priority 01: Literature and Philosophy	Priority 01: • Mathematics • Technical Mathematics • Economy and Management • Experimental Sciences	English mark during the BAC exam
	2010	10.02	10.02	/	Ten and above
	2011	10.01	10.00	/	Eleven and above
	2012	10.00	10.15	10.02	
	2013	10.15	10.10	10.00	
	2014	10.03	10.07	10.89	
	2015	10.00	10.00	11.03	
	2016	10.05	10.06	10.02	
	2017	10.00	10.01	10.00	
	2018	10.02	10.09	11.13	
2019	10.11	11.02	12.13		

As illustrated in the table above there is no significant change in the admission mark over the last ten years, it ranged from 10.00 as the lowest mark to 12.13 as the highest for the

three priorities. This makes the study of English in the English Department of DLU accessible to many students regardless of their stream and may account for the big size of this Department. It is actually the largest department in DLU University with the number of students constantly increasing over time. It is also worth mentioning that these requirements differ from one department to another as illustrated in the table below which compares between a small sample of Algerian universities.

Table 1.3: Admission Requirements to the English Course among Some Algerian Universities

Academic Year		Admission Requirements (Minimum BAC Mark)				
		2010	2016	2017	2018	2019
UNIV. TIZI-OUZOU		12.69	11.27	10.53	10.80	11.36
		13.99	12.30	11.47	11.78	12.40
		-	13.55	12.66	12.95	13.66
UNIV. CHLEF		12.13	10.90	10.70	10.41	11.36
		13.36	11.94	11.70	11.36	12.41
		-	13.10	12.83	12.52	13.68
UNIV. LAGUOUAT		10.41	10.09	10.00	10.04	10.41
		11.47	10.02	10.91	10.67	11.37
		-	10.23	12.05	11.77	12.50
UNIV. BEJAIA		13.05	11.57	11.07	10.77	11.48
		14.44	12.62	12.08	11.74	12.64
		-	14.00	13.38	12.91	14.00
UNIV. MASCARA		11.73	10.02	10.00	10.00	NC
		12.9	10.00	10.04	10.02	NC
		-	10.02	10.01	10.05	NC
C.UNIV. EL-OUED		11.65	11.05	10.00	10.00	10.00
		12.86	12.00	10.91	10.01	10.30
		-	13.22	12.01	10.05	11.35
UNIV. MOSTAGANEM		12.09	10.00	10.00	10.20	11.34
		13.3	10.63	10.17	11.11	12.37
		-	11.70	10.50	12.33	13.77
UNIV. SAIDA		10.96	10.00	10.02	10.00	10.35
		12.21	10.00	10.00	10.30	11.42
		-	10.90	10.00	11.30	12.53
UNIV. GHARDAIA		/	11.44	10.46	10.00	10.00
		/	12.51	11.24	10.69	10.90
			14.20	12.39	11.78	12.12
UNIV. SOUK AHRAS		/	10.36	10.74	10.02	10.54
		/	11.32	11.75	10.07	11.51
			12.42	12.84	10.07	12.90
UNIV. TLEMCEN		12.19	11.11	10.00	10.12	10.68
		13.49	12.15	10.57	11.04	11.76
		-	13.36	11.55	12.15	12.83
UNIV. SIDI BEL- ABBES		10.02	10.05	10.00	10.02	10.11
		10.02	10.06	10.01	10.09	11.02
		-	10.02	10.00	11.13	12.13

This table shows clearly the nonuniformity of the admission requirements to the English departments across the Algerian universities in spite that they are the state ownership. Generally, such nonuniformity is observed when higher education institutions belong to the private sector, the case of many European countries, where each university sets its own requirements. It is also clear from the above table (marks in bold type) that with the exception of Tlemcen, the Western Universities seem to have the lowest admission marks with Sidi Bel-Abbes at the lowest position. Such situation resulted in the enrollment of many students in the DLU English Department coming from Tlemcen University, where the admission mark was relatively higher, particularly in the academic year 2016-2017. This caused a considerable increase in the number of EFL students of DLU and creating as such troubles both to the students who were obliged to live their town and the receiving department which had to face an amplified problem of the large class size and the lack of the pedagogical material.

Comparing the admission requirements to the English department across the Algerian universities may give rise to a number of questions: why such differences between the Algerian universities and why are the Western universities less demanding? Do the other universities offer a better quality education which may justify their higher requirements? Is it the good results of the BAC exam in these regions which dictate such requirements on these universities? If it is the case then why do secondary school students in these regions perform better than their counterparts in the Western region? Or is it just a coincidence? It is obviously beyond the scope of this work to provide answers to these questions, but it would be interesting to consider such questions for further research.

Algerian students usually join the English Department for a variety of reasons. Some students are intrinsically motivated in choosing English as a specialty of academic career; they simply like the language and speaking English is their utmost objective. Others are extrinsically motivated and perceive English as a means to fulfil other objectives that can vary

from promoting their mobility and employability, to imitating a beloved ex EFL teacher to simply fulfilling the wish of someone else; their parents for example. These two categories may include students who study English as their first diploma and those who have already graduated in one discipline and are interested in gaining a second diploma in English to enrich their curriculum vitae.

Unfortunately, as mentioned previously, many students land at the English Department without any intention of being there. They come generally from scientific streams drawn by their BAC marks which do not corroborate with their academic expectations. Some of them are motivated enough to redo their BAC and eventually join the specialty of their interest, others succeed to adapt themselves to the new situation helped by their satisfactory potential in EFL while a considerable number are lost in between; they have neither the motivation and driving force to repeat their BAC nor the EFL knowledge that enables them to succeed in this unchosen specialty. In addition to this category, it is worth mentioning that those students who choose EFL as their first choice do not all have the adequate level to pursue university studies and most of them face difficulties to graduate or even worse are obliged to give up.

Yet, the inadequate requirements suggested by the English Department which allow students getting ten (10) during the BAC exam to join the Department, these requirements give false expectations to the new candidates who are sooner or later disappointed by their final outcome. Undoubtedly, these students have the right to realize their dream in learning English, yet there are other alternatives to help them enhance their level and fulfil their objective. Such alternatives and others will be discussed in the last chapter as part of recommendations.

1.6. Research Population

The population targeted in this study is the EFL undergraduate students or the students of the Bachelor' degree. As the latter is the first degree in the LMD system adopted by the Algerian university, it is then the first significant step towards advanced studies in the English language. It is even the basis since students at this level start to major in English. They review subjects that they have already studied in pre-university education, but with more details, and discover new subjects that widen their knowledge in and about the target language.

As for the selection of the research population sample, it was actually determined by the working location of the researcher. Such sampling is known as convenience sampling. Dörnyei (2007) explains this type of sampling stating that: "*captive audiences such as students in the researchers' own institution are prime examples of convenience sampling.*" (In Farrokhi & Mahmoudi-Hamidabad, 2012, p. 785). So, the study took place at the English Department of Djilali Liabes University in the province of Sidi Bel Abbes where the researcher was recruited and the participants were sampled from the same department as they were close to hand. The focus of the study was on the first year, i.e. the freshman year and the third year or the senior year and the aim behind this choice was twofold:

1. To demonstrate students' need for general academic vocabulary regardless of their level.
2. To demonstrate students' difficulty to learn academic vocabulary by relying only on themselves and on their exposure to the language and subsequently to draw attention to their need for their teachers' support through explicit vocabulary instruction.

So, two groups from DLED have been selected to participate in the current research with thirty three (33) participants from the first year and thirty four (34) from the third year.

In addition to the students, the EFL teachers of the department were also involved in the present study as they were invited to respond to a questionnaire which aimed at discovering their attitudes towards the problem under investigation. The department has more than fifty teachers as shown in table 1.1., yet the teachers targeted were those in charge of the undergraduate level during the accomplishment of the study. The detailed description of these participants will be displayed in the third chapter along with the analysis of the data gathered from the different research tools.

1.7. Research Design

Educational research is like Social research in that it “*involves detective work. [We] begin with a problem and then ask a number of questions about it, such as ‘what?’, ‘who?’, ‘where?’, ‘when?’, ‘how?’ and ‘why?’*” (Gilbert, 2001, p. 86). Bearing these questions in mind and trying to answer at least some of them, the researcher relied on a mixed method design for the need to comprehend and tackle the research problematic from different perspectives. This is in conformity with the researchers’ beliefs concerning the benefits of this research design as expressed by Creswell et al. (2007): “*the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches in combination provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone*” (p.5). Owing to Johnson et al. (2007), this type of research is used when a quantitative and a qualitative method are involved either at the level of the methodology, the data collection and analysis tools or the purpose behind the mixing of the methods.

Mixed methods research is the type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g., use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration. (p. 123)

The current research employed a mixed method at the level of the data collection and interpretation tools. The vocabulary test provided the researcher with a quantitative data, i.e.:

evaluation of the amount of the participants' academic vocabulary knowledge. The observation, the corpus and focus groups usually supplied qualitative information about the participants, whereas the questionnaire made both quantitative and qualitative data available depending on the type of questions included, yet its interpretation was most of the time quantitative. As stated by De Lisle: "*Education has always been a core field for mixed methods research*" (2011, p. 95) and the rationale for the use of such design is often to: "*emphasize complementarity and expansion... and triangulation*" (ibid) which is the case for the present study.

1.8. Research Tools:

To help answer the research questions along with assuring the validity of the results a set of research tools, namely two vocabulary tests, classroom observation and two questionnaires have been utilized in this study. Moreover, this variety of tools is believed to help better understand the problematic by studying it from different perspectives. As the students and the teachers are the pillars of any teaching/learning situation, the investigation of the success or failure or the quality of such situations relies heavily on the study of the behaviours and attitudes of these pillars i.e.: students and teachers. Hence, the current study endeavoured to select tools that can better decipher students' and teachers' perspectives as illustrated in the following figure.

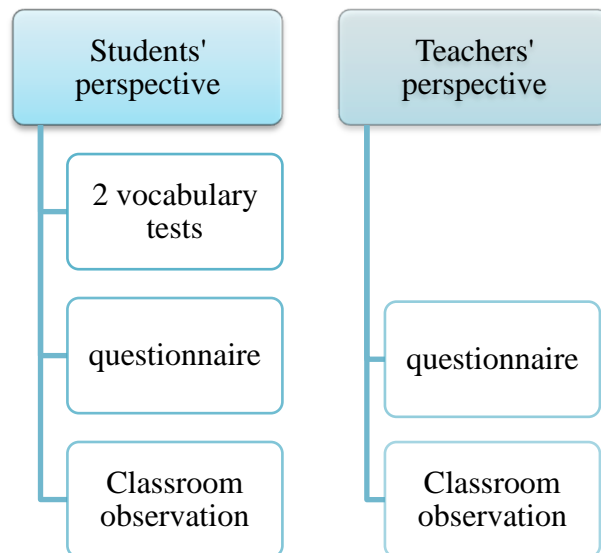


Figure 1.1: Research Tools Dealing with Teachers' and Students' Perspectives

As shown in this figure the tools used to uncover the students' perspective as regards vocabulary learning/teaching at the tertiary level included two vocabulary tests and a questionnaire, whereas the teachers' perspective has been addressed using a questionnaire. Finally, both teachers' and students' behaviour and attitude towards academic vocabulary have been observed during the delivery of a set of lectures in some teaching subjects.

1.8.1. Vocabulary Test

Testing learners' vocabulary has become an integral part of language teaching and vocabulary instruction. The importance of vocabulary testing stems from the informative nature of its outcome. Both researchers and educators rely on the information gathered from learners' scores in vocabulary tests to design lessons and teaching material, to identify language learners' weaknesses and strength, to decide about remedial work, to place learners in a specific class/course, to know the size of learners' vocabulary at a specific grade/level or age, or even to study the difference between native and non-native speakers of a language. In this regards, Schmitt & Schmitt (2001) state that:

Vocabulary is an essential building block of language and, as such, it makes sense to be able to measure learners’ knowledge of it. This is equally true whether we are interested in pedagogical assessment in classrooms or in language acquisition research. (p. 55)

So, many tests have been developed either for research or educational purposes. The following table provides a sample of the most common tests that have been developed the last three decades and that can be used for both purposes.

Table 1.4: Sample of Existing Vocabulary Tests

Test	Research	Receptive/ productive
EVST (Eurocentre Vocabulary Size Test)	Meara & Jones, 1988	Receptive
VLT(Vocabulary Levels Test)	Nation, 1990	Receptive
WAT (Word Associates Test)	Read, 1998	Receptive
PVLT(Productive Vocabulary Levels Test)	Laufer & Nation, 1999	Productive
VLT v.2 (Vocabulary Levels Test Two Versions)	Schmitt, Schmitt & Clapham, 2001	Receptive
VST (Vocabulary Size Test)	Nation & Beglar, 2007	Receptive
PVST (Phrasal Vocabulary Size Test)	Martinez & Schmitt, 2012	Receptive
PVST (Picture Vocabulary Size Test)	Anthony & Nation, 2017	Receptive
GCT (Guessing from Context Test)	Sasao & Webb, 2018	Receptive
CATSS (Computer Adaptive Test of Size & Strength)	Levitzky-Aviad, Laufer & Goldstein , 2019	Both
AWLT (Academic World List Test)	Designed and trialled by Andrea Flavell and revised by Paul Nation (n.d)	Receptive

As can be seen from the table above, most of these tests test learners’ receptive knowledge of vocabulary. This is because it is easier to test the size of learners’ receptive vocabulary than their productive vocabulary. Receptive vocabulary tests use generally multiple choice formats or yes/no format and these formats as stated by Eyckmans (2004) are:

simple to construct and set minimal demands on the testee and as a result of the format's simplicity a large number of words can be covered in a short time span, which allows obtaining a reliable estimate of vocabulary size. (p. 5)

Obtaining a reliable size of the participants' vocabulary is certainly one of the objectives of the current study. Given that at the university level EFL students need to possess an adequate amount of both high frequency and general academic vocabulary, two vocabulary tests have been administered to the participants; the first focusing only on evaluating the size of students' general academic vocabulary, and the second evaluating the size of their overall vocabulary knowledge including the high frequency vocabulary. To this end the study relied on the Academic Word List (AWL) test and the Vocabulary Size Test (VST) from Nation and Beglar (2007).

1.8.1.1. The Academic Word List Test

The Academic Word List (AWL) was developed by Averil Coxhead in 2000 and is assumed to contain the most frequently occurring vocabulary in academic context and which is estimated to 570 word families (for more details see chapter two, page 83). The AWL test is based on this list and it is made freely available for users on Coxhead website at Victoria University⁵. The test has in fact two versions A and B (see appendix one and two respectively) and they both test receptive knowledge of the words in the Academic Word List (Coxhead, 2000). This latter has ten sublists, nine lists of 60 words, and one list of 30 words.

The tests are based on a sample from each of these sublists. Each test has 57 items, with six items from the nine sublists of 60 words and three items from the unique sublist of 30 words. Thus, the 57 items of the tests are assumed to represent the 570 word families of the AWL and consequently a learner's score on one test should be multiplied by ten to estimate the total number of words known (see appendix 3: the test notes and answers). So, if a learner

⁵Coxhead's website : <https://www.victoria.ac.nz/lals/about/staff/averil-coxhead>

for instance answers correctly 16 items, he/she is assumed to know 160 out of the 570 words in the Academic Word List. The AWL test uses word–definition matching format and requires the users to match the words to the definitions as illustrated by the following sample.

Table 1.5:Sample from the AWL Test Version A

A Test of the Academic Word List: Test A

Instructions

Choose a word on the left that matches a meaning on the right. Write the number of that word next to its meaning. Here is an example:

- | | | |
|-------------|-------|----------------------------|
| 1. business | | |
| 2. clock | _____ | part of a house |
| 3. horse | _____ | animal with four legs |
| 4. pencil | _____ | something used for writing |
| 5. shoe | | |
| 6. wall | | |

So, there are six items/words on the left and only three definitions on the right and test takers are required to choose three out of the six words from the left and match them to their corresponding meaning on the right by writing the numbers of the words next to their meanings or definitions. As the AWL consists of the most frequent academic vocabulary, it was assumed that using a test based on this list would be a reasonable choice to evaluate whether DL EFL students are familiar with this type of vocabulary considered relevant to any learner of English at the university level.

1.8.1.2. Vocabulary Size Test

The second test used in this study was the Vocabulary Size Test (VST) developed by Nation and Beglar (2007); the choice of this test was driven by a number of reasons:

1. *“It is a proficiency measure used to determine how much vocabulary learners know”* (ibid, p. 10), in other words it measures the vocabulary size of the learner or the test-taker.

2. Thus, the test measures different frequency words; hence including both high frequency and academic words which is the focus of the study.
3. The test is freely available online and thus is accessible to everyone and easy to use.

Laufer and Nation (1999) claim that based on the frequency of occurrence of words in a given language, the vocabulary of that language could be divided into a series of word levels. They accordingly conceive the English vocabulary as consisting of a number of levels each level consisting of about 1000 words which are grouped based on their frequency. The first level i.e.: the first 1000 words include the most frequent 1000 words in English language, the second level includes the second 1000 most frequent words in English followed by the third 1000 most frequent words and so on. The VST used in this study and developed by Nation and Baglar (2007) covers fourteen (14) vocabulary levels (see appendix four). With ten items from each level the test contains 140 items which means that it samples from the 14,000 most frequent words in the English language. The following picture captures a sample of this test.

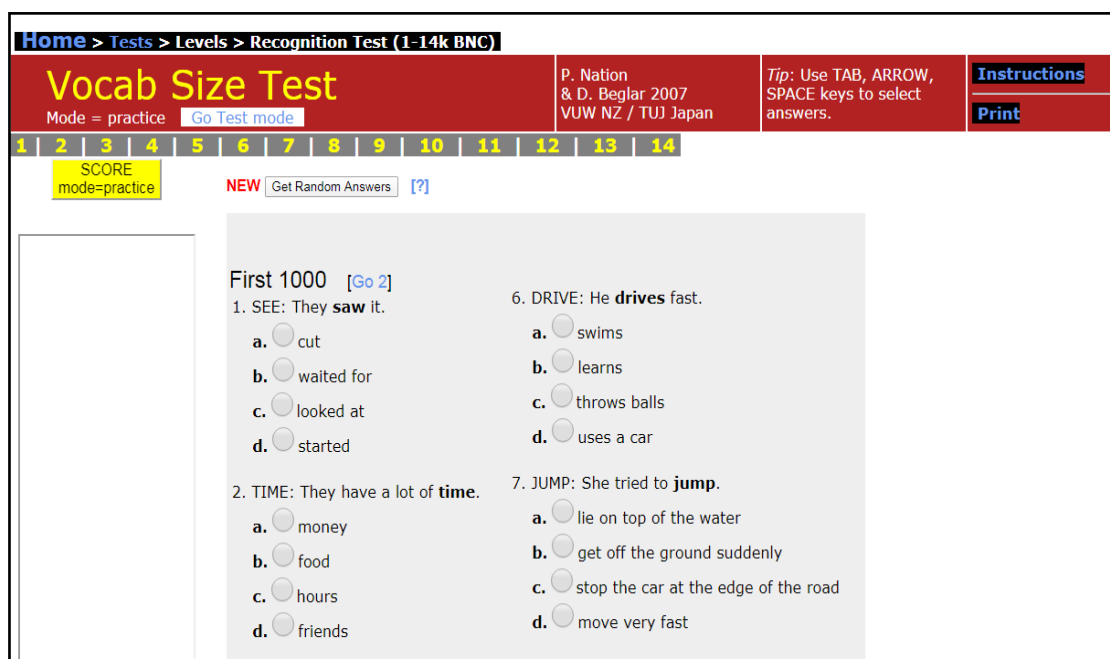


Figure 1.2: Webpage Capture of the Vocabulary Size Test

As seen in the above picture, the test has a multiple choice format and is divided into fourteen sections and each section consists of ten questions sampled from each of the fourteen

thousand-levels list. In each question, test-takers are presented with the target word written in capital letters; first in isolation, followed by a non-defining context sentence, with four suggested meanings, and the test-taker has to choose the right meaning that corresponds to the word in capital letters by clicking in the small circle besides the selected meaning.

For instance, in the first 1000 section, question number one is about the word ‘SEE’, it is followed by an example sentence which is ‘They **saw** it’. But, the sentence does not provide the test taker with any cues that help in guessing the meaning of the target word. Besides, the four suggested options belong to the same part of speech, that is if the target word is a verb, the options are also verbs, and can fit well in the provided sentence. This entails that the test takers need to rely only on their knowledge of the words’ meaning to get the correct answer (Nation & Beglar, 2007).

The test can be used by all English users, but it targets more non-native speakers of English to measure their “*knowledge of written word form, the form-meaning connection, and to smaller degree concept knowledge*” (Nation, 2012). Nation & Beglar (2007) claim that one of the important reasons to measure English language learners’ vocabulary size is to “*see how close the learner is to having enough vocabulary to be able to perform certain tasks such as read a novel, read newspapers, watch movies, and listen to friendly conversations*” (Nation et al, 2007, p. 9). In parallel, the researchers provide an estimate of the size of vocabulary required to perform each of these tasks as exposed in the following table.

Table 1.6: Vocabulary Sizes Needed to Get 98% of Text Coverage (adapted from Nation & Beglar, 2007)

Texts	98% coverage	Proper nouns
Novels	9,000 word families	1-2%
Newspapers	8,000 word families	5-6%
Children’s movies	6,000 word families	1.5%
Spoken English	7, 000 word families	1.3%

Based on this table an English language learner needs to know from 8,000 to 9,000 word families to understand texts of academic type without assistance. Obviously this amount of vocabulary does not consist only of academic vocabulary. It rather includes, for a large part, high frequency words which are a prerequisite in EFL learning.

1.8.1.3. Administration of the Tests

The study started by administering the participants the two vocabulary tests to evaluate the size of their vocabulary knowledge. While the VST was assigned to the participants only once; at the beginning of the academic year, the AWLT was used twice, at the beginning and again at the end of the academic year with the same participants. This served two main objectives:

- The first objective was to evaluate the participants' vocabulary entry profile and thus to provide evidence to hypothesis number one about the limited (academic) vocabulary knowledge of the students.
- The second objective was to evaluate the students' exit profile, i.e.: to verify whether or not students succeeded to enlarge their general academic vocabulary; simply through exposure to the language in the different teaching subjects and accordingly to check the extent of this acquisition by comparing the result of the two profile tests as a response to hypothesis two.

It is worth noting that the VST is available both in print copy and online⁶, in a computerized format. Because of some constraints (see limitations of the study) and because the VST is quite long, students were provided with the link to the test and were invited to take the test and send their results to the researcher via email. However, there is no computerized format for the AWL test, and since it is short, the participants were provided with a print copy

⁶ Available at : <https://www.lex tutor.ca/tests/vst/>

of the test and the test was achieved during two teaching sessions, at the beginning and the end of the academic year as pre-test and post-test.

1.8.2. Classroom Observation

To gain insights into teachers' and students' practices and behaviours as regards (general academic) vocabulary teaching/learning, the current study opted for the use of another research tool; classroom observation which is termed by Szulevicz (2013): "*outdoor or field-based observations*" (p. 3). He explains that the significance of such observation stems from the fact that it takes place in the natural setting of the participants' everyday life which is, in the case of EFL students, the classroom setting. Szulevicz claims that: "*observational methods play a significant role in scientific research, and in educational research for example, there have been many observational studies that have been specifically designed to describe specific educational phenomena*" (ibid, p. 2). Hence, the phenomenon, in the case of the present study, is the EFL undergraduate learners' limited academic vocabulary knowledge and their need for explicit vocabulary instruction.

Malderez defines observation as a comprehensive phenomenon that includes a number of simultaneous actions namely seeing, hearing, perceiving, assessing, and interpreting (2003, p. 179). She explains that the primary aim of researchers when leading an observation is to generate descriptions and credible explanations of the studied phenomena (ibid, p. 181). Thus, the result of an observation is expected to be a realistic descriptive account of the situation or the behaviour under study which is the leading reason for incorporating this tool into our research.

Nonetheless, the observed participants; teachers and students alike, are often influenced by the presence and the activities of an outside observer. Lasagabaster *et al* (2011) report that novice as well as experienced teachers "*dislike and even fear being observed, as they find classroom observation stressful and intimidating*" (p. 450). Equally, Barócsi

(2007) states that: “*observers may cause conscious or subconscious frustration and pressure as well as having an impact on the classroom dynamics*” (p. 129). More importantly, Ahola et al claim that when the researcher chooses to be a non-participant or a neutral observer, he/she “*is able to remain detached from the society under study*” (1981, p. 78), but such position “*denies him or her opportunities to witness activities at which only group members are present*” (ibid). The case of this study necessitated from the researcher to be a neutral observer as we needed to observe not only the participants who are students, but also their teachers whose behaviours and practices are expected to inform us about vocabulary instruction at the university level.

Taking this into account, researchers need to find ways to check the validity of the data obtained from classroom observation. The main ways of assessing validity in ethnographic research in general and educational research in particular, often include, but are not limited to, replication, reflexivity, triangulation and respondent validation (Mays et al, 2000). In the current study, the researcher relied on triangulation to check on the validity of the classroom observations’ findings by crosschecking them with findings of other tools namely the focus group, the students’ and teachers’ questionnaires as well as the students’ tests and exam corpus.

So, in the present study a number of classes from different teaching subjects were selected for observation to verify whether both teachers and students show concern in (general) academic vocabulary and whether either of them uses techniques and strategies to allow vocabulary acquisition to take place in classroom setting. The major aim is to check out if students, apart from exposure to the language, are provided with opportunities, i.e.: explicit instruction to learn academic vocabulary during the observed teaching subjects.

To achieve such objective the researcher had to decide on what to observe, when, and what method to use for observing. The answer was to utilize a check-list for the advantages it offers as stated by BCIT⁷ (2010):

A checklist is a tool for identifying the presence or absence of conceptual knowledge, skills, or behaviours. Checklists are used for identifying whether key tasks in a procedure, process, or activity have been completed. The tasks may be a sequence of steps or include items to verify that the correct sequence was followed. You may need to observe the tasks being followed because, in general, you cannot judge what tasks the learner did from the end product. Remember that some attitudes may be indirectly observed. (p. 2)

Thus, the check-list used in this study was constructed based on the previously mentioned objectives by turning them into a list of items that are observable and measurable. The following table illustrates this check-list in its final form.

Table 1.7: Classroom Observation Check-list

Level/Group:	Academic Year:				Module:				Lecture title:			
Vocabulary Items	Asked by		Answered by		Type of information provided					Type of vocabulary		
	T	S	T	S	Def	Syn	Ant	Trans	Eg. sentence	T.1	T.2	T.3

The first part of the table with its two lines include general information about the observed phenomenon including the level and group number of the students under observation, the academic year and semester as well as the teaching subject and the title of the observed lecture. The remaining part of the table is devoted to the items being observed. Thus, the researcher tried to check whether the participants; teachers and students, show any concern in vocabulary by recording:

⁷ British Columbia Institute of Technology : BCIT

- any word discussed in class in the first column of the second part,
- the source of inquiry about that word; if it is the student or the teacher who asks the question, in column two,
- the provider of the information; whether it is the student or the teacher who replies to the inquiry, with the type of information in the third column and,
- the type of vocabulary targeted by the participants in the last column. To distinguish between the different types of vocabulary, the researcher will rely on her commonsense that is based on the definitions of the tree tiers of vocabulary provided in the second chapter. Besides, we will use two other references that are the General Service List (GSL) and the Academic Word List (AWL) that are also discussed in the review chapter. So, any word belonging to the GSL is a basic and a very high-frequency word and therefore belongs to tier 1 vocabulary. Likewise, any word belonging to the AWL is a general academic vocabulary and thus belongs to tier 2 vocabulary. For the vocabulary that does not belong to any of the two lists, we will rely obviously on the meaning of the word and on the Collins Dictionary, for the reason that it is the only online dictionary, to our knowledge, that provides the frequency of its words.

By proceeding in such a way, the researcher aims at answering questions such as who is interested in vocabulary. Do students need and seek their teachers' help by asking them to clarify the meaning of unfamiliar words? Do teachers seek to support their students understand the content and develop their vocabulary knowledge by explaining words spontaneously without being asked by their students to do so? If such practices actually take place, what then is their frequency? And what type of vocabulary receives much of the participants' interest or rather cause more difficulty to students? Finally, as these questions have been tackled in the questionnaires, the researcher aimed at verifying whether the

participants' claims in the questionnaires were borne out in practice which is another reason behind the use of the classroom observation.

1.8.3. Questionnaire

Given the benefits that questionnaires offer in educational research as regards data collection, the researcher made use of two questionnaires addressed to the participants; teachers and students alike. This research tool generally provides users with both qualitative and quantitative data which makes the questionnaires: *“the basis of every survey-based statistical measurement. They are by far the most important measurement instruments statisticians use to grasp the phenomena to be measured”* (Brancato et al., 2014, p. 1). The questionnaire is also useful as it allows the researcher to address the same set of questions to a great number of individuals (De Vaus, 1996).

1.9.3.1. Teachers' Questionnaire

The first questionnaire was addressed to the EFL teachers of DLU to investigate their opinion about the role academic vocabulary actually plays in their students' academic achievement, i.e.: the extent to which academic vocabulary contributes to their students' comprehension of the content of their teaching subject as well as to the enhancement of their overall academic language proficiency. It also aimed to take advantage of their expertise and find out how they manage, as language practitioners, to overcome the deficiency in their students' vocabulary knowledge and what strategies and techniques, if any, they employ to enable EFL students enrich their academic vocabulary so as to enhance their comprehension and learning of the academic register.

More importantly, the researcher's leading objectives were first to uncover teachers' opinion and beliefs regarding the maturity and autonomy of undergraduate students' at the DLU English Department and if such autonomy is sufficient to make students take responsibility of their learning in general and the learning of vocabulary in particular. The

second objective was to find out what teachers actually think about the explicit teaching of academic vocabulary to undergraduate students considered generally as (young) adult learners.

With these objectives in mind, the questionnaire, made up of eighty (18) questions (see appendix five), is divided into two parts; each part focuses on one objective. The first part or section is obviously devoted to the tracing of the participants' profile, hence its title: *Identification and Background*. The second section; constituting the core of the questionnaire, is dedicated to the scrutiny of the participants' beliefs and practices.

The questionnaire also comprises both closed-ended questions which: *"tend to be easier to answer and require less effort when interpreting the results - they are directly comparable to answers by other respondents"*(Beiske, 2002)and open-ended questions used for the sake of gathering: *"a wide range of responses that help to capture the flavour of people's answers, while not influencing the outcome of the question by pre-determining possible responses"* (ibid). Thus, the first type of questions helps to check information that is somehow already predefined in the study, whereas the second type secures a certain freedom to the participants who can voice their thoughts and then enable the researcher to fine-tune and widen her perception of the research problematic.

1.9.3.2. Students' Questionnaire

Along with the investigation of teachers' beliefs, the study sought the uncovering of students' perceptions regarding a number of issues mainly their own assessment of their language proficiency and vocabulary knowledge, their autonomy, and their attitudes vis a-vis their teachers' support through the explicit teaching of vocabulary. These beliefs or perceptions were thus the target of a questionnaire distributed to first and second year undergraduate students of Djilali Liabes English Department (DLED).

Students' questionnaire (see appendix six) was structured like teachers' questionnaire in that it was also divided into two different sections. The first section dealt with the participants' general information and the second revolved around the previously stated objectives, through a combination of closed and open-ended questions. The results were then compared with teachers' answers to find out any convergence or divergence between teachers' and students' beliefs with regards to the issues under study.

1.9. Limitations of the Study

It is worth mentioning that our study has got some limitations that are the result of a number of constraints faced during the accomplishment of this humble work. The following is quite a personal constraint, but it more or less influenced the course of the study. The start of this research coincided with the recruitment of the researcher at the DLU English Department and as a novice teacher in charge of subjects that were not part of her specialty (cultural studies and linguistics), the researcher found it quite hard to make some time for the achievement of the fieldwork. So, the two first years were dedicated to the preparation of lectures along with the review of the literature relevant to the research topic. When the fieldwork started in the third year, it was interrupted by a number of out of control events.

The first event was the strikes that took place in different Algerian universities the last few years. Hence, the closure of DLU English Department, during the academic year 2017-2018, due to students' strike deprived the researcher of access to the sample population and therefore delayed the commencement of the fieldwork and the collection of the data. As the research tools included a vocabulary pre-test and post-test to measure the participants' entry and exit profile, it was indispensable to have access to the participants at the beginning and end of the academic year. And because the remaining tools; the questionnaires and the classroom observation, had to deal with the same population sample, the whole study was

postponed to the fourth year. The latter also witnessed an unprecedented event; the Hirak⁸ movement that affected not only the university but Algeria as a whole. Because of Hirak, Algerian universities closed and the academic year; mainly the second semester was abridged to avoid the risk of a blank year and subsequently there was no room for achieving the tests during the teaching sessions.

Then, nearly the same scenario repeated itself in the fifth year, the pandemic caused by the corona-virus, crippled schools and universities, not only at the local level, but also worldwide. This series of events forced the closure of our Department; the setting of the current research, and made access to the participant difficult. Then, instead of following the progress of the same participants over the three years of their Bachelor's studies; from their first year to their second and third year, we were obliged to restrict our research to a comparison between two levels within the same academic year; the first and third year, which reduced our fieldwork to the minimum period of one year. Another limitation was the achievement of the VST online, its length and the difficulty to access students during the teaching sessions, determined the choice of this option. In spite of its many benefits, it does not guaranty the nonuse of dictionaries by the participants which can bias the test results.

Furthermore, the psychological impact of the above-mentioned events on students and teachers alike was felt in their reluctance to answer the research tools. The questionnaire was handed many times to both participants, but only a small number of copies were returned and many were not fully filled out, especially the open-ended questions which were then turned into multiple-choice questions. The same situation nearly happened with the AWLT which was partially answered by many students. The exclusion of incomplete tests and questionnaires eventually limited the size of the sample population which certainly prevents the generalizability of the research findings.

⁸A peaceful and citizen-led movement that took place in 2019 in Algeria against the candidacy of the President Abdelaziz Bouteflika for a fifth presidential term

1.10. Conclusion

The significance of foreign language learning in general and English learning in particular in our time is reflected in the constant search for the best ways to achieve the betterment of learners' proficiency level in the target language. Enhancing learners' academic vocabulary knowledge is one of these ways that seek to promote the learning of English for academic purposes (EAP). To discover whether this teaching principle which is supported by scientific research is bridged into pedagogy, the current study examined teachers' beliefs regarding vocabulary instruction at the tertiary level. It focused mainly on the link between explicit teaching, academic vocabulary learning and learners' autonomy.

To this end, a combination of qualitative and quantitative research tools have been used including two questionnaires, two vocabulary tests and classroom observation. The tests tackled students' vocabulary knowledge to check whether the lexical profile of Algerian undergraduate students matches the standards of their academic level. The questionnaires and the classroom observation were meant to explore the beliefs and practices of both students and their teachers in terms of vocabulary learning/teaching. The main aim of this variety was to cross-check the findings of each tool and to have a comprehensive scrutiny of the research problem from students and teachers' perspectives.

Chapter Two:
Literature Review

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2.1. Introduction

This second chapter attempts to offer an overview of the main researches supporting the significant role of academic vocabulary in learning English for academic purposes. The first part of the chapter is therefore dedicated to the elucidation of the key concepts related to this topic, namely BICS and CALP. It begins by drawing a comparison between academic English and social English with a special focus on the former being the foremost objective of English learners at the tertiary level. Accordingly, the chapter tries to shed light on Cummins' theory which emphasizes the need to make a distinction between CALP and BICS, and then it discusses the implication of this theory in the EFL/ESL context.

In the second part of the chapter, the focus shifts to academic vocabulary considered the main element that differentiates between the two types of discourse. First, it displays its main characteristics, and then it discusses explicit instruction as an appropriate method to approach vocabulary teaching to university students in relation to their cognitive maturity and autonomy. The last part of the chapter addresses the issue of vocabulary selection with a reference to the main word lists designed for English language learners and then it highlights the underlying principles that steer vocabulary teaching. Finally, the chapter ends with a traditional, but unavoidable and everlasting debate that is teacher's role in achieving quality in education in general and in vocabulary instruction in particular.

2.2. Academic Language vs. Social Language

Researchers' high interest in the human linguistic communication has resulted in the distinction between language acquisition and language learning as two diverse processes; and to the differentiation between first language, second language and foreign language as outcomes of these processes. Furthermore, the scrutiny of the two processes; acquisition vs. learning, revealed that there are two types of discourse within each language. Each type of discourse is shaped and molded by the context and the setting in which it is used.

In this respect, Cummins, J., claims that the language spoken at home and in informal settings differs from the language spoken in the formal and educational context (Cummins, 1979, 1981a, cited in Cummins 2008, p. 71). He calls the former BICS and the latter CALP (ibid). He made this distinction when he investigated the difficulty facing the immigrants living in Canada to assimilate academic English at a time they practically succeeded to use English for social purposes, i.e.: to communicate with the receiving society. The difficulty was clearly reflected in the immigrants' low academic achievement and in the time it took them to master academic English. Cummins' investigation revealed that it took the immigrants about two years to master their BICS whereas they needed from five to seven years to develop their CALP (ibid, p. 72). So, what is meant by BICS and CALP? And what roles do they play in the academic achievement of learners of English as a foreign language?

2.2.1. Social Language (BICS)

As mentioned above, CALP and BICS were developed in an ESL context and accordingly their conception, as provided by Cummins, is tightly linked to the process of learning English as a second language and the associated circumstances. So, BICS refers to Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills. It is simply the basic language used by native speakers in casual conversation. For the (Canadian) immigrants, it refers to the skills that are basic or fundamental to communicate with their receiving society. In other words, BICS is the linguistic ability needed to converse and socialize with one's surrounding on daily basis situations. Cummins (2008) explained it as the: "*conversational fluency in a language*" (p. 71) which clearly restricts BICS to the informal context in its broad meaning. Besides, this type of language takes less time to be acquired compared to CALP simply because as stated by the ESLCATA⁹ (2010), the input or the negotiated meaning is clear and comprehensible:

⁹ ESLCATA: The English as a Second Language Council of the Alberta Teachers' Association.

in day-to-day, face-to-face conversation, meaning is supported by a range of contextual cues such as: a concrete situation, gestures, intonation, facial expression, immediate feedback, negotiation of meaning, etc. This is seldom the case for CALP— academic and textbook language. (p. 3)

As such, this quite rapid acquisition of social language; referred to as: “*day-to-day, face-to-face conversation*”, is due to the fact that ESL learners have the support of the “*context*” which provides them with “*cues*” that facilitate the comprehension of the intended meaning and at the same time facilitate the learning of the means of communication used to convey that meaning, i.e.: BICS.

2.2.2. Academic Language (CALP)

CALP stands for Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency. In short, it is known as academic language (AL) and it is defined as “*a variety of English, as a register, or as a style, and is typically used within specific sociocultural academic settings*” (Anstrom *et al*, 2010, p. 4). As such, and depending on the ‘*sociocultural academic settings*’ academic language can be attributed different definitions. This may be explained by the fact that “*researchers from different philosophies and educational backgrounds approach AE in very different ways*” (ibid). So, while the literature suggests a variety of definitions of AE, the present study is interested in AE in its broadest sense; as ‘the language of schooling’. It is the type of discourse that is characterized with the specific register and style used typically in: “*classroom lessons, books, tests, and assignments, and it’s the language that students are expected to learn and achieve fluency in*” (Hidden Curriculum, 2013). It includes developing fluency and competency in the four language modalities; listening, speaking, reading and writing within an academic setting.

Besides, CALP or AE is the type of discourse required to achieve such activities as comparing and contrasting, synthesizing, evaluating, inferring and classifying that are characteristics of an academic proficiency (Dalton-Puffer 2007, p. 129). The development of

these skills goes hand in hand with the development of the language employed to perform them. To put it simple, CALP is the language needed to achieve the cognitive and academic proficiency throughout one’s educational career.

2.3. Differentiating between BICS and CALP

Distinction between the two types of discourse, i.e.: BICS and CALP, is observed at three main levels that are syntax, vocabulary and discourse style. This is clearly explained by Krashen and Brown (2007) who state that CALP is: “characterized by complex syntax, academic vocabulary, and a complex discourse style” (p.1). Hence, the researchers describe syntax and discourse style as being more complex in CALP than in BICS while they refer to the vocabulary used in CALP as being of academic type or specific to the academic context meaning that it is different from the vocabulary people use in their everyday life. The complexity of the syntax, the vocabulary and the discourse style added to the lack of context clues that are necessary to comprehension; make the learning of CALP a “cognitively demanding” task. The following diagram illustrates the distinction between BICS and CALP as presented by Cummins (1982).

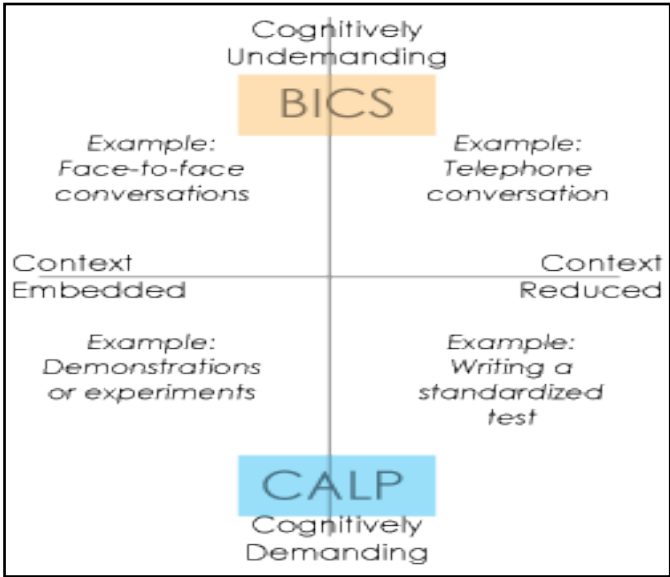


Figure 2.1.: Cummins’ Framework for the Development of Language Proficiency (adopted from Bilash, 2011)

Based on the above framework, Cummins considers BICS cognitively less demanding. In the same line of thought, Deluca(2010) claims that BICS “*relies on simple sentence structures and tenses, concrete “here-and-now” vocabulary, and active voice*” (p. 28). The simplicity of the sentences and the concreteness of the vocabulary justify why BICS is “*cognitively less demanding*” than CALP. More importantly and as mentioned previously, comprehension is supported by context clues like facial expressions, body language, visual and even nonvisual clues and cues, etc which are embedded in this type of discourse and accessible to the interlocutors through the ‘*face-to-face*’ social interaction (ESLCATA, 2010, p. 3).

So, ELLs aiming at achieving success in academic English have to deal with the three components of CALP. That is to say, they have to learn the vocabulary, the grammar and the style that fit this type of discourse. Obviously, this is not an easy task for ELLs, yet building a rich vocabulary seems to be of great benefit as “*it is now widely recognized to be the pivot on which the other components of language revolve*” (Arab, 2015, p. 330). The role academic vocabulary plays in CALP will be discussed later in section 2.6.

2.4. Significance of CALP to English Language learners

Krashen and Brown(2007) emphasize the significance of academic language in the process of second language learning and in the academic career of ELLs as they state: “*We want our students to be able to use their second language for demanding tasks, for business, science, politics, etc beyond carrying out daily conversation.*”(p.1). In the same line, Colorín Colorado (2019) acknowledges the importance of CALP as being the utmost objective of English language learners stating that: “*ELLs come to school not only to learn how to communicate socially, but to become academically proficient in English. Learning social English is just the tip of the iceberg*». Though the need to communicate with the receiving society makes BICS a survival skill and a priority for the ESL learners (immigrants), the

previous quotes accentuate more the significant role of CALP for the future of these learners. This is because if social English; “*the tip of the iceberg*”, is required to socialize with one’s surrounding, academic language, the hidden and the biggest part of the iceberg, is needed not only to achieve success within school, but also to progress within one’s professional career where the formal discourse is predominating. The following diagram illustrates the proportional division between BICS and CALP as presented by Cummins (1982) (cited in Bilash, 2011)

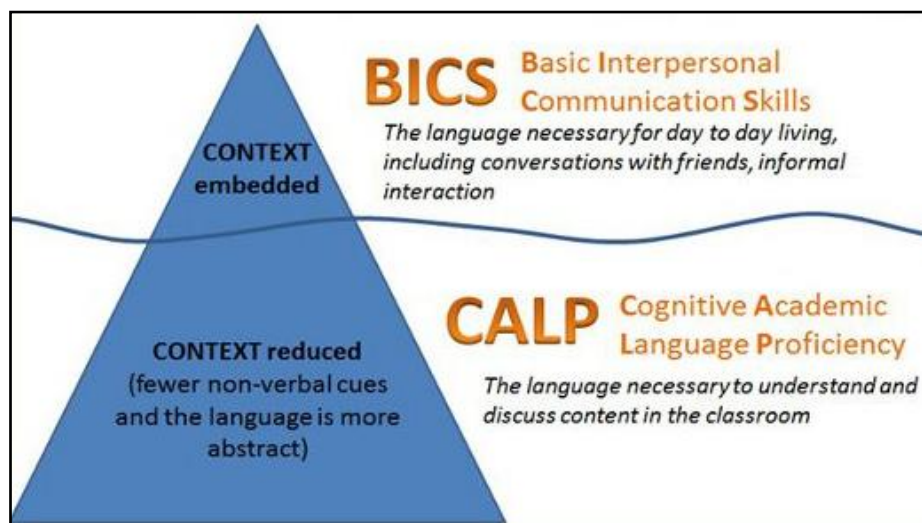


Figure 2.2.: Cummins' Iceberg Theory (adopted from Bilash, 2011)

Mastering academic English has proved to be a valuable means to succeed within the academic world as mentioned by Genç and Bada (2010): “*English has become the official language of the business and scientific world, although in academic and scientific communities, formal English usage is prevalent*” (p. 145). This implies that both ESL and EFL learners are required to further their academic English paving the way to their future career as businesspeople or researchers in the international community. Likewise, citing Narvaez-Berthelemot and Russell (2001), Genç and Bada report that English has become the most important language of publication for journals nowadays (ibid, p. 146)

Similarly, the importance of academic English for academicians is strongly recognized by Viereck (1996, p. 20) who went further to argue that one has to “*publish in*

English or perish” (quoted in Spichtinger, 2000; quoted in Genç& Bada, 2010, p. 146). Thus, English and particularly its academic discourse is regarded a guarantee that assures the wide spread of the researcher’s works and publications. Coleman (2006) summarizes the importance of this variety of English claiming that: “*for the first time in recorded history the entire known world has a shared second language of advanced education*” (p. 6). It is, as a result, the main language needed to learn, browse, decipher and discover the existing knowledge and literature in any research field and accordingly it is a need for both ESL and EFL learners to target the development of their CALP.

2.5. Cummins’ Theory and Its Implication in the EFL Context

CALP and BICS are not two different languages. They are rather two types of discourse characterizing the same language, i.e.: they are two sides of the same coin. So, they complement each other and are equally important as each type is relevant to its specific context. Yet, Canadian immigrants faced troubles with CALP and not with BICS. Therefore, Cummins made the distinction to draw the attention of the ESL educators to the long time needed by ESL learners to achieve progress in CALP as opposed to BICS and to urge them to act accordingly.

Actually, the distinction between CALP and BICS exists in any language. Every language is made up of two types of discourse; a social and an academic discourse. But, it takes less time for a native speaker to master the two types than it takes a nonnative speaker. The interval between the developments of the two types of discourse is quite long for a second language learner than for a native speaker of that language. This obviously implies that the interval would be even longer and the distinction between CALP and BICS would be more prominent for a foreign language learner.

In other words, if BICS takes from two to three years, and CALP from five to seven years to develop in the ESL context where the ESL learners are surrounded by the target

language, it would take a longer time for both types to develop in the EFL context where English is encountered and practised mostly within the classroom environment and for a limited amount of time. Simply put, ESL learners develop their BICS thanks to the “*day-to-day, face-to-face conversation*” with their receiving English community and they develop their CALP, though at a slower rate, through their linguistic immersion during their studies since English is the means of instruction in all the teaching subjects and in all the academic levels. Besides, the quick development of BICS in the ESL context actually helps and supports the ESL learners to master their CALP.

Unfortunately, this is not the case for the EFL learners who usually have an incomplete control of both types of discourse. The situation of CALP and BICS is comparatively different in the EFL context. EFL learners have fairly not the same urgent need for BICS as the ESL learners whose interest in the latter is driven by an integrative motivation (Gardner & Lambert, 1972) and a need to communicate with their receiving society which explains the quick learning of this type of discourse.

Comparatively, for the EFL learners, Academic language seems to be a priority as it is the medium to progress in their educational career. Thus, their interest in CALP is driven by an instrumental motivation (ibid). Besides, in the EFL context, the practice of both types of discourse is limited to the learners’ educational setting which restricts the amount of exposure to the language. Thus, EFL learners face the double challenge of learning CALP and closing the gaps that exist in their BICS and their teachers equally face a challenging and a demanding task which is to assist their learners develop their social and academic English simultaneously and in a relatively short period of time.

2.6. CALP and Academic vocabulary

As stated previously, academic English differs from social English in terms of syntax, vocabulary, and discourse style. Therefore, to assure a quality outcome in academic

language proficiency, ESL/EFL learners need to progress in each of these components. Yet, it is recognized that academic vocabulary has the foremost role in developing academic English. In this respect, Mukoroli (2011) claims that: “*the main barrier to student comprehension of texts and lectures is low academic vocabulary knowledge*” (p. 9). In the same line, Paquot (2010) reports that “*academic vocabulary has generally been described as a major source of difficulty for EFL learners*” (p. 67). This means that EFL/ESL learners’ academic vocabulary is usually limited which obstructs their comprehension and by extension their learning. Krashen (1982) strongly links successful language learning to comprehension and comprehension to vocabulary (cited in Krashen, 2009). Accordingly, if much of the academic vocabulary that is dominant in the lectures and texts is not comprehensible, it stands to reason that learners would face difficulties comprehending the input and assimilating its content.

Some researchers oppose the idea of limiting language learning in general and academic language in particular to the study of vocabulary. Obviously, this is a reasonable claim since vocabulary is not the only constituent of language. Yet, the literature review reflects clearly the crucial role vocabulary knowledge plays in language development and as stated by Widdowson (1989): “*The more one considers the matter, the more reasonable it seems to suppose that lexis is where we need to start from*” (cited in Birch, 2014). Furthermore, it is simply not possible to teach the two other components of CALP, syntax and discourse style, without the support of vocabulary which “*carries the main information load in communication*” (Vermeer, 2001 cited in Hatami& Tavakoli, 2012, p.1) and is therefore the “*building blocks of language*” (Schmitt *et al*, 2001, p. 55). Teaching academic vocabulary which is the dominant register of the academic settings, namely the university level, is then the starting point for developing learners’ AE.

Such belief is shared by a number of researchers whose definitions of academic language (CALP) reflect the primacy of academic vocabulary over the other language

components. For instance, Zwiers (2008) describes academic language as *“the set of words, grammar, and organizational strategies used to describe complex ideas, higher-order thinking processes, and abstract concepts”* (p. 20) while Wilhelm (2007) declares:

When we teach a subject, or any topic or text within that subject, we must teach the academic vocabulary for dealing with it—not just the words, but also the linguistic processes and patterns for delving deeply into and operating upon that content. (p. 44).

Likewise, Bailey (2007) reports that academic English includes knowledge and the ability to *“use general and content-specific vocabulary, as well as specialized or complex grammatical structures – all for the purpose of acquiring new knowledge and skills, interacting about a topic, or imparting information to others”* (p. 42). Clearly, the three researchers believe that academic English is not limited to vocabulary, yet they have an agreed-upon belief that vocabulary development is a priority since they all mention vocabulary at the first place in their definitions. Pilgreen (2007) goes further to limit academic language to academic vocabulary when he defines academic language as: *“the basic terms used to communicate the tools and tasks across content areas”* (p. 239).

Pilgreen also emphasizes the fact that academic language referred to as *‘basic terms’* is common across different disciplines and therefore it deserves considerable attention. The significance of academic vocabulary for EFL and ESL learning stems from the fact that its enhancement supports both the mastery of the academic language which is the tool of instruction in this context as well as the acquisition of the content of several teaching subjects. Therefore, the more students comprehend this type of vocabulary, the easier the assimilation of lectures’ content is, whereas, a lack of the basic knowledge of this register will definitely make the students’ listening and reading comprehension difficult (Marzano, 2004).

Beck, McKeown and Kucan (2002) go further claiming that: *“a large and rich vocabulary is the hallmark of an educated individual”* (p.1). So, the rich vocabulary

knowledge goes beyond enhancing language proficiency to be one of the distinctive characteristics of a quality education. Truly, the vocabulary of an educated individual is different from the lexicon of an uneducated one simply because knowledge and concepts are expressed through language in general and vocabulary in particular and a limited vocabulary reflects a limited or a partial knowledge of individuals in a given subject.

Besides, academic vocabulary is prerequisite for the development of the different language skills, particularly reading and writing being the skills usually required for academic assessment. In this respect, Fisher and Frey (2014) claim that: *“When readers know a lot of words, they can read more complex texts. When writers know a lot of words, they can compose more sophisticated documents”* (p.594). Clearly, the ‘*complex texts*’ mentioned herein refer to the type of texts that learners are required to deal with in every teaching subject; and being able to write ‘*sophisticated documents*’ is simply another way to refer to the mastery of ‘*academic vocabulary, complex syntax*’ and ‘*complex discourse style*’ that constitute the academic discourse. Therefore, the researchers argue that there is a causal relationship not only between vocabulary knowledge: ‘*know a lot of words*’ and language skills; reading and writing, but also between vocabulary knowledge and the other components of language.

Lessard-Clouston (2012/2013) summarizes well the critical situation of ESL/EFL teaching at the tertiary level claiming that: *“In research with undergraduates and graduates, time and again studies have indicated that ESL/EFL students lack essential vocabulary knowledge not just for reading, but also for listening, speaking, and writing in English”* (p. 288). Such findings demonstrate plainly that the first obstacle that obstructs EFL university learners from developing their language skills and language proficiency is their deficiency in ‘*essential vocabulary knowledge*’ i.e.: the vocabulary considered necessary for the academic

context. Furthermore, language learners' proficiency is usually tested through their vocabulary knowledge (Schmitt, 1999).

2.7. Defining Academic vocabulary

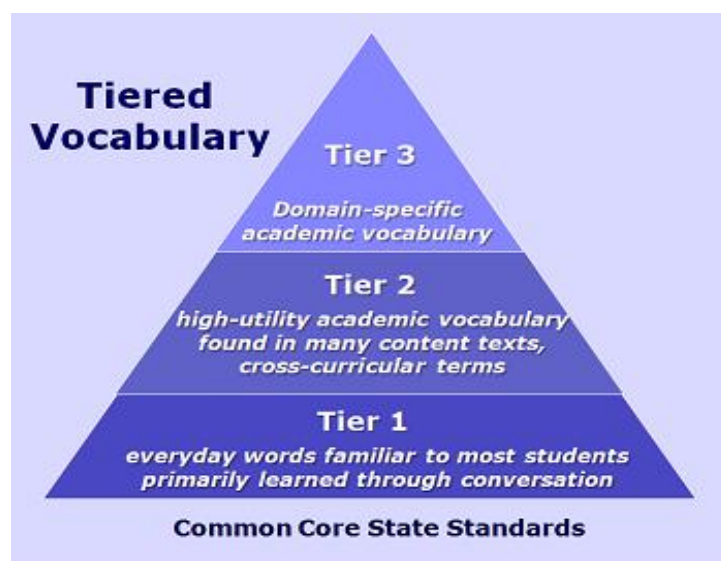
As its name may indicate, academic vocabulary is basically the vocabulary used in academic context. In fact, researchers identify two types of vocabulary that characterize the academic discourse as opposed to the social discourse. Nation (2013), for instance distinguishes between words that are “*common in different kinds of academic texts*” and words that are “*closely related to the content of a particular discipline*” (p. 303). The former is usually known as general academic vocabulary and is often referred to using a number of diverse terminology such as ‘*useful scientific vocabulary*’, ‘*subtechnical vocabulary*’, ‘*semi-technical vocabulary*’, ‘*specialized non-technical lexis*’, ‘*frame words*’ (Nation, 2001, p. 51) and sometimes as ‘*discourse-organizing*’ vocabulary (Paquot, 2010, p. 9). The latter, however is known as technical words and is frequently referred to as ‘*domain-specific*’ or ‘*discipline-specific*’ vocabulary (Allen, 2014).

Based on the previous definitions general academic vocabulary is therefore common across different disciplines and as Beck *et al.* (2002) put it, it consists of words that “*appear in all sorts of texts: informational texts ..., technical texts ..., and literary texts ...*” (p. 104), whereas technical vocabulary varies from one discipline to another. This means that while each discipline has its particular technical vocabulary, general academic vocabulary is prevalent and is needed in each and every discipline. Defining what vocabulary means and differentiating between its diverse types is meant to support English language teachers meet the lexical demands of authentic communication. With such objective in mind, language researchers such as McKeown and Beck (2004) have suggested a useful categorization system for organizing words based on their area of use. The scheme is represented in the following table.

Table 2.1: Tier Three Vocabularies (Adopted from McKeown & Beck, 2004, p.13)

Tier	Description	Examples	Instructional Implication
Tier One	<i>consists of the most basic words</i>	<i>brother, bed, sky, runs</i>	<i>rarely require instructional attention to their meaning in school.</i>
Tier Two	<i>contains words that are high-frequency words for mature language users and are found across a variety of domains</i>	<i>compromise, scrutinize, diligent, typical</i>	<i>play a large role in language user's repertoire, rich knowledge of words in the second tier can have a powerful impact on verbal functioning. Thus instruction directed toward tier 2 words can be most productive</i>
Tier Three	<i>made up of words whose frequency of use is quite low and often limited to specific domains</i>	<i>apogee, precinct, peninsula, ecclesiastical</i>	<i>would not be of high utility for most learners. These words are probably best learned when a specific need arises, such as introducing coagulate during a biology lesson</i>

As illustrated in the table above, McKeown and Beck (2004) like other researchers (Nation, 1983, p. 10-11), divide English vocabulary into three classes usually referred to as *tiers*. Clearly, tier one refers to the vocabulary of everyday, conversational or social English, whereas the two remaining tiers are the two types of vocabulary that constitutes academic English. Hence, tier two stands for general academic vocabulary and tier three represents technical vocabulary. The following diagram is a simplified illustration of the vocabulary classification as pointed out by Kimberly (2013).

**Figure 2.3.:** Tier Three Vocabulary (Adopted from Kimberly, 2013)

Based on McKeown et al. (2004) in L1 context, tier one words “*rarely require instructional attention to their meaning in school*” (p. 108), since learners as native speakers of English would have more or less acquired this type of vocabulary by the time they reach school age. In this respect, Biemiller (2005) claims that at 7 years old children possess a vocabulary amount of approximately 6,000 root words. As regards tier three, McKeown et al. (2004) claim that in primary school it is taught only “*when a specific need arises, such as introducing coagulate during a biology lesson*” (p. 108). However, in secondary education, since this type of vocabulary is domain-specific, its teaching is not the responsibility of English teachers, but it is often attributed to content area. Hence, the researchers recognize that academic vocabulary, aka tier two is the lexical category that deserves most instructional attention in school because as they point out these words: “*play a large role in language user’s repertoire, rich knowledge of words in the second tier can have a powerful impact on verbal functioning. Thus instruction directed toward tier 2 words can be most productive*” (ibid).

By contrast, in the EFL context where learners start to study English at a late age, formal instruction is obviously the primary way to learn all three tiers. Tier one being the basic words of the language is taught mainly to beginners and continues as learners move on in their education. The need for tier two and three, however, arises particularly when learners advance in their studies and reach the university level. Whether they need English for academic or for specific purposes (EAP/ESP), undergraduates need to develop an academic language proficiency in EFL that fits the requirements of their disciplines. Given that academic vocabulary is common in the two fields and its development “*can have a powerful impact on verbal functioning*”(ibid)of the students, this entails that it requires a particular attention on the part of the learner and the teacher alike. The method of instruction that best

fits (academic) vocabulary teaching to undergraduate students will be discussed later in section 2.9.

2.8. Characteristics of Academic Vocabulary

Being the main language component that carries meaning in communication besides its role in supporting the two other language components; syntax and discourse style, vocabulary is by far the component that reflects much better the difference between BICS and CALP and then requires researchers', teachers' as well as learners' attention. So, what characterizes academic vocabulary or what makes it different from everyday, conversational vocabulary? Due to historical reasons, vocabulary in academic English and social English has different backgrounds and as a result it has gained different characteristics. The salient ones are illustrated in the following table.

Table 2.2.: Difference between Academic and Social Vocabulary

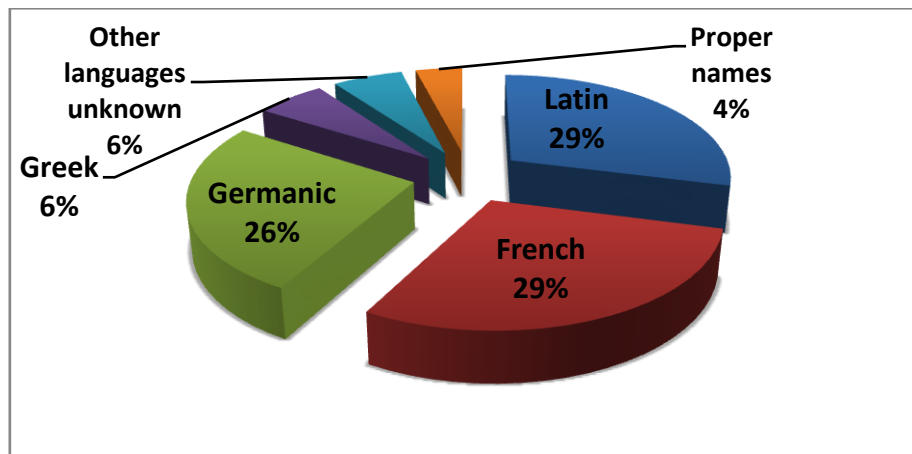
Academic Language/vocabulary	Social Language/vocabulary
French, Greek and Latin loanwords	Anglo-Saxon vocabulary
use of single Latinate verbs	use of phrasal verbs
many words are abstract	many words are concrete
Have multiple meanings	do not have multiple meanings

As shown in the table above, unlike social vocabulary academic vocabulary contains loanwords as well as Latinate verbs. It is mainly abstract and carries multiple meanings.

2.8.1. Academic Vocabulary and Loanwords

Throughout its history England had witnessed different invasions each leading to considerable changes in the ethnic, cultural and linguistic composition of its population. At the time the Anglo-Saxon took possession of what became known as England, their language; English started to develop as the tongue of the region but with continuous osmosis with the different languages that came into contact with it. The impact of this linguistic contact is

reflected in the considerable amount of loanwords that exist in English, particularly from French and Latin origin as illustrated in the following pie-chart:



Pie-chart 2.1: Origin of English Words (adopted from Tang, 2014)

Actually, these loanwords constitute a distinctive feature between Social English and Academic English as the latter has more borrowed words than the former. Jobrack (2014) argues that, while BICS is based on ‘Anglo-Saxon’ vocabulary, “two-thirds of all academic English words come from Latin, French (through Latin), or Greek.” (p. 3). Likewise, Corson indicates (1993) that “most of the specialist and high status terminology of English is Graeco-Latin in origin, and most of its more everyday terminology is Anglo-Saxon in origin” (p. 13). As such, while Social English has more or less preserved its original word-stock, Academic English has been nurtured by words originating from such influential languages as French, Latin and Greek that have expanded its vocabulary.

The reason behind borrowing from Latin and French was that these languages reflected the superiority of the ruling class as both the Romans and the Normans invaded Britain and their languages were obviously imposed in the administration and the legal system (Kavtaria, 2011). English was mainly used in everyday life because as claimed by Kavtaria (2011), during the Roman dominance, there was no room for comparison between the primitive development of the settlers, the Anglo-Saxons and the high civilization of Rome, the

colonizer. He describes the Anglo-Saxons as: “*primitive cattle-breeders*” who “*knew almost nothing about land cultivation*” and even describes their languages as being “*tribal languages*” that comprise only “*Indo-European and Germanic elements.*” (p. 25). This means that as the Anglo-Saxons were ‘*primitive cattle-breeders*’, their language was similarly ‘primitive’ containing a limited word-stock that described their primitive/simple lifestyle. Latin, conversely, was much more developed and richer in vocabulary hence reflecting the high civilisation of its speakers.

Likewise during the Norman control, as the French aristocracy displaced the English officials the French language started to gain a higher social status and English became the language of the masses (Fennell, 2001) and was mainly used by “*the uneducated peasantry*” (Mastin, 2011). Thus, the Norman invasion came to reinforce the process of borrowing from French and from Latin through French since the latter is a Latin-based language (Jobrack, 2014, p. 3).

Then with the advent of Christianity to England in the sixth century, and as Latin was the official language of the Christian church at that time (Kelly, 2014) new types of Latin loanwords were incorporated into the English language (Kavtaria, 2011). Many centuries later, when England broke with the Roman church and Henry VIII imposed the religious Reformation, English became the language of worship and consequently it was again nurtured with the Latin lexicon that was predominating the religious setting at that time. Besides, as Kavtaria (2011) puts it: “*It became quite natural that educational terms were also borrowed from Latin*, since education was supported at the outset by churches that were the first schools and their priests and monks were the first teachers. (p. 257).

The other reason for borrowing from Latin and Greek was due to the fact that these languages were once used by scholars and by the time English started to replace them, many Latin and Greek words were introduced into English to fill in the gaps or the shortage that

might have existed in its word-stock. In this context, Kavtaria argues that translators from Latin and Greek to English: “were framed with the limits of incompleteness of English and faced the necessity of borrowing non existed strata from the original languages (ibid, p. 258). As such, borrowing was almost a need to transfer the existing knowledge from Greek and Latin to English.

Hence, based on what has been mentioned beforehand, it seems that all through its evolution, English has developed two distinct types of discourse; a discourse which was used in academia, religion, and every formal setting and which has accordingly received much of the influence exercised by the different languages that came into contact with it, this variety is what is known as academic English. Levy (2007) succinctly summarizes this situation stating that academic vocabulary contains many Latin origin words for the reason that: “*institutions of higher learning in England used Latin while English, a Germanic language, was used in more every day settings*”. Thus, the second type of discourse is the variety that has received less influence as it was used in casual settings by common people and for daily communication. It did not need a sophisticated and specialized terminology and the simple Anglo-Saxon vocabulary was for the most part sufficient to carry out the need of a daily communication; and this type of discourse is what is known as social English.

2.8.2. Academic Vocabulary and Latinate Verbs

Academic English is also characterized by the use of single Latinate verbs as opposed to informal conversational English that frequently makes use of phrasal verbs. Swales and Feak (2004) explain such difference as follows:

English often has two (or more) choices to express an action or occurrence. The choice is often between a phrasal verb (verb + particle) or a single verb, the latter with Latinate origins. Often in lectures or other instances of everyday spoken language, the verb + particle is used. However, in written academic style, there is a tendency for academic writers to use a single verb whenever possible. This is one of the most dramatic stylistic shifts from informal to formal style.(p. 18)

Fanning (2017) reports that when these norms are not respected they are generally referred to as “*an error of ‘appropriacy’*”. He even claims that both “*grammar and vocabulary in professional contexts must meet requirements of style and tone*”. Accordingly, the use of phrasal verbs in academic writing is generally conceived as inappropriate and does not meet the requirement of its style and tone.

However, this situation may change in the near future. The factual change of languages over time is usually reflected in a change in their linguistic norms and standards at different levels. This change can be brought about by different factors including the wide spread of the language to other areas of the world, the case of English. The number of English users over the world has increased which made Swales and Feak argue that (2004).

The traditional distinction between native and non-native speakers of English is becoming less and less clear-cut. In the research world, in particular, there are today increasing numbers of ‘expert users’ of English who are not traditional native speakers of that language (introduction)

Mendis (2010) also refers to the developments occurring especially in the research world as well as in the academy and claims that such developments require a reconsideration of the standards and practices of the academic discourse, and above all, of the supremacy of British and American English as the global language varieties of research and publication. The claim of Mendis is driven by the fact that these standards are often behind the marginalization of many writers whose disciplinary contributions do not maintain these established standards.

In the same vein, Alangari, Jaworska & Laws (2020) conducted a study investigating one of these standards, i.e., the use of phrasal verbs in expert academic writing in the discipline of Linguistics. Their research carried some signs of change that appear to be contrary to the general trend in the academic discourse. The research revealed that phrasal verbs constitute a considerable percentage of verb categories in current academic writing

produced by expert writers in this discipline. Accordingly, Alangari et al (2020) believe that novice writers in their discipline “*should not be afraid of using PVs in their own academic writing and could benefit from knowing that a range of PVs are acceptable*”. (p. 10). Likewise, Walter (2015) explains that some many phrasal verbs are: “*in fact neutral and there are a good many that are positively formal*”. Examples of these phrasal verbs¹⁰ include: carry out, bring about, come about, account for, consist of, focus on, devote to, expand on, build on, refer to, point out, put forward, arrive at, sum up, result in, etc. (ibid)

So, learners of English as a second or a foreign language need to be aware of the general trends that distinguish between the academic and social discourse so as to use the appropriate register for each type. This can be achieved by learning the phrasal verbs with their equivalent single verbs and by employing the latter in their essays, exams and assignments as are the norms and the tendency in academic writings. Nonetheless, it is imperative to make reference to the formal tone of some phrasal verbs and then the possibility of employing them in academic writing.

2.8.3. Academic Vocabulary and Abstractness

The other characteristic of academic vocabulary is abstractness. In this respect, Townsend (2009) describes academic words as being abstract and for that reason they constitute a challenge for English language learners (p. 242). In the same line, Heltai (1996) relates the difficulty to master this type of vocabulary to the fact that: “*they are low-imagery words: they are very difficult to associate with a visual image*” (p. 72). Unlike concrete words, abstract words such as: type, identifiable, definition, norm, belief and adapt are difficult to define or to visualize, i.e.: to associate with a concrete object or a mental image. For this reason, the Texas Education Agency (2002) states that to explain abstract words,

¹⁰ Note: actually, some of these multi-word verbs are phrasal verbs and others are prepositional verbs, but in this study we consider them the same as they are not our focus.

teachers have to employ a particular teaching strategy that is the use of examples and non-examples.

This strategy in teaching vocabulary involves providing the learners with good and illustrative examples about a concept that help them grasp its meaning and at the same time with non-examples which are defined by Malamde (2011) as: “*an instance that is specifically not an example of the concept being learned*”. She explains that a non-example “*should vary in one attribute from the example with which it is paired*” (*ibid*). Such strategy is meant to aid the learners avoid confusion and discriminate the target concepts or abstract words from those that are close or slightly different in meaning.

2.8.4. Academic Vocabulary and Multiple Meanings

Besides its abstractness, academic vocabulary is made difficult to understand, and subsequently to learn due to its multiple meanings. As Baumann and Graves (2010) explain these words “*appear reasonably frequently within and across academic domains. The words may be polysemous, with different definitions being relevant to different domains*” (p. 9). Then, academic vocabulary consists of words whose meanings depends the content areas to which they belong. These meanings, as Shoebottom (2017) notes, “*are broadly similar rather than totally different*” which suggests that EFL/ESL learners need to understand that a vocabulary item has usually a broad meaning in addition to other nuances in meaning that result from the use of the word in different contexts. More importantly, they have to comprehend that the nuances actually derives from the broad meanings of the word.

For instance the word ‘*cycle*’ is identified as a general academic vocabulary and thus it appears in the AWL¹¹, in sub-list 4, and it is used in different fields of study including but not limited to, biology, ecology, biochemistry and computing. The following entry for the

¹¹ The Academic Word List (AWL) was developed by Averil Coxhead for her MA thesis. The list contains 570 word families which were selected because they appear with great frequency in a broad range of academic texts. See: <https://www.victoria.ac.nz/lals/resources/academicwordlist/>

term ‘*cycle*’ illustrates its multiple meanings according to the English Oxford Living Dictionary (2017).

Table 2.3: Entry of ‘cycle’ in the English Oxford Living Dictionary (2017)

Cycle
<p>NOUN</p> <p>1. <i>often with adjective or noun modifier</i> A series of events that are regularly repeated in the same order. <i>‘the recurrent cycle of harvest failure, food shortages, and price increases’</i></p> <p>1.1. The period of time taken to complete a cycle of events. <i>‘the cells are shed over a cycle of twenty-eight days’</i></p> <p>1.2. <i>Technical</i> A recurring series of successive operations or states, such as in the working of an internal combustion engine, or in the alternation of an electric current or a wave. <i>‘the familiar four cycles of intake, combustion, ignition, and exhaust’</i></p> <p>1.3. <i>Biology</i> A recurring series of events or metabolic processes in the lifetime of a plant or animal. <i>‘the storks’ breeding cycle’</i></p> <p>1.4. <i>Biochemistry</i> A series of successive metabolic reactions in which one of the products is regenerated and reused.</p> <p>1.5. <i>Ecology</i> The movement of a simple substance through the soil, rocks, water, atmosphere, and living organisms of the earth.</p> <p>1.6. <i>Computing</i> A single set of hardware operations, especially that by which memory is accessed and an item is transferred to or from it, to the point at which the memory may be accessed again.</p> <p>1.7. <i>Physics</i> A cycle per second; one hertz. <i>‘AC reverses its direction of flow sixty times a second at 60 cycles’</i></p> <p>2. A complete set or series. <i>‘the painting is one of a cycle of seven’</i></p> <p>2.1. A series of songs, stories, plays, or poems composed around a particular theme, and usually intended to be performed or read in sequence. <i>‘Wagner’s Ring Cycle’</i></p> <p>3. A bicycle or tricycle. <i>‘for the energetic, cycles may be hired’</i> <i>[as modifier] ‘cycle shorts’</i></p> <p>3.1. <i>[in singular]</i> A ride on a bicycle. <i>‘a 112-mile cycle’</i></p> <hr/> <p>VERB</p> <p>1. <i>[no object, with adverbial of direction]</i> Ride a bicycle. <i>‘she cycled to work every day’</i></p> <p>2. <i>[no object]</i> Move in or follow a regularly repeated sequence of events. <i>‘economies cycle regularly between boom and slump’</i></p>

So, the dictionary provides first the different broad meanings of the term cycle as shown in the entry by numbers 1, 2 and 3, then it provides the nuances for each broad meaning, if any, such as in: 1.1, 1.2, 1.3, ..., 1.7 which are all nuances of the first broad meaning. It should be noted that some academic and even technical words may have a familiar meaning in everyday English (Chung & Nation, 2003) as it is the case for

cycle meaning *bicycle* or *tricycle*. Yet, even if learners cannot absorb all the definitions of a given word, teaching them that contexts shape the meaning of the word, is an essential learning strategy that they need to develop to improve their vocabulary comprehension and learning.

2.9. Stressing Explicit Vocabulary Instruction at the University Level

The noteworthy role of vocabulary knowledge in comprehension and subsequently in learning has led language practitioners to consider: “*the vocabulary teaching as a separate subject*” (Ashrafzadeh, *et al*, 2015, p. 286). Vocabulary is certainly the fifth skill that supports the basic language skills, i.e.: listening, speaking, reading and writing. Since its learning is a lifelong process, vocabulary teaching should be at the heart of any FL curriculum. It is indispensable to all learners at all levels including the university or as expressed by Yovanof, *et al* (2005) it is: “*a significant and constant predictor of overall reading comprehension irrespective of grade level*” (p. 4). Evidently, vocabulary learning is not an objective in itself or at least it is not the utmost objective of vocabulary instruction. It is rather a means among a variety of others which combined together aim at facilitating EFL learning.

Teaching vocabulary can be achieved through implicit or explicit method. In this context, the American National Reading Panel (2000) argues that a combination of both methods would have a better impact on the learners’ outcome. However, and unlike to what is generally believed, research has shown that explicit teaching of vocabulary is more appropriate to university students because of a number of reasons. The key reasons are on the one hand the benefits of explicit instruction on vocabulary learning and by extension on language learning, and on the other hand the specific characteristics of undergraduate students which reveal a need for their teachers’ support as regards their cognitive maturity and learning autonomy.

2.9.1. Explicit Vocabulary teaching and Undergraduates' Cognitive Maturity

As defined by Dasilva (2003) maturity commonly refers to the development that occurs in the human body and especially in the brain structure. This physical development is generally accompanied by different types of maturity; namely the emotional, social and cognitive maturity of the individual (ibid). Though, there is a difference between age and maturity (Stinson, 2013) this latter is tightly linked to age since it usually develops as individuals grow up. Besides, researchers argue that age and maturity affect the individuals' learning style and performance (Kusurkar, *et al.*, 2009) as well as their learning readiness (Dasilva, 2003). In other words, both age and maturity are significant factors that can definitely influence the individual's learning process.

Johnson (2017) explains that as post-secondary learners, undergraduate students are considered, particularly by their teachers as adult or at least young adult learners. As such, they are expected to have the adequate cognitive maturity that is assumed to facilitate their learning. In this respect, researchers, in the context of second/foreign language learning (Oxford and Scarcella, 1994; Spada and Lightbrown, 1999; Scheffler, 2008) believe that explicit instruction is the appropriate method to teach vocabulary to undergraduate students for the reason that it plainly fits the age and maturity of this category of learners. This is because on the one hand, and as stated by Oxford *et al.* (1994): "*the maturational constraints do not prevent adults from learning new vocabulary words*" (p. 234). This is to say that even if they have exceeded the sensitive/critical period, adults easily and constantly add new vocabulary to their repertoire (ibid).

On the other hand, and unlike children adult learners' cognitive maturity enables them to: "*digest abstract or formal thinking cognitively*" (Pringganti, 2013), and explicit vocabulary instruction is a type of '*formal thinking*' that the adult learners can digest without

difficulty compared with younger learners. To illustrate this idea Oxford argues that “*adults easily understand the concepts underlying such words as empty and full and before and after, while young children have difficulty comprehending the meaning of such words*” simply because their cognitive maturity is not developed yet (ibid).

In the same line of thought and quoting Spada and Lightbrown (1999), Nadarajan (2009) explains the rationale behind teaching vocabulary to adult learners using explicit instruction by the fact that this method: “*enables L2 learners to skip certain stages in their developmental sequence*” (p. 179). As such, they save time by concentrating their attention and efforts on studying the vocabulary or register that is relevant to their academic achievement, and accordingly Nadarajan argues that “*it makes greater sense to address L2 learners’ vocabulary problem through direct and explicit instructional practices rather than depend on implicit learning practices*” (ibid).

To put it simple, adult learners’ cognitive maturity enables them to think about their learning process, to identify the difficulties that may hamper their progress and accordingly to look for solutions that enable them to overcome the encountered obstacles as well as to cognitively organize their learning activity “*from the simplest to the most complex ones such as how to learn, pay attention, focus, problem-solve and memorize*”(Pringganti, 2013). Similarly, explicit teaching involves such features as gradation, attention, memorization and learning strategies, etc. (Hanson, *et al.*, 2011). Thus, explicit instruction matches very well the internal natural language learning process of undergraduate students.

2.9.2. Explicit Vocabulary Teaching and Undergraduates’ Autonomy

Autonomy is considered an outcome of learners’ cognitive maturity since this latter “*plays a role in a person’s ability to accept responsibility for his or her own thoughts, feelings, and behaviors*”(Dasilva, 2003). Hence, at the university level, students’ maturity is expected to help them become autonomous learners, which is a prerequisite in foreign

language learning in general and in vocabulary acquisition in particular. This autonomy makes students share responsibility for the learning of vocabulary mainly outside the classroom environment.

Yet, assuming that undergraduate students are autonomous learners does not mean to abandon them struggle alone with vocabulary learning (Nation 1998; Healey et al, 2014). This is to say that it is both advantageous and indispensable to provide university EFL students with explicit vocabulary teaching because the mass of vocabulary is so important that they cannot acquire it by simple exposure to the language through the practice of the four language skills; reading, listening, speaking, and writing. As Oxford & Scarcella (1994) put it: “*L2 learners sometimes become overwhelmed with the task of capturing and taming the mass of vocabulary that surrounds them*” (p. 232). So, besides promoting learners’ autonomy to study vocabulary on their own, teachers are required to assist their students to gain knowledge of such mass of vocabulary, through direct instruction (p. 240).

Thus, learners’ autonomy does not exclude teachers’ intervention in supporting them to build their vocabulary. Nation (1998) argues that “*it is possible to be an autonomous learner in a strongly teacher-led class*” (p. 9). He explains that even if it is the teachers, who decide about the lectures in terms of content and structure, about priorities, interactions and assignments, “*ultimately it is the learner who does the learning*” (ibid). In fact, teaching undergraduate students the vocabulary/register that is necessary to their academic achievement and helping them adjust their knowledge to the requirements of their studies is a way to help them bridge the gap that usually exists between secondary and tertiary studies. This would make the transition between the two levels smooth and assist the students develop their self-confidence and their autonomy.

The need for explicit instruction is even expressed by students themselves as stated by Oxford et al. (1994): “*many L2 learners mutiny over approaches which ignore vocabulary*

instruction or which expect students to learn vocabulary through osmosis" (p. 232). When, students face difficulty understanding much of the vocabulary they encounter in a given lecture they often develop a negative attitude towards the module and the teacher in charge especially when this latter does not try to help them grasp the meaning of the unfamiliar words and rather expect them to understand those words by themselves through 'osmosis' i.e.: implicitly through simple exposure to the module content. Unfortunately, in meanwhile many students are left behind because they often fail to infer the correct meaning of the encountered vocabulary and miss the opportunity to understand the content of the lecture.

However, university students' autonomy and maturity may be questioned as many students at the tertiary level are: "*in the late adolescent/young adult age range, a period of which learning styles are potentially still being developed by the student*" (Lake, et al., 2015, p. 2362). Quoting Nelson et al (2007), Johnson (2017) claims that even though they are treated as adults by many of their teachers, undergraduate students themselves, and their parents, do not believe that they have reached adulthood. Da Silva (2003) also claims that: "*brain development continues into our twenties and even until age 25 for some*". So, for many undergraduate students this implies that both their cognitive maturity and autonomy are incomplete, furthermore, it is strongly believed that: "*College students are still in the process of developing the intellectual and social maturity to deal with complex issues, so they may not be as prepared to deal with challenging topics as we would hope*" (Ebelry Center, 2008). Consequently, they need support mainly "*at early stages of intellectual development*" (ibid) and in the EFL context, this support may be achieved by helping students build up the needed register to succeed in their studies/discipline.

The agreement between researchers and language learners concerning the importance of explicit vocabulary instruction stems from the fact that this method of teaching is effective and beneficial as recognised by Marzano (2004) who states that "*direct vocabulary*

instruction has an impressive track record of improving students' background knowledge and the comprehension of academic content" (p. 69). While implicit instruction is appropriate for developing the basic and informal register of social English; explicit instruction becomes more appropriate as the discourse becomes more formal and more academic (ibid). This implies that academic vocabulary which is less frequent in every day speech, but frequently encountered in academic settings requires explicit and direct teaching.

2.10. Selecting Academic Vocabulary and Corpus Building

English has long been subject to a deep scrutiny with the intent to provide English practitioners with a clear and holistic description of this international means of communication. One of the significant objectives of such examination consists of classifying the English vocabulary into categories according to the context it fits. To this end, huge corpora have been built, including large collections of written and spoken texts so as to assure the representativeness of the entire language or a specific variety of it.

2.10.1. Corpus Building

Using outcomes of corpus-based research about the language learning processes has become a common practice in the incessant search for promoting contemporary education. It is particularly useful to promote the learning and teaching of foreign languages as: *"Corpus' has now become one of the new language teaching catchphrases, and both teachers and learners alike are increasingly becoming consumers of corpus-based educational products, such as dictionaries and grammars"* (Gabrielatos, 2005, p. 1). Simply put, the grammars are grammatical rules and the dictionaries are vocabularies derived both from corpora of a given language and used for educational purposes. This relationship between corpus-based research; what is also called corpus linguistics, and language teaching is highlighted by Romer (2008, p.113) as shown in figure 2.4.

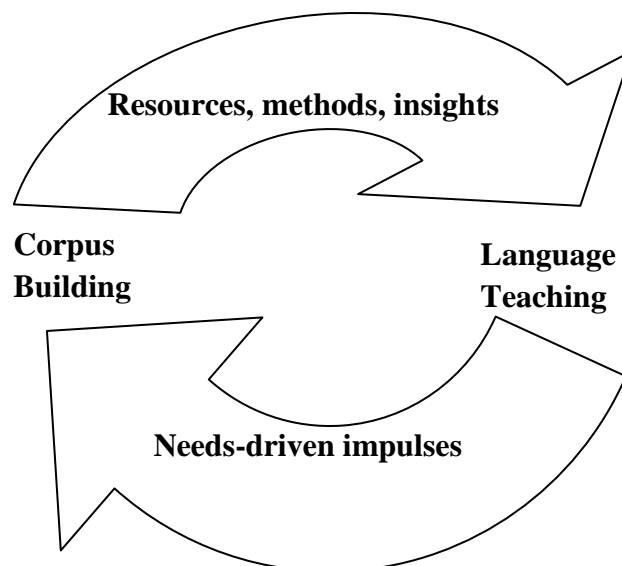


Figure 2.4: The Relationship between Corpus Linguistics and Language Teaching (adapted from: Romer, 2008, p. 113)

Romer explains how the needs-driven impulses of language teaching nurture the corpus-based research and how the resources, methods and insights derived from corpus linguistics steer language teaching (ibid). Such corpora are: “*proving increasingly influential in language teaching as sources of language descriptions and pedagogical materials*” (Gabrielatos, 2005, p. 1). Depending on the purposes they are serving and the objectives behind their construction, corpora appear in different types and sizes (ibid, p. 2). Kilgarriff (2014) explains that a corpus is: “*a collection of texts. We call it a corpus (plural: corpora) when we use it for language research. That makes your class's essays a corpus - a small one. It also makes the internet a corpus - a big one*”. Among the well known corpora, the British National Corpus (BNC), the American National Corpus (ANC), Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) and the International Corpus of English (ICE) have been widely used as: “*rich sources of autonomous learning activities of a serendipitous kind*” (Bernardini, 2002, p. 165).

Similarly, to identify academic vocabulary, linguists have focused their researches on the analysis of specialized corpora including a large body of selections from academic and professional settings. The research resulted in the development and the materialization of

several word lists, each including a number of vocabulary items identified as relevant to the academic context. Some of the famous lists are the University Word List (UWL) and the Academic Word List (AWL). These lists are used as reference in academic vocabulary instruction mainly at the tertiary or the advanced level so as to support the ESL/EFL students to focus their efforts on the vocabulary that is considered relevant to their studies and which they are likely to encounter in any discipline. Yet, before targeting these lists, any EFL learner is naturally expected to possess and to be familiar with the most frequent words of the language hence the importance of another list besides UWL and AWL which is the GSL.

2.10.2. The General Service List (GSL)

The General Service List was developed by Michael West as a result of a fruitful work that started in the 1930s and ended with the creation of the list in 1953 (Gilner, 2011). The list contains about 2,000 word families (see appendix six), with a word family consisting of *“the base form of a word plus its inflected forms and derived forms made from affixes”* (Hirsh & Nation, 1992, p. 692). As its name may indicate, the GSL was meant *“to be of the greatest “general service” to learners of English”* (Beck et al, 2008, p. 13). In other words, the list was dedicated to helping ESL and EFL learners by providing them with the most common and useful words in English and that are subsequently basic for comprehension and communication. Thus, the list includes high-frequency words like *‘a, birth, cheese, dinner, election, favor, game, heart, ice, just, know, language, middle, obey, paper, queen, right, safe, top, unit, village, walk, yellow, Zero’* (Bauman & Graves, 2010)

Though, the list has received several criticisms; being derived from a corpus that is out of date (Brezina and Gablazova, 2015) and *“too small”* (Browne, 2014, p. 1), it has been used as a guideline for vocabulary teaching and learning for many years because the list provides an average coverage of about 82% of diverse registers. While recognizing its shortcomings, Gilner (2011) considers the GSL *“a turning point for language selection and*

description in the context of language instruction” (p. 72); hence acknowledging its significance for ELT. The list is valuable first because as mentioned previously, it contains the most frequent words in English and as Gilner points out “*The most frequent words in English are the lexical backbone, or foundation, upon which language use—and, therefore, communication—takes place*” (ibid: 65). Second, though the list is meant for general English, “*it makes up to 76% of the Academic Corpus*” (Jahangard et al, 2014, p. 603 based on Coxhead, 1998). As such, Nation and Kyongho deem the list very important for all learners of English “*no matter whether they are using English as a foreign or a second language, for spoken or written use, or for general or special purposes*” (Nation & Kyongho, 1995, p. 36).

To keep the GSL profitable for English language learners, different attempts have been made to update its content through the analysis of wider corpora. The most important updates were the New General Service List (new-GSL) with 2,496 words by Brezina and Gablasova, and the New General Service List (NGSL) with approximately 2,800 high-frequency words by Browne, Culligan and Phillips both published in 2013 (Browne, 2014). Whilst the original GSL was subtracted from 2.5 million word corpus representing around 82% coverage of diverse types of texts (Nation & Waring, 1997), the new-GSL was derived from a corpus of 273 million words with 84.24% coverage of the Cambridge English Corpus (CEC) and the NGSL from a corpus of 12 billion running words with a coverage ranging from 80.1% to 81.7% in a collection of four corpora (Lessard-Clouston, 2016). Like the GSL, the two new lists; NGSL and new-GSL, are recognized as “*relevant to all English language learners, as they represent the most frequent and useful vocabulary in speech and writing*” (ibid, p. 6). (The NGSL is in appendix seven)

2.10.3. The University Word List (UWL)

The University Word List (UWL) was developed by Nation and Xue in 1984 with the intent to meet the needs of learners who have already been familiar with the GSL and who

aim to pursue their learning of English for academic purposes, hence its name ‘University Word List’. As such, the researchers excluded the 2,000 high-frequency words of the GSL developed by West, and included words that are not frequent in common usage, but are frequent in academic context (Nation, et al., 1995). With this objective in mind, Xue and Nation exploited/benefited from the efforts of other researchers namely Champion and Elley (1971), Praninskas (1972), Lynn (1973) and Ghadessy (1979) and combined their lists eliminating the overlaps between them and created the UWL (Xue & Nation, 1984).

The UWL contains about 800 word families arranged into eleven sub-lists based on the frequency of the words, with the first sub-list consisting of the most frequent words and the eleventh containing the least frequent ones (see appendix eight). Nation and Kyongho consider the UWL list valuable to all academic disciplines because of “*its impressive 8.5% coverage of academic texts*” (1995, p. 36) and Lessard-Clouston believes that it is particularly helpful to students in the humanities (2012/13). Similarly, Valcourt and Wells (1999) recognize the significance of the UWL for learners’ academic achievement, stating that:

students who learn and practice the words on this list before academic study are likely to be able to master the material with more confidence and speed, wasting less time and effort in guessing words or consulting dictionaries than those with only the basic 2,000-word vocabulary. (p. 2)

Provided that learners already master the 2,000 words of the GSL, learning the 800 words of the UWL would be of great benefit to EAP as well as ESP learners since the former list covers about 82% (Nation & Waring, 1997) of the written texts and the latter would add a valuable coverage of about 8% (Nation & Kyongho, 1995). Thus, combined together the two lists would help improve learners’ comprehension of the teaching material.

2.10.4. The Academic Word List (AWL)

The Academic Word List (AWL) was created by Averil Coxhead in 2000 for her MA thesis. The list consists of 570 word families which have been selected from a 3,500,000

word corpus of academic texts. The 570 word families are grouped into ten sub-lists (see appendix nine) based on the frequency; the occurrence rate of the word in the academic context. The occurrence of the word family had to exceed “100 times in the 3,500,000-word *Academic Corpus*” to be included in the list (Tomas, 2013). In addition, to assure the representativeness of the academic context, Coxhead selected the targeted words from four academic disciplines each including seven subject areas as illustrated in the following table.

Table 2.4: Composition of the Academic Corpus for the AWL (Adopted from Coxhead, 2000, p. 220)

	Discipline				
	Arts	Commerce	Law	Science	Total
Running words	883,214	879,547	874,723	875,846	3,513,330
Texts	122	107	72	113	414
Subject areas	1. Education 2. History 3. Linguistics 4. Philosophy 5. Sociology	1. Accounting 2. Economics 3. Finance 4. Industrial relations 5. Management 6. Marketing 7. Public Policy	1. Constitutional 2. Criminal 3. Family and medicolegal 4. International 5. Pure commercial 6. Quasi-commercial 7. Rights and remedies	1. Biology 2. Chemistry 3. Computer science 4. Geography 5. Geology 6. Mathematics 7. Physics	

As shown in the table, the compiled corpus, with the four disciplines, the twenty eight subject areas and the 351,333 running words is by far representative of the academic context. It gives the list its importance and validity which is clearly demonstrated through its extensive use by language practitioners. In this respect, Paquot (2007) asserts that the AWL is “*the most widely used today in language teaching, testing and materials development*” (p. 127). The core objective behind the development of this list as mentioned by its designer; Coxhead (2000), is to show “*learners with academic goals which words are most worth studying. The list also provides a useful basis for further research into the nature of academic vocabulary*” (p. 213). Thus, the AWL like the UWL is first and foremost designed to meet the

needs of university learners i.e.: learners of English for academic purposes (EAP) and to guide their teachers in developing their teaching programmes and materials.

Both the AWL and the UWL can as well benefit learners of English for specific purposes since their vocabulary is common across almost all disciplines. In other words, the two lists consist of general academic vocabulary known as tier two vocabulary. However, the AWL covers about 10% of the academic corpus which makes it a good substitute for the UWL which covers only 8% (Lessard-Clouston, 2012/2013).

2.11. Principles of Vocabulary Instruction

Acknowledging the importance of vocabulary knowledge and its key role in reading comprehension and by extension in both language and content learning, researchers have recently turned their attention to the identification of the main principles that can lead to effective vocabulary acquisition. Subsequently, a large body of researches has been achieved with the intent to support and deepen teachers' knowledge as regards the paramount principles and the best practices that can steer vocabulary teaching.

Though much of these studies have been carried with young learners and in an L1 or in an ESL context, the principles identified by these studies, constitute on the whole an interesting framework to promote vocabulary instruction in the EFL context throughout the different learning grades including the tertiary level. Manyak *et al.* (2014) summarise these principles in four important points: “(a) *providing rich and varied language experiences*, (b) *teaching individual words*, (c) *teaching word-learning strategies*, and (d) *developing word consciousness*” (p. 5). These principles are clarified in the subsequent sub-sections.

2.11.1. Providing Rich and Varied Language Experiences

It is a common knowledge that children acquire their first language vocabulary naturally through continuous contact and extensive exposure to the language. In other words, first language acquisition results from the children's rich and varied experience with their first

language. Learning a second or a foreign language vocabulary is no exception to the rule. Such premise is not only a common belief drawn from mere comparison with the natural learning process of L1, but it is the premise of vocabulary learning which has been confirmed by a number of important studies (Nagy et al., 1985; Manyak, *et al*, 2014).

Citing Graves (2004), Hanson *et al.* (2011) emphasize the importance of providing language learners with rich and varied language experiences in increasing their vocabulary knowledge. They report that these experiences include “*reading aloud, independent reading, and oral discussions*” as well as “*a wide variety of reading genres*” (p. 9). In an ESL/EFL context, experiences with the target language include extensive exposure to the language through the four skills; active listening and speaking, and extensive reading and writing in different genres. Such exposure throughout the different teaching subjects and throughout the learners’ years of EFL study is expected to contribute to their incidental vocabulary learning.

2.11.2. Teaching Individual Words

Teaching individual words simply refers to explicit vocabulary instruction already discussed in section 2.9. It involves directing learners’ attention to words that are closely related to their teaching subjects and words that are part of the teachers’ talk. It also involves teaching different aspects of word knowledge that are grouped by Nation (2005) in three basic elements: ‘meaning’, ‘form’ and ‘use’. By providing learners with words’ definition, synonym, antonym, an example sentence and an equivalent in the mother tongue they become familiar with the vocabulary item. But, this is not sufficient to remember the words afterwards. Waring (2002) reports that word learning does not occur from one meeting. He then explains his belief claiming that:

It is easier to forget a word than remember it. Initial word knowledge is very fragile and memories of new words that are not met again soon, are lost. This is because our brains are designed to forget, not remember. If a student has just learned 10 new words, it is normal for most of them to be forgotten within a few days, and maybe only one or two will be retained in the medium or long term. This is called the ‘Forgetting Curve’ (ibid).

So, words are hardly ever learned from the first encounter. In fact, according to Stahr (2009b) learners need from 5 to 16 meetings to learn a vocabulary item. Similarly, Nation (2014) considers 12 repetitions a “*moderately safe goal*” (p. 3). The researcher believes that such number of encounters is: “*enough to allow the opportunity for several dictionary look-ups, several unassisted retrievals, and an opportunity to meet each word in a wide variety of contexts*” (ibid). These repeated exposures to a vocabulary item provide learners with opportunities to discover different aspects of word knowledge, to practise and revise words in different ways and different context, and to connect words and concepts to one another through retrieval and recycling improving as such learners’ comprehension and committing the words into their long term memory.

Yet, the efficacy of multiple exposures relies heavily on its systematic application and the quality of the vocabulary learning activities. First, the systematic repetition involves the planning of vocabulary teaching over a regular schedule as described by Koprowski (2006): “*5-10 minutes after class, 24 hours later, one week later, one month later, and finally six months later*”. Thus, encounters with vocabulary have a significant benefit on learners’ memory when they are distributed over regular intervals within different sessions rather than when they are concentrated in the same teaching session.

The second element affecting vocabulary repetition is the quality of word processing, i.e.: the depth and breadth of each encounter with the vocabulary item. Baddeley (1990) notes that: “*the more deeply and elaborately an item is processed, the greater the probability of subsequent recall*” (p. 9). Baddeley thus associates the possibility of vocabulary memorization and learning with the depth of word processing and the degree of its elaboration that are achieved during the different meetings with each vocabulary item. Likewise, Laufer et al. (2001) confirms Baddeley’s claim and argues that psychologists have long ago demonstrated that better learning in general is based on three important elements that are: “*1) depth of*

processing, 2) degree of elaboration, and 3) quality of attention to information”(p. 20). So, after explicitly teaching individual words, these key words can be grouped into lists that teachers and learners constantly review throughout the term, semester or school year (McBain, 2011, p. 6). By applying such focused instruction learners are likely to learn these words, enhance their overall comprehension and develop further lexical gains.

2.11.3. Developing Word Consciousness

Developing word consciousness is a significant principle of L1 and L2 vocabulary instruction. It is defined by Scott et al. (2009) as: “*a type of meta-cognitive awareness, that is, the ability to reflect on and manipulate units of language-in this case, words*” (p. 107). This means that language learners need to develop a comprehensive knowledge about words being the smallest units and the building blocks of any language and this is right from the first grades of their education. This comprehensive knowledge or “*meta-cognitive awareness*” is multifaceted and involves the morphological awareness (word parts: prefix/suffix, etc), the syntactic awareness (words’ order in a sentence), the meta-semantic awareness (words’ meaning: synonym/antonym, figurative language, metaphor, etc) as well as the ability to distinguish between spoken and written vocabulary (ibid).

Learners with such knowledge are believed to have the potential to appreciate, appropriately use and learn vocabulary better than learners who lack this meta-linguistic awareness (ibid). Such belief is more prominent in the EFL context where learners lack the support of the natural linguistic environment that can foster this awareness. Thus, it is the task of the EFL teachers to assure this role by providing their learners with “*engaging opportunities to interact with words across all content on a daily basis*” (Mastrovito, 20015). They are strongly invited to transmit and “*share their love for words*” which would “*ignite this word learning passion in their students*” (ibid).

More importantly, a learner with ‘*a word learning passion*’ is a curious learner who is more likely to be willing to study vocabulary on his/her own. So, by developing word consciousness, teachers promote their learners’ autonomy as well. Such autonomy is an integral part of vocabulary and language learning especially that vocabulary learning is a lifelong process that requires the active involvement of the learners themselves. To put it simpler, word awareness is a type of meta-cognitive awareness that is needed to prop up learners’ autonomy.

2.11.4. Teaching word-learning strategies

Teaching and Learning the huge amount of English vocabulary during class-time is simply an unfeasible task for English language teachers and learners. Subsequently, learners need to study vocabulary inside and outside the educational setting not only because they need to bridge the gap between the limited time allotted to vocabulary study and the huge vocabulary size, but also because it is the current learning tendency which puts the learners at the centre of the learning process expecting them to take more responsibility for their learning.

To promote this autonomy, EFL teachers are invited to train and equip their learners with vocabulary/word-learning strategies (WLS/VLS) considered an integral part of formal vocabulary instruction. In this respect, Ostovar-Namaghi *et al.* (2015) report that there is a tendency towards prioritizing vocabulary over grammar in foreign language teaching context, but they strongly claim that “*the shift towards vocabulary is of no use unless vocabulary learning strategies juxtapose this shift*” (p. 236). Besides, researchers like Oxford and Nyikos (1989) and Oxford (1990) believe that learning strategies are highly teachable and thus require teachers’ consideration.

Since vocabulary is an important component of language, VLS are accordingly a significant sub-class of language learning strategies (LLS). Referring to this interconnection

Takač (2008) states that VLS are “*specific strategies utilised in the isolated task of learning vocabulary in the target language*” (p. 52). Schmitt (1997) succinctly defines VLS as “*any action which affects*” the vocabulary learning process (p. 203). A more comprehensive definition is provided by Catalan (2003) who refers to WLS as:

Knowledge about the mechanisms (processes, strategies) used in order to learn vocabulary as well as steps or actions taken by students (a) to find out the meaning of unknown words, (b) to retain them in long-term memory, (c) to recall them at will, and (d) to use them in oral or written mode. (p. 56)

So, based on these definitions, the process or the mechanism of vocabulary learning consists of a number of strategies; steps and conscious actions taken by learners to achieve gradual but continuous vocabulary gains in formal and informal settings. Different attempts have been made over the past three decades or so to identify these strategies; the following table illustrates some of the well-known taxonomies of vocabulary learning strategies.

Table 2.5.: Main taxonomies of VLS (based on Kirmizi, 2014, p. 17)

Research	Taxonomies of L2 Vocabulary Learning Strategies		Nbr of VLSs
O'Malley et al. (1985)	Meta-cognitive strategies (e.g. : Directed attention and self-evaluation)		26 VLSs
	Cognitive strategies (e.g. : Question for clarification and note-taking)		
	Socio-affective strategies (e.g. : Cooperation)		
Oxford (1990)	Direct VLS	Memory strategies (e.g. : creating mental linkages)	20 VLSs
		Cognitive strategies (e.g.: practicing)	
		Compensatory strategies (e.g.: overcoming limitations in speaking and writing)	
	Indirect VLS	Meta-cognitive strategies (e.g.: arranging and planning your learning)	
		Social strategies (e.g.: cooperating with others)	
		Affective strategies (e.g.: encouraging yourself)	
Schmitt (1997)	Discovery Strategies	Determination strategies (e.g. : analyze parts of speech)	58 VLSs
		Social strategies (e.g. : ask teacher for paraphrase or synonym of new word)	
	Consolidation Strategies	social strategies (e.g. : study and practise meaning in a group)	
		memory strategies (e.g.: connect word to a personal experience)	
		cognitive strategies (e.g.: verbal repetition)	
		Meta-cognitive strategies (e.g.: continue to study word over time)	

The above taxonomy list is by no means exhaustive because a detailed list is beyond the objective of this work, thus the focus is on the most cited taxonomies in the ELT context. The development of these taxonomies relied obviously on the observation of successful language learners as the main source to gather data about the vocabulary learning strategies in actual use. Nonetheless, as these learners belong to different cultural and educational backgrounds, and possess different personality traits and different learning styles, the strategies identified are consequently multiple and varied. In this respect, Gu (2003) state that: *“The very notion of strategies being learner-initiated actions connotes the inherent relationship between strategies and individual difference factors such as motivation, self-efficacy, gender, learning background, and learning styles”* (p. 18). Such connection between learners and the diversity of the VLSs is reflected in the above table where each taxonomy consists of a number of categories which are further sub-divided into groups and each group contains a number of different strategies.

Gu also relate the variety of the strategies to the nature of the learning task under practice and the context or environment in which the learning task takes place (ibid: 2). This means that the strategies that fit EFL middle and secondary school pupils; considered as beginners, most likely do not fit EFL university students who generally vary from low intermediate to advanced learners. Thus, teachers should be selective and take these variables; ‘learner, task, context’ into consideration when training their learners with the VLSs. More importantly, teachers should first of all be well versed and well prepared to assume this role.

2.12. Teachers’ Role and Academic Vocabulary Instruction

The significant role that teachers play in education is undeniable. Albeit there have been substantial changes in educational theories including the shift from the teacher-centered class to a learner-centered class, this does not diminish the teachers’ pivotal role in education and their critical contribution to the success of the learning process. Even with the advent of

the digital technologies into the classroom, Partarrieu (2015) argues that: “*face-to-face teaching still has an essential place in today’s education*”. In the case of foreign language teaching, Partarrieu explains that unlike computers: “*Face-to-face experiences convey linguistic and emotional complexity*” (ibid) which facilitates the input comprehension and acquisition for the learner.

So, with the new teaching approaches, like learners, teachers’ roles have changed or rather besides transmitting knowledge, new roles have been attributed to them as highlighted by Tudor (1993) who argues that in a learner-centred approach, the teacher has to assume the role of *learning counsellor* along with ‘*the responsibilities which this role brings with it*’ (p. 22). Tudor then identifies five responsibilities that he considers important for a teacher assuming the role of ‘*learning counsellor*’ which are summarised in the table below.

Table 2.6: Teacher’s New Responsibilities in the Learner-Centered Class (adopted from Tudor, 1993, p. 24-29)

<i>Responsibilities of the teacher as a Learning Counsellor</i>	
<i>1. Preparing learners</i>	<i>Training learners on educational skills to develop their understanding and human potential so as to cope with their new roles in the learner-centred class by helping them develop awareness in a number of issues that are:</i> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <i>a. Self-awareness as a language learner</i> <i>b. Awareness of learning goals.</i> <i>c. Awareness of learning options.</i> <i>d. Language awareness.</i>
<i>2. Analysing learner’s need</i>	<i>Listening carefully to what students have to say about what they should learn, and then helping them to formulate their insights in a pedagogically useful form.</i>
<i>3. Selecting methodology</i>	<i>The teacher must use his/her professional judgment to select a teaching-learning mode that seems likely to hit the right chord with students. Teaching method needs therefore to be chosen not only on the basis of what seems theoretically plausible, but also in the light of the experience, personality, and expectations of the students involved.</i>
<i>4. Transferring responsibility</i>	<i>Assessing how much, and which areas of responsibility to transfer to students is a key aspect of the teacher’s role and this involves the teacher evaluating three main points:</i> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <i>a. what students have to contribute;</i> <i>b. how this can make learning more effective;</i> <i>c. how capable students are of assuming a constructive and responsible role in shaping their learning programme.</i>

	<p><i>The teacher needs to accept students as psychologically complex individuals and understand them within their socio-cultural context by thinking at the following questions:</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <i>a. How motivated are my students?</i> <i>b. How mature are my students?</i> <i>c. What are my students' cultural attitudes to (language) study and to the roles of teachers and learners?</i> <i>d. Are there any external constraints that place limits on learner direction?</i>
5. <i>Involving learners</i>	<p><i>Learner involvement to course planning is not an all-or-nothing affair because it is a very complex process, one to which different types of students can contribute to varying degrees. Teachers may find it helpful to draw up a list of the decisions they have to make, and then select from this list the areas where their students seem most likely to be able to make a sensible contribution to decision-making. Besides, student's involvement should be a gradual process and self-direction is best learned in a hands-on manner</i></p>

As shown in the table above, the new responsibilities of teachers, particularly foreign language teachers, go beyond teaching the subject matter i.e.: the target language, to training learners to take responsibility of their learning which is the core objective of the learner-centered class in general and a basic principle of vocabulary learning. Such multifaceted training is too much demanding and requires more efforts, time, patience and more skills on the part of the teachers themselves who need to be well trained and ready to embrace this responsibility because as clearly explained by Angel Gurría the secretary-General of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development OECD (2012): “*the quality of an education system cannot exceed the quality of its teachers and school leaders*”. (Cited in Covaci, 2012, p. 3). Simply put, the quality of an education system is the reflection and the result of the quality of its teachers and school leaders and lack of the latter engenders a lack of the former.

Equally, the quality of vocabulary instruction cannot exceed the quality of its teachers who are required based on the previous table to prepare learners by raising their awareness about the importance of vocabulary, its different types, and the different strategies to learn it. Teachers have also to adjust their vocabulary teaching methodology to meet their

learners' needs. More importantly they have to involve them and guide them to take part in planning their own learning as a step to transferring responsibility. Quality teachers or effective teachers have the potential to change the course of events and act in favour of the learner. This is demonstrated by Sanders and Rivers (1996) who conducted a study to investigate the relationship between teachers' effectiveness and students' academic achievements. Their main findings were:

1. Differences in student achievement of 50 percentile points were observed as a result of teacher sequence after only three years.
2. The effects of teachers on student achievement are both additive and cumulative with little evidence of compensatory effects.
3. As teacher effectiveness increases, lower achieving- students are the first to benefit. The top quintile of teachers facilitates appropriate to excellent gains for students of all achievement levels.
4. Students of different ethnicities respond equivalently within the same quintile of teacher effectiveness. (p. 1).

The findings above back up the idea that teachers still matter in education, both in developed and developing countries. Based on a number of studies (Chetty et al. 2011, Chetty, Friedman, and Rockoff 2014) Buhl-Wiggers et al. (2014) claim that: "*Extensive evidence from developed countries shows that teacher quality has large effects on children's success in school and in adulthood, especially when exposed to quality teaching at young ages*" (p. 02). These researchers investigated teachers' impact on learners' success in Uganda, and their findings revealed that: "*teachers do matter for student learning*" in an African country like Northern Uganda in the same way they matter in developed countries (ibid, p.23). In a similar study conducted by Wright et al. (1997), the researchers report that their findings: "*well document that the most important factor affecting student learning is the teacher*" (p. 63) and therefore, they argue that the direct and obvious implication of their finding is that:

more can be done to improve education by improving the effectiveness of teachers than by any other single factor. Effective teachers appear to be effective with students of all achievement levels, regardless of the level of heterogeneity in their classrooms. (*ibid*)

However, the role a teacher plays in educational settings is generally determined by his/her knowledge of the subject matter and more importantly by his/her beliefs about the teaching/learning processes. Thus, improving '*the effectiveness of teachers*' should go by improving their knowledge in the subject matter and insuring that their educational beliefs are updated and do match the contemporary approaches as regards the teaching practices such as in foreign language teaching and vocabulary instruction.

2.13. Teachers' Beliefs

If one admits that people act the way they think, it would be reasonable to acknowledge the impact of teachers' ways of thinking and beliefs on their behaviour outside as well as inside the classroom and subsequently on their learners' achievement. With this in mind, researchers' interest in the study of teachers' beliefs has evolved slowly, but surely over the last six decades with the first edition of the *Handbook of Research on Teaching* (Gage, 1963) being an eminent starting point (Ashton, 2014, p.31) . Yet, Ashton declares that these researches are still insufficient since their documentation uncovered a significant gap that must be addressed as a precondition to foster teachers' beliefs that in turn will boost not only their performance and well-being but also their students'. (*ibid*, p.43)

So, what is meant by a belief? Borg (2001) defines belief as: "*a proposition which may be consciously or unconsciously held, is evaluative in that it is accepted as true by the individual, and is therefore imbued with emotive commitment; further, it serves as a guide to thought and behaviour*" (p. 186). A belief therefore may be conceived as the result of the individual's emotional and physical relationship and interactions with his surrounding right from his early age and which over time becomes an integral part of his sub conscience and then functions as a filter to upcoming experiences from this surrounding.

Some researchers differentiate between teachers' beliefs and teachers' knowledge (Pajares, 1992) while others consider beliefs as a form of knowledge or a result of it (Kagan, 1993). Pajares (1992) furthermore argues that it is a difficult task to define beliefs because:

They travel in disguise and often under alias—attitudes, values, judgments, axioms, opinions, ideology, perceptions, conceptions, conceptual systems, preconceptions, dispositions, implicit theories, explicit theories, personal theories, internal mental processes, action strategies, rules of practice, practical principles, perspectives, repertoires of understanding, and social strategy, to name but a few that can be found in the literature. (p. 309)

So, the term 'belief' itself is understood differently and therefore conceptualized differently which explains why Pajares describes it as a "*messy construct*" (ibid, p. 307). All in all, there is a strong relationship between beliefs and knowledge, whether beliefs shape knowledge or knowledge creates beliefs, both are important in teachers' conception of their teaching practices. This is prominent in the characteristics that Pajares attributes to teachers' beliefs and that are summarised by Ballone and Czerniak (2001) in the following nine points:

1. Beliefs are formed early and tend to be self-perpetuated. They tend to be preserved throughout time, experience, reason and schooling.
2. People develop a belief system that houses all the beliefs acquired through the process of cultural transmission.
3. Beliefs are prioritized according to their connections or relationship to other beliefs.
4. The earlier a belief is incorporated into the belief structure, the more difficult it is to change.
5. Belief alteration is relatively rare during adulthood.
6. Beliefs strongly influence perception.
7. The beliefs individuals possess strongly affect their behavior.
8. Beliefs about teaching are well established by the time a student attends college
9. Beliefs play a key role in defining tasks and selecting the cognitive tools with which to interpret, plan, and make decisions regarding such tasks. (p. 8)

If these beliefs are conflicting with the principles steering, for instance the teaching of English as a foreign language or academic vocabulary, the result would inevitably be in disfavor of the learner and definitely unenthusiastic. In this respect, Ashton (2014) explains

that: “for teachers, beliefs may seem better suited to helping them cope with “the ill-structured” and “deeply entangled” problems of teaching than research-based knowledge or academic theory” (p. 37). Simply put, teachers may be more confident with their beliefs about certain teaching practices than what theoretical researches dictate them to do.

Hence, to achieve successful teaching and make meaningful learning happen, teachers must evidently comprehend how to fine-tune and adapt their practices to meet students' needs. The problem is that as stated by Marble et al. (2000):

in spite of the central role that teachers' understandings of teaching and learning play in helping teachers address student needs, we know very little about how and why teachers do the things they do in classrooms, or about how to help them make the best decisions for their students. (p. 01).

The obvious question would be then what makes teachers believe in a specific way or rather what are the sources of teachers' beliefs?

2.13.1. Sources of Teachers Beliefs

Identifying the sources of teachers' beliefs is as important as identifying the beliefs themselves as they can help generate a better understanding of the latter. Though the literature reveals a wide range of sources that may contribute to the shaping of teachers' beliefs, the present study focuses on the most cited ones and which are summarized by Richards and Lockhart (1994) in the following table.

Table 2.7: Sources of Teachers' Beliefs based on Richards and Lockhart (1994, p. 30-31)

Main Sources of Teachers' Beliefs	Clarification
<i>Their own experience as language learners</i>	<i>All teachers were once students, and their beliefs about teaching are often a reflection of how they themselves were taught...</i>
<i>Experience of what works best.</i>	<i>For many teachers experience is the primary source of beliefs about teaching. A teacher may have found that some teaching strategies work well and some do not...</i>
<i>Established practice.</i>	<i>Within a school, an institution, or a school district, certain teaching styles and practices may be preferred...</i>
<i>Personality factors.</i>	<i>Some teachers have a personal preference for a particular teaching pattern, arrangement, or activity because it matches their personality...</i>
<i>Educationally based or research-based principles.</i>	<i>Teachers may draw on their understanding of a learning principle in psychology, second language acquisition, or education and try to apply it in the classroom...</i>
<i>Principles derived from an approach or method.</i>	<i>Teachers may believe in the effectiveness of a particular approach or method of teaching and consistently try to implement it in the classroom...</i>

Thus, Richards *et al.* (1994) identify the teachers' own experience as language learners as the first source for generating their beliefs about the learning/teaching process. In the same line of thought, Bryan *et al.* (2002) claim that: "*the process of learning to teach begins with making explicit one's beliefs about teaching and learning*" (p. 822). It seems that teachers reactivate the prior knowledge they gained while they were themselves foreign language learners to exploit it with their own learners. Such knowledge is reinforced by teachers' experience in the field as well as the teaching practices favoured in their place of work. Besides, the researchers refer to the teachers' type of personality as being decisive in the formation of their beliefs. They also consider that principles that teachers gain from a successful teaching approach or method or from other research-based knowledge as in *psychology, second language acquisition, or education*, constitute an essential source for developing their beliefs. (Richard *et al.* 1994, p. 30-31)

Sathyanarayana Rao et al. (2009), in an article entitled the *Biochemistry of Beliefs*, further explain that the sources of beliefs consist of: “*environment, events, knowledge, past experiences, visualization etc*” (p. 1). The title of their article, *Biochemistry of Beliefs*, clearly reflects the idea that a belief is like a chemical construct which results from the interaction and reaction of a number of elements, and this is definitely how teachers’ beliefs evolve over time.; through reaction and interaction between internal and external factors. The researchers also argue that these beliefs are likely to change:

One of the biggest misconceptions people often harbor is that belief is a static, intellectual concept. ... Fortunately for us, receptors on the cell membranes are flexible, which can alter in sensitivity and conformation. In other words, even when we feel stuck ‘emotionally’, there is always a biochemical potential for change and possible growth. When we choose to change our thoughts (bursts of neurochemicals!), we become open and receptive to other pieces of sensory information hitherto blocked by our beliefs! When we change our thinking, we change our beliefs. When we change our beliefs, we change our behavior. (ibid, p.1-2)

So, changing one’s beliefs may occur only if the individual; after being confronted with contradictory factors and being convinced of the necessity of the change is strongly willing to change. Yet this change is not an easy task as reported by Ashton (2014) who declares that: “*Social psychology and research on teaching have repeatedly shown that belief change is a complex, arduous, and long-term process*”. (p. 43). So, if the change, though difficult is possible, how to make it happen?

2.13.2. Changing Teachers’ Beliefs

The call for change in a teacher’s beliefs is a professional necessity drawn by the need to cope with the rapid and continuous change in the educational underpinning theories. However, the change should not be an all-or-nothing approach to teachers’ beliefs and professional development. Such change has some specificities that are identified by freeman (1989) and summed up by Richards et al. (2001) as follows:

- Change does not necessarily mean doing something differently; it can mean a change in awareness. Change can be an affirmation of current practice...
- Change is not necessarily immediate or complete. In deed some changes over time, with the collaborator serving only to initiate the process.
- Some changes are directly accessible by the collaborator and thereafter quantifiable, whereas others are not.
- Some types of change can come to closure and others are open-ended. (p. 5)

Thus, changing teachers' belief is a lengthy and gradual process that necessitates efforts, patience and engagement on the part of the teachers and their collaborators identified by Richards et al as: "*supervisors, colleagues, teacher trainers and quite often groups of students*" (ibid, p. 8). It is through the interaction with these individuals that the teacher is driven to embrace change. Supervisors and teacher trainers can guide the teacher by providing him/her with formal feedback while colleagues and students can do the same thing indirectly through discussion and informal feedback (ibid). Besides, teachers themselves can be a noteworthy source for this change through reflecting on their own teaching practices. This reflective teaching can provide both teachers and researchers with insightful information about the strengths and weaknesses in teachers' actual practices and can accordingly "*help to bring about positive change*" (Batten, 1991, p. 295).

2.14. Conclusion

EFL students at the tertiary level are required to develop academic language proficiency in English by the end of their higher education. Thus, they are expected to gain knowledge of the necessary register that characterizes the academic discourse; CALP, as opposed to the social discourse; BICS. Therefore, in this chapter, the literature relating to the significance of CALP and distinguishing between the two types of discourse was considered. This distinction is based mainly on Cummins's Theory which draws teachers' attention to immigrants' needs when learning English referring to the difficulty and the long time taken to develop CALP as opposed to BICS.

After that, the chapter tried to clarify what is meant by academic vocabulary and to display the strong connection between this latter and CALP through the related literature. It then presented the underlying features of academic vocabulary with reference to loanwords, Latinate verbs, abstractness and multiple meaning. As opposed to what is commonly believed the literature revealed that university learners need their teachers' support and guidance to build their vocabulary knowledge. This guidance maybe interpreted as teaching vocabulary explicitly with a focus on academic word lists and training learners to use strategies that facilitate vocabulary learning over time.

Chapter Three:
Data Analysis and Interpretation

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3.1. Introduction

As mentioned in the first chapter, different research tools have been employed as data-gathering vehicles considered appropriate to fit the scope and objective of this research work. The current chapter is then devoted to the analysis and interpretation of the quantitative and qualitative data obtained from these tools, in the preceding phase. The chapter thus starts with the analysis of the two vocabulary tests to determine the lexical profile of DLED undergraduate students. This is followed by the analysis of the two questionnaires as a way to discover the beliefs, attitudes and practices of the sample population; students as well as teachers. This would guide in understanding the learning situation along with the different needs of the targeted population in terms of academic vocabulary.

The last tool to be analysed is the classroom observation meant to observe both teachers and students while using the English language and to see how they behave and react when faced with unfamiliar vocabulary. Observing the participants' practices would help verify their claims in the questionnaires. The chapter thus disseminates the collected data and analyses them by trying to explain how these findings relate to the research questions. The analysis is based mainly on comparing, contrasting and crosschecking the data gathered from the different tools as a way to validate the results and verify the formulated hypotheses.

3.2. Analysis of Vocabulary Tests

So, the first tools to be employed in this study were the vocabulary tests, namely the VST and the AWLT. The former was meant to evaluate the participants' overall vocabulary size and the latter to assess their knowledge of the most frequent general academic vocabulary; the focus of this research work. The results obtained from both test are displayed in the following table.

Table 3.1: Undergraduate Students' Scores in VST and AWLT

	1 LMD			3 LMD		
	VST	AWLT		VST	AWLT	
		Pre-test	Post-test		Pre-test	Post-test
Mean score In word family (w.f.)	6993.33	315.33	313.33	7033.33	362	365.33
		314.33			363.67	

The table above illustrates the mean scores of the two tests; more details about the participants' individual scores can be consulted in appendix ten. So, based on these findings, the size of the overall receptive vocabulary knowledge of the first year participants was about 6993.33 word-families (w.f.) while the third year participants scored 7033.33 w.f.

To interpret these results, we make reference to an important research conducted by Nation¹² in (2006) whose objective was to “*see what vocabulary size is needed for unassisted comprehension of written and spoken English*” (p. 59). So, Nation explains in his article that language learners need to know 98% of the vocabulary in a text; spoken or written, to be able to understand it without assistance and to achieve this objective Nation claims that “*8,000 to 9,000 word-family vocabulary is needed for comprehension of written text and a vocabulary of 6,000 to 7,000 for spoken text*” (*ibid*). Then, Nation adds that the transitory nature of spoken language may require a text coverage greater than 98% which can augment the amount of vocabulary needed to understand spoken texts.

Accordingly, Nation and Baglar (2007) argue that: “*the goal of around 8,000 word families is an important one for learners who wish to deal with a range of unsimplified spoken and written texts*” (p. 9). Based on these estimates, we can conclude that the vocabulary size of our participants, both first and third year, may help them to understand simplified spoken

¹² An outstanding figure in applied linguistics, he is well known for his influential research in the teaching and learning of vocabulary and language teaching methodology.

and written texts. But, when the texts are authentic and unsimplified such as novels, newspapers and academic texts, our participants are likely to face difficulty in comprehension unless they are assisted. The assistance may be provided by the teacher or by using a dictionary to figure out the meaning of unfamiliar words.

Now, comparing the results of the participants, there is visibly, a difference between the vocabulary size of the two levels, but the difference is not significant as the third year knew only 40 w.f. ($7033.33 - 6993.33 = 40$) more than the first year. The conclusions we can draw from these findings are the following. First, there is a deficit in the overall vocabulary knowledge of UG students in spite of the long period of EFL learning. Second, UG students succeed to add new vocabulary to their repertoire as they progress in their studies. Yet, the learning process is quite slow which explains the insignificant difference between their entry and exit lexical profile.

The same conclusions can be drawn from the results of the AWLT. As has already been stated in chapter two, the AWL contains the most frequent words used in the academic context and therefore university students are expected to know this set of vocabulary. So, based on the table above, out of the 570 w.f. of the AWL, 1 LMD knew about 314 while 3 LMD knew about 363. Again, we notice a deficit in the participants' knowledge of this important type of vocabulary. Besides, though third year participants scored higher than first year; still there is no big difference between the scores of the two levels ($363-314= 49$). Moreover, the results of the pre-test and post-test not only reflected a limited improvement in the results of the third year (362 vs. 365.33), but also revealed a regression in the results of the first year (315.33 vs. 313.33). It is worth mentioning that this research work took place in very special circumstances¹³ that may have affected the results of these tests. Studies have

¹³ For more information, see limitations of the study.

been interrupted many times, and therefore the participants may have forgotten some of their vocabulary knowledge.

In this regard, Nation (1990) explains that words which are partially learned and that are not activated for genuine and productive use are forgotten quickly. Likewise, Schmitt & Schmitt (1995) assert that language learners forget much of their newly learned knowledge shortly after the end of the first learning class and then the pace of forgetting diminishes. This entails that a systematic vocabulary instruction is needed to help EFL learners commit to memory the new words and build strong vocabulary knowledge. Moreover, these findings reinforce our assumption about the difficulty of UG students to learn vocabulary only from exposure to the language in the different teaching subjects which provides confirmation to hypothesis number two.

3.3. Analysis of Teachers' questionnaire

Given that individuals' practices are often guided by their beliefs, the current research tried to unveil teachers' beliefs and, by extension, their practices with reference to explicit (academic) vocabulary instruction at the Bachelor's level. To achieve this objective, a questionnaire was distributed to the EFL teachers of DLED who were in charge of the undergraduate students; the target population of the study. After the collection of the returned questionnaires and the exclusion of the uncompleted ones, sixteen questionnaires were finally selected; still some of them were not fully filled out as some of the questions were skipped by the participants; a problem that is common and unavoidable in academic and scientific research (Abawi, 2017). The questionnaire consists of two distinct sections; with *Identification and Background* as the first section and *Teachers' Beliefs and Practices* as the second section.

3.3.1. Section One: Teachers' Identification and Background

The first section of the questionnaire, entitled *Identification and Background*, tackled common questions including teachers' gender, qualification and teaching experience. The following table summarizes these data giving an overview about the participants' profile.

Table 3.2: Teachers' Profile

Gender	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 04 males ➤ 12 females
Qualifications	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 05 doctorates ➤ 11 magisters (Phd students)
Rank	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 05 Lecturers (03 MCA + 02 MCB) ➤ 08 Assistant teachers (MAA) ➤ 01 Associate Teacher ➤ 02 Part-time Teachers
Teaching experience (Nbr of years per teacher)	T ₁ (4) + T ₂ (6) + T ₃ (10) + T ₄ (10) + T ₅ (12) + T ₆ (12) + T ₇ (12) + T ₈ (13) + T ₉ (16) + T ₁₀ (16) + T ₁₁ (17) + T ₁₂ (18) + T ₁₃ (20) + T ₁₄ (20) + T ₁₅ (29) + T ₁₆ (30)
Mean score of participants' Teaching experience	15 years

As seen in the table above, no teachers with the rank of Professor took part in this study as they are often given the charge of the post-graduation levels; Master and Doctoral students. Yet, the teachers who participated in this research can be qualified as experienced teachers since the mean score of their teaching experience is 15 years, with 04 years as the shortest teaching period and 30 years as the longest period. Most of these teachers have already taught either in middle school (01 teacher) or secondary school (07 teachers), or even in both (03 teachers). Only 05 of the participants joined the university without any experience in pre-university education. Besides, three of the participants reported that they have taught in other institutions; namely at 'Ecole des Cadets-Oran-, CEIL (Intensive Language Teaching Centres) and Teacher Training/Coaching.

This entails that the majority of our participants have adequate background knowledge about ELT for beginning levels, which makes them better equipped to ensure continuity of EFL teaching at the under-graduation education; the Bachelor's level. Moreover, eleven out of the sixteen teachers, i.e. about 69% of the participants have also experienced teaching EFL at the Master level. Besides, almost all the participants have been in charge of more than one module/subjects as it is indicated in the following table.

Table 3.3: Subjects taught by the Teacher Participants

Participants	Subjects taught
T ₁	Culture and Civilisation
T ₂	Culture and Civilisation + Linguistics
T ₃	Literature + Written Expression+ Oral Expression + Listening Comprehension+ Reading Comprehension
T ₄	Literature + Written Expression+ Oral Expression + Didactics + Social Sciences
T ₅	Phonetics + Written Expression + Linguistics + Grammar (Morph syntax) + Phonology + Reading Comprehension + Sociolinguistics + Origin of Language
T ₆	Culture and Civilisation + Linguistics
T ₇	Study Skills + Written Expression + Oral Expression + Linguistics + ESP
T ₈	Oral Expression + ESP
T ₉	Culture and Civilisation + Linguistics + Grammar + Written Expression + Oral Expression + Translation
T ₁₀	Phonetics + Study Skills + Written Expression + Oral Expression + Linguistics + Grammar + Gender Studies + TTU + American Civilisation + Psycholinguistics + Dissertation Writing + Linguistic Theories
T ₁₁	Written Expression + ESP
T ₁₂	Literature + Written Expression + Oral Expression + Culture and Civilisation + Linguistics + Grammar
T ₁₃	Written Expression + Oral Expression + Psychology Cognitive + Educational Psychology + TEFL
T ₁₄	Written Expression + Study Skill + Linguistics + Computational Linguistics + Deontological Ethics + Social Sciences
T ₁₅	Study Skills +Culture and Civilisation + Linguistics + Grammar + Business English
T ₁₆	Literature + Oral Expression + Linguistics + Reading Comprehension + ESP

The diversity of the subjects taught by each teacher, added to the characteristics stated previously, is supposed to contribute to the teachers' qualification and proficiency, not only in terms of knowledge and skills, but also in terms of awareness about their learners' needs.

These needs consist obviously, among others, of the need to learn the academic content of the subject as well as the need to master the linguistic vehicle used to transmit the content; including the lexical competence deemed significantly important in conveying meaning, and which should fit its academic context. With this profile, it is believed that these participants can help better understand the characteristics of the learning situation and thus can help to provide answers to the research questions. The coming section is devoted to the scrutiny of teachers' expertise as reflected in their beliefs and practices.

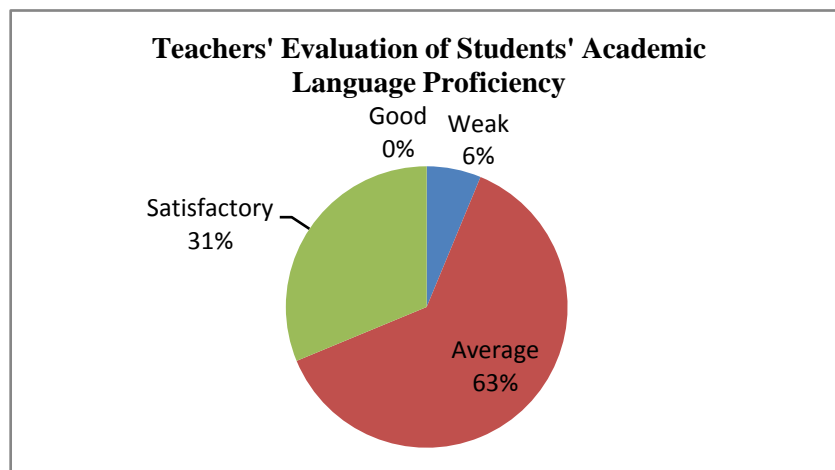
3.3.2. Section Two: Teachers' Beliefs and Practices

As formerly stated, this section targets the beliefs and practices of DLED undergraduate teachers as regards academic vocabulary instruction. This section includes seventeen questions, but its objective is actually twofold. The first part, consisting of sixteen questions, (see appendix 5) examines the beliefs of the participants regarding their students' linguistic and lexical competence with a focus on general academic vocabulary aka tier two vocabulary. Then it moves on examining their practices with reference to their vocabulary teaching strategies. The second part, consisting only of the last question, focuses specifically on teachers' beliefs about the autonomy and maturity of DLED undergraduate students. These findings are sorted, based on the type of the belief, and discussed in the following sub-sections.

3.3.2.1. Beliefs about UG students' EFL proficiency level

Through question one, the researcher sought to uncover the participants' beliefs about their students' overall proficiency in the English language. The participants were therefore asked the classical question which is to provide a general evaluation of their students' EFL level, using the options: weak, average, satisfactory and good. The findings revealed that out of sixteen, ten teachers (62.5%) believe that their students have an average level; one teacher (6.25%) believes that the students have a weak level, five (31.25%) think that students' level

is satisfactory and none of the participants think that students' academic language proficiency is good. (See figure 3.1.) It is worth mentioning that all the participants teach at least two from the three undergraduate levels, and then their evaluation concerns the proficiency level of all the three levels.



Pie-chart 3.1: Teacher-based Evaluation of DLED UG Students' Academic Language Proficiency

It can clearly be observed from the pie-chart above that the majority of the teachers, participating in this study, are not satisfied with the language proficiency of their EFL students; a belief which is commonly shared among many teachers in our Department and even in many English Departments across the country.

3.3.2.2. Beliefs about UG students' distinction between AE and SE

The second question was meant to verify, always through teachers' beliefs and experience with UG students, whether the latter differentiate between Social English (SE) and Academic English (AE). No participants did select the 'yes, considerably' option, while the majority (62.5%) opted for 'yes, to some extent', 12.5% chose 'yes, to a little extent' and 16% selected 'no'. Therefore, our participants express clearly their conviction that students at this level either do not distinguish at all between the two types of discourse or their distinction at best, is partial. As a follow up to this question, the participants were asked to provide explanations to their claims which are displayed in table 3.4.

Table 3.4: Teachers' Explanation for UG Students' Limited Distinction between SE and AE

Teachers' Explanation for Students' Limited Distinction between SE and AE	
T ₁	<i>They write in the same way they interact, using inappropriate vocabulary and abbreviations.</i>
T ₂	<i>Most of them use informal English when writing and even speaking.</i>
T ₃	<i>Students usually use Conversational English when writing essays, in exams and tests where they are required to use Academic English vocabulary. They also use contractions.</i>
T ₄	<i>Some students are extremely influenced by social media, English songs and TV series. As a result, they are much more familiar with Social English. Yet, they lack the vocabulary needed for the academic context.</i>
T ₅	<i>They are influenced by the movies, TV shows and music.</i>
T ₆	<i>They write the same way they speak using spoken English in exams.</i>
T ₇	<i>Some students use texting abbreviations in their academic writing.</i>
T ₈	<i>Some students use the first person subject pronoun when writing essays; others keep the abbreviations when they explain. In oral expression they tend to use informal language.</i>
T ₉	<i>When studying the ESP course they realise the difference</i>
T ₁₀	<i>They distinguish the difference in spelling (texto).</i>
T ₁₁	<i>Many students do not make the difference.</i>

As five participants skipped this part of the question, the table above displays the answers of only eleven out of the sixteen teachers. So, based on these explanations, it seems that almost all teachers believe that outside the classroom environment, our students are mainly exposed to Social/Conversational/Informal English. Thanks to the modern technology and the developed means of communication, especially the social media, students can easily access English movies, TV shows, songs and music for entertainment. The result of this exposure is that our students are influenced by this type of discourse which is brought to the classroom and reflected in their academic performance through the use of the informal style, the abbreviations, the contractions and the inappropriate vocabulary.

3.3.2.3. Beliefs about language components causing UG students difficulties

To understand the difficulties that the UG students face with their EFL academic language proficiency, teachers were asked through the third question, what language components usually cause problems to their students in terms of 1) comprehension, 2) participation, and 3) performance in oral/written tests/exams/essay writing. The participants were provided with the following table (Table 3.5) to guide them in their answers.

Table 3.5: Language Components Causing Difficulties to EFL UG Students

	Grammar	vocabulary	pronunciation
1. Comprehension	05 (31.25%)	14 (87.5%)	03 (18.75%)
2. Participation	05 (31.25%)	13 (81.25%)	10 (62.5%)
3. Performance in tests/exams/essay writing	14 (87.5%)	13(81.25%)	04 (25%)

The participants were allowed to choose more than one option. Hence, the findings revealed that in terms of comprehension which is the basic step in the learning process, 87.5% of the teachers believe that vocabulary is the main cause behind the difficulties facing their students at the undergraduate level. Likewise, in terms of participation, 81.25% of the teachers are convinced that vocabulary is again the key source of students' problems followed by pronunciation with 62.5%, while they consider grammar with 87.5% as well as vocabulary with 81.5, the main language components causing their students problem in terms of performance in tests/exams/essay writing.

Thus, the agreement among the participants vis-a-vis the noteworthy role of vocabulary in EFL learners' academic achievement and its supremacy over the other language components is clear-cut. Besides, the participants' judgments seem reasonable and conform to what research says about the skills tackled in this question. Vocabulary is the key component for comprehension. Its pronunciation, which is one aspect of vocabulary knowledge, obstructs many EFL learners from participating in classroom discussion and from using the language

outside the classroom, and its grammar; another aspect of vocabulary knowledge and the “*skeleton of language*” (Harmer, 1991, p. 153) negatively impinges on EFL learners’ writing skill.

3.3.2.4. Beliefs about UG students’ vocabulary knowledge

Moving to the focus of the study, questions 4, 5, 6 and 7 were devoted to teachers’ beliefs about their students’ vocabulary knowledge. The fourth question was meant to find out whether the participants think that their students’ vocabulary knowledge matches the requirements of the academic language proficiency expected from a university student. Though, none of the participants (0%) chose the ‘*no*’ option, they did not select the ‘*yes, considerably*’ option either. Their answers actually varied between ‘*yes, to some extent*’ with 56.25% and ‘*yes, to a limited extent*’ with 43.75%. Thus, the results of this question confirm the findings of the first question and reflect the clear-cut conviction of the participants about the overall average level of their students’ academic language proficiency together with their average vocabulary knowledge.

Question five was actually meant to crosscheck teachers’ answers to question 02. While the second question was about students’ distinction between AE and SE, this question was about students’ differentiation between the three types of English vocabulary. The table below compares the answers of the two questions, 02 and 05.

Table 3.6: Comparing Findings of Questions Two and Five

Options Questions	Yes, considerably	Yes, to some extent.	Yes, to a limited extent.	No	Total: Nbr of teachers
Q 02: Do you think that UG students differentiate between social English and academic English?	0	10	02	04	16
Q05: Do you think that UG students are familiar with the different types of English vocabulary?	01	07	07	01	16

So, while none of the participants think that UG students distinguish ‘considerably’ between SE and AE, only one thinks that they distinguish ‘considerably’ between the different types of English vocabulary, and while only one teacher believes that students do not distinguish between the different types of vocabulary, four teachers believe that students do not make a difference between SE and AE. As for the two other options, ten teachers believe that students distinguish to some extent between SE and AE vs. seven for the different types of vocabulary, while two chose to a little extent for the former vs. seven for the latter. Based on these findings, it seems that teachers’ answers to both questions are more or less consistent.

Teachers were previously asked, in question 03, what language component was behind their students’ difficulties and to validate their answers, they were also asked as shown in table 3.7, through questions 06 and 07 respectively, whether their students a)- possess sufficient academic vocabulary to understand the content of the teaching subject, and b)- to meet the writing requirements of assignments and exams.

Table 3.7: Teachers’ Beliefs about UG Students’ Academic Vocabulary Knowledge

Questions \ Options	Yes, considerably	yes, to some extent	yes, to a little extent	No
Q 06: Do you think that undergraduate students possess sufficient academic vocabulary to understand the content of your teaching subject?	01 (6.25%)	07 (43.75%)	06 (37.5%)	02 (12.5%)
Q 07: Do you think that undergraduate students possess sufficient academic vocabulary to meet the writing requirements of assignments and exams?	0 (0%)	10 (62.5%)	06 (37.5%)	0 (0%)

Concerning question 06, 07 teachers (43.75%), as shown in the above table, think that the academic vocabulary of their students is sufficient to some extent to enable them understand the content of their subjects, and nearly the same number; 06 teachers (37.5%), think that it is sufficient to a little extent, only one thinks that it is considerably sufficient

while 02 teachers believe that it is not sufficient. These results seem quite consistent with the results of question 3. With the exception of one teacher who believed that UG students possess sufficient academic vocabulary to understand the content of the teaching subject, the answers of the majority of the teachers in question 3 were limited to some extent and a little extent.

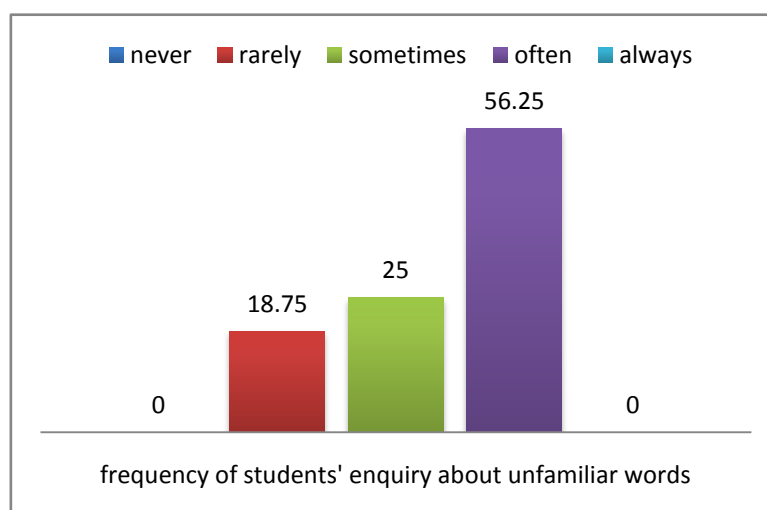
As for question 07, none of the participants chose ‘*yes, considerably*’ and likewise none of them selected the ‘*no*’ option. The majority (62.5%) think that students possess to some extent sufficient academic vocabulary to meet the writing requirements of assignments and exams while 37.5% of the participants opted for a little extent. Again, these findings match with teachers’ answers to question 03, where the majority reported that grammar was the main cause behind students’ difficulty in exams and writing followed by vocabulary in the second position.

But, these findings do not match what research states about language learners’ vocabulary knowledge. Webb (2008) and a number of other researchers (Zhou, 2010; Fan, 2000; Laufer, 1998) demonstrated that the receptive vocabulary of EFL learners (words they recognize when listening or reading) is larger than their productive vocabulary (words they produce when speaking or writing) and accordingly if the receptive vocabulary of a learner is limited and it obstructs his comprehension, then his productive vocabulary would be much more limited and the learner would face even serious difficulties in exams and writing. However, the findings of question 06 and 07 revealed the opposite; for instance while 07 teachers reported that their students possess to some extent sufficient academic vocabulary to understand their lectures, 10 teachers said that students possess to some extent enough academic vocabulary to perform well in exams and writing.

3.3.2.5. Beliefs about UG students' enquiry about unfamiliar words

Unlike the previous questions, question 08 focused on the scrutiny of the students' reaction when faced with unfamiliar words. The focus was actually on students' use of a particular vocabulary learning strategy described by Schmitt as a social strategy. When a learner meets a word for the first time, he/she can discover its meaning using a variety of strategies; using social strategies such as to seek help from the teacher or classmates is the most straightforward strategy that the learner can use to obtain the information and satisfy his/her curiosity.

As such, in this question teachers were asked if their students ask them about the meaning of unfamiliar words during the delivery of the lectures. Their answers are illustrated in bar-graph 3.1. The majority of the participants with 56.25% claimed that students often ask about new vocabulary, 25% said that students sometimes ask about unfamiliar words and 18.75% reported that students rarely ask. Neither 'always' nor 'never' were selected.



Bar-graph 3.1: Frequency of UG Students' Enquiry about Unfamiliar Words

These findings simply reflect students' frequent use of this social strategy and also their need for their teachers' support in the building of their vocabulary knowledge. As a follow up question, the participants were invited to provide more clarifications and to specify what type of vocabulary their students generally enquire about; table 3.8 summarizes their answers.

Table 3.8: Type of Vocabulary Generally searched by UG Students

Type of Vocabulary	Nbr of Teachers
Tier one	0
Tier two	04
Tier three	03
Tier one + two	02
Tier two + three	01
All the above	06
Total	16

No teacher selected tier one alone, four teachers chose tier two and three chose tier three. As some participants selected two options together and by adding their answers to the previous ones, the results may be modified as follows; tier one with one selection (0+1), tier two with seven selections (4+2+1), and tier three with four selections (3+1). Moreover, six teachers chose ‘*all the above*’ option, adding as such a point to all the different types of vocabulary. So, based on these findings and relying on teachers’ claims, it can be assumed that UG students face difficulty with all the three types of EFL vocabulary, but their main difficulty is with tier two (general academic vocabulary) followed by tier three (technical vocabulary).

3.3.2.6. Participants’ vocabulary teaching practices with UG students

Moving to the scrutiny of teachers’ practices in terms of vocabulary teaching, questions 09, 10 and 11 were meant to check respectively whether our participants 1)deliberately explain vocabulary and/or ask their students if there were any difficult words that 774+hamper their understanding of the lectures, 2) help students to learn the unfamiliar words, and 3) help them to differentiate between the different types of vocabulary. The majority of the participants answered with often for questions 09 and 11 and with always for question 10 as illustrated in table 3.9.

Table 3.9: Frequency of Teachers' Vocabulary Support for their UG Students

Options Questions	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
Q 09: Do you deliberately explain vocabulary and/or ask your students if there were any difficult words that hamper their understanding of the lectures?	01	02	04	08	01
Q 10: If yes, do you help them learn the unfamiliar words?	01	0	02	06	07
Q 11: Do you help them differentiate between the different types of vocabulary?	0	01	02	07	06

Thus, the majority of the participants claim that they provide their UG students with support to help them overcome the difficulties caused by their limited vocabulary knowledge, which is an expected behaviour from our EFL teachers. Such behaviour actually conforms to the different roles expected from a foreign language teacher. To verify whether our teachers put emphasis on one specific type of vocabulary or teach all the three types during their lectures, different sessions of classroom observation have been achieved with different modules and with the two levels of the undergraduate education; first and third year LMD students.

3.3.2.7. Identifying the participants' vocabulary teaching strategies

As the participants reported that they teach vocabulary to help their students, question twelve tackled the strategies that the participants use to teach vocabulary. To achieve this objective, the participants were provided with a table consisting of the most frequent vocabulary teaching strategies and had only to tick the statements that best described them. The table included statements which describe also some common vocabulary teaching beliefs to crosscheck once more the previous findings and understand more the position of our participants in relation to vocabulary instruction at the tertiary level. Teachers' answers are classified in table 3.10 in a descending frequency order.

Table 3.10: Participants' Vocabulary Teaching Strategies

Statements	yes	%
1. I provide them with words' meaning (definition/synonym/antonym)	16	100
2. I provide them with the word's equivalent in French or/and Arabic	13	81.25
3. I encourage them to keep a vocabulary notebook.	12	75
4. I provide them with example sentences	10	62.5
5. I review the new words in following lectures.	09	56.25
6. I prefer to teach them vocabulary learning strategies than teaching them individual words	09	56.25
7. I regularly check students' knowledge of the new words in discrete oral/written tests.	08	50
8. I integrate vocabulary testing within content-based exams.	08	50
9. I ask the students to check the unfamiliar words before class to make them rely on themselves.	08	50
10. I encourage them to make up sentences with the new words	07	43.75
11. Students can learn new words implicitly only through exposure to the language without teachers' support	06	37.5
12. I think students are not interested in studying vocabulary in class	04	25
13. Teaching the content of my subject is more important than teaching vocabulary	04	25
14. Vocabulary teaching is the responsibility of middle/secondary school teachers not university teachers	03	18.75
15. I do not have enough time to teach the content and deal with (academic) vocabulary	02	12.5
16. Vocabulary learning is the responsibility of the students not the teachers.	02	12.5
17. I do not know how to integrate academic vocabulary teaching in my module/lectures.	01	6.25
18. I do not know which words to teach	0	0

The most used vocabulary teaching strategy (VTS), as reflected in the above table, is providing students with words' meaning (definition/synonym/antonym) with 100% of the participants who reported using this strategy. The second most used VTS (81.25%) is providing students with the word's equivalent in French or/and Arabic, followed by encouraging them to keep vocabulary notebooks with 75% and providing them with example sentences with 62.5%. The fifth VTS with a percentage of 56.25% is reviewing the new words in the following lectures. The same percentage of teachers claims that they prefer teaching their students vocabulary learning strategies than teaching them individual words. A preference which is apparently not fully respected since all participants chose the first VTS and many chose VTS number 2,3 and 4; including those who made this claim.

Through statements 07 and 08 and with the same percentage, half of the participants (50%) declared that they do assess students' vocabulary either by regularly checking students' knowledge of the new words in discrete oral/written tests or by integrating vocabulary testing within content-based exams. Half of the teachers also said that they ask the students to check the unfamiliar words before class to make them rely on themselves, while nearly the same percentage (43.75%) reported that they encourage them to make up sentences with the new words.

After classification of the statements based on their frequency, it appears that the statements with high frequencies (see table above; from 01 to 10) are actually VTS that are commonly employed by language teachers who believe in vocabulary instruction and who are in favour of supporting their students in developing their vocabulary knowledge. The remaining statements (from 11 to 18); with low frequencies are mainly beliefs that are usually hold by teachers who are not in favour of vocabulary teaching. The fact that our participants have chosen the first category of strategies makes us conclude that they have a positive attitude towards vocabulary teaching to UG students which rejects our assumption about the negative attitude of the participants concerning this issue and disconfirms hypothesis four. It also entails that these participants are fairly aware of the main and the basic principles guiding vocabulary instruction which is verified through question seventeen.

3.3.2.8. Beliefs about the role of academic vocabulary in developing UG students' AE

In this open-ended question, the participants were invited, based on their expertise, to express their opinion about the role of academic vocabulary in developing EFL learners' academic language proficiency at the university level. Their responses are displayed in table 3.11.

Table 3.11: Teachers' Beliefs about the Importance of Academic Vocabulary

Participants' opinions about the importance of academic vocabulary	
T₁	<i>Very important because without vocabulary both fluency and accuracy could never happen.</i>
T₂	<i>In fact, academic vocabulary is too important to achieve the language performance. It helps students to use the appropriate words in the appropriate places; therefore, it improves their language fluency.</i>
T₃	<i>Wide range of vocabulary can help students express themselves better and develop their academic writings. The more academic vocabulary they develop the more their academic essays meet the requirements of the university level.</i>
T₄	<i>It is a must to develop academic vocabulary, especially through ...</i>
T₅	<i>It is developing considerably, especially with technical modules such as ESP.</i>
T₆	Very important.
T₇	<i>Of course, since vocabulary is one of the important corners in developing the linguistic repertoire of a learner. So, it is crucial to a learner to develop his/her potential by e.g. reading the TL whatever the discipline is.</i>
T₈	<i>The use of vocabulary is based on the teacher's qualifications and the techniques used in order to motivate the class and select appropriate language for given situations.</i>
T₉	<i>Vocabulary is a basic language skill; it carries meaning and differentiates between academic English and social English. It supports learners' communication ability and comprehension. Hence, its development impacts positively learners' proficiency in the language.</i>
T₁₀	<i>I think that it is of primary importance for the development of the 4 language skills as it equips students with a wide-ranging repertoire consisting of words that can be used in their academic essays. It helps them become fluent speakers and skilled writers as well.</i>
T₁₁	Very important. <i>Otherwise they'll face difficulties to convince, write, or express (convey a thought or feeling) in academic English.</i>
T₁₂	<i>It paves the way to language acquisition and performing.</i>
T₁₃	Very important <i>especially when arriving in the 3rd year.</i>
T₁₄	<i>A student who possesses enough vocabulary is able to use academic writing.</i>
T₁₅	<i>Since vocabulary carries meaning, it is essential to enhance students' communication and comprehension. Besides, students need to know the academic vocabulary that is part of the university register, thus developing students academic knowledge is would help them to improve their overall language proficiency.</i>
T₁₆	Skipped the question

Based on these findings, teachers' conviction about the significant role of academic vocabulary in developing EFL learners' academic language proficiency at the university level is categorical. Except of one teacher who skipped the question, all the participants recognised its importance which is clearly reflected in their answers. While some teachers state explicitly that vocabulary is important like with T₁, T₂, T₄, T₆, T₇, T₁₀, T₁₁ and T₁₃, some other teachers demonstrate its importance through explaining its relation with students' academic language

proficiency and how its development positively impacts the latter, like with T₉, T₁₂, T₁₄ and T₁₅.

3.3.2.9. Beliefs about the causes behind UG students' lack of academic vocabulary

Dealing again with teachers' beliefs, the participants were also invited to share their opinion about the factors contributing to learners' lack of academic vocabulary knowledge. Ten out of the fifteen participants who answered this question, pointed explicitly to the lack of reading (see table 3.12., passages in green) as the main factor contributing to students' limited academic vocabulary knowledge. The responsibility for this lack of reading is obviously shared between teachers and students, the former for not giving enough reading assignments to their students and the latter for their poor reading habits (Toulgui, 2017; Arab, 2019).

Table 3.12: Teachers' Beliefs about the Factors Causing UG Students Limited Academic Vocabulary

Participants' opinions about the Factors Causing UG Students Limited Academic Vocabulary	
T ₁	<i>Lack of reading.</i>
T ₂	<i>Lack of exposure and practice in the English language. Students' lack of reading. Lack of teachers' support in the classroom and lack of vocabulary instruction.</i>
T ₃	<i>Lack of exposure since English is a foreign language, in addition to students' poor reading habits in English.</i>
T ₄	<i>Lack of reading and writing. They are not exposed to authentic materials (videos, audio, native speakers).</i>
T ₅	<i>More aural practice, written productions.</i>
T ₆	<i>Their personal experience when dealing with their research papers (they are motivated).</i>
T ₇	<i>The lack of exposure to academic vocabulary is one of the major causes. The lack of extensive reading, the lack of familiarity with and exposure to authentic materials, lack of practice.</i>
T ₈	<i>Lack of reading and writing practice</i>
T ₉	<i>Lack of learning, reading and even speaking, Lack of understanding what is learned, Lack of memorizing the information Lack of practice.</i>
T ₁₀	<i>To expose learners to articles and academic writings and push students to write essays before the exams and correct them in the classroom.</i>
T ₁₁	<i>Lack of motivation.</i>
T ₁₂	<i>Lack of reading.</i>
T ₁₃	<i>Lack of reading.</i>
T ₁₄	<i>Lack of reading and reproducing the TL, by writing essays or extracts to discuss any aspect related to their already acquired knowledge.</i>
T ₁₅	<i>Lack of teaching specific academic knowledge through specialized subject matters via ESP.</i>
T ₁₆	Skipped the question.

The second factor mentioned by the participants is the lack of practice (see table above, extracts in red). Eight teachers believe that UG students do not receive enough practice in writing, speaking and “*reproducing the TL¹⁴*” as stated by T₁₄. The third factor seems to be lack of exposure, based on the number of the participants who referred to it; five out of fifteen (passages in blue). For instance, T₇ states that: “*The lack of exposure to academic vocabulary is one of the major causes.*” and T₁₀ refers to the need “*To expose learners to articles and academic writings*”. In the fourth factor, teachers seem attributing responsibility to students by referring to “*lack of learning, Lack of memorizing the information*” (T₉) and even “*Lack of motivation*” (T₁₁) as obstacles obstructing their vocabulary development, (see passages in purple).

However, the last factor involves the responsibility of the teachers and may be the programme designers as well, as it deals with “*Lack of teachers’ support in the classroom and lack of vocabulary instruction*” (T₂) and “*Lack of teaching specific academic knowledge through specialized subject matters via ESP*” (T₁₅) (passages in bold black). To sum up, the causes behind the limited academic vocabulary knowledge of UG students are basically the same for any shortcomings we may identify in the knowledge of EFL learners, they are usually 1) lack of exposure and 2) lack of practice in the four language skills, and both teachers and students share the responsibility for this situation.

The findings of this study actually corroborate what research has already revealed and what has become a common knowledge in the field of foreign language learning. Unfortunately, findings of educational research are not always put into practice, and when they are implemented, the specificities of the learning context are not taken into consideration; without mentioning the lack of teachers’ training that often obstructs the effective implementation of these findings.

¹⁴ TL : Target Language

3.3.2.10. Beliefs about teaching vocabulary as a separate subject

Through question fifteen, the participants were asked to express their opinion about the suggestion of devoting a subject (module) to teach vocabulary separately from the other language skills. The opinions were, as expected, of two types; in favour and against the suggested separate subject to teach academic vocabulary as can be seen in table 3.13.

Table 3.13: Teachers' Opinions about Teaching Vocabulary as a Separate Subject

Participants' opinions about teaching vocabulary as a separate subject	
In favour of a separate subject	Against a separate subject
<p>T₁: <i>It would be interesting because it would give students more time for practice and exposure to this type of vocabulary.</i></p> <p>T₂: <i>It would support students' to develop their vocabulary and raise their awareness of its importance.</i></p> <p>T₃: <i>It can be separately programmed as a half-task module.</i></p> <p>T₄: <i>I agree to a great extent. I see that it is a good idea for it enlarges students' linguistic repertoire regarding the vocabulary needed for better learning achievement.</i></p> <p>T₅: <i>It would be very helpful.</i></p> <p>T₆: <i>It is a must. All students need to be taught vocabulary to improve it.</i></p> <p>T₇: <i>Good idea.</i></p> <p>T₈: <i>Why not.</i></p> <p>T₉: <i>It will be wonderful.</i></p>	<p>T₁: <i>I think that vocabulary is included in all the modules. So, it is not necessary to study it as a separate module.</i></p> <p>T₂: <i>It's not conventional, but it's a part of an ESP objective.</i></p> <p>T₃: <i>ESP already exists. Research methodology for academic purposes</i></p> <p>T₄: <i>I disagree. I think vocabulary should be learnt through reading practices.</i></p> <p>T₅: <i>I guess it can be more helpful if it is part of oral expression and comprehension module.</i></p> <p>T₆: <i>I don't agree because vocabulary learning needs a concrete context.</i></p> <p>T₇: <i>Interdisciplinary teaching would be better.</i></p>

Though, the participants who supported the idea of a separate subject outnumbered those who were against the idea, the difference between them is not significant as the answers are 9 to 7 respectively. Teachers, who supported the idea, highlighted the benefits of teaching vocabulary separately on the students, such as:

- “It gives students more time for practice and exposure to this type of vocabulary” (T₁)
- “It supports students’ to develop their vocabulary and raise their awareness of its importance” (T₂)
- “It enlarges students’ linguistic repertoire regarding the vocabulary needed for better learning achievement”(T₄)

One of the participants (T₃) supported the idea, but suggested to include vocabulary teaching as a half-task module (semi-annual module?), while , T₆ reckoned that “*it is a must*” to teach vocabulary as a separate subject, since as (s)he stated “*All students need to be taught vocabulary to improve it.*”

Moving to the opinions against this idea, the participants clearly support vocabulary instruction, but oppose the suggestion of a separate module either because they think it would be more beneficial to include vocabulary instruction with other language skills; the case of T₄, T₅andT₆(see table 3.13. above), or they think that vocabulary is already taught in the different teaching subjects, so it would be pointless to design a new module; the case of T₁, or even because the participants think that a separate vocabulary-based subject already exists, and they make reference to the ESP module; the case of T₂, T₃and T₇.

However, the subject suggested by the researcher differs entirely from an ESP module. Not because the ESP module does not match the idea of the researcher, but because the way it is applied in our country is quite misleading. As Anthony (1997) explains “*ESP can, but is not necessarily concerned with a specific discipline, nor does it have to be aimed at a certain age group or ability range.ESP should be seen simple as an 'approach' to teaching, or what Dudley-Evans describes as an 'attitude of mind'*”. Yet, in our universities, the module is integrated in the curriculum of almost all the disciplines and it is often devoted and restricted to the teaching of the technical vocabulary of the discipline. However, Dudley-Evans (1997) as cited in Anthony (1997), clarifies that: “*ESP makes use of underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves*” and therefore, he explains that: “*ESP is centered on the language appropriate to these activities in terms of grammar, lexis, register, study skills,*

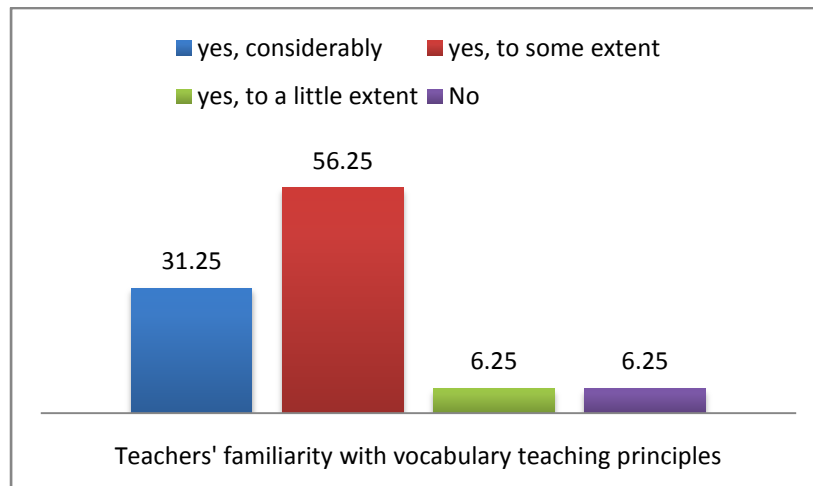
discourse and genre.” So, based on these definitions, ESP goes beyond the mere teaching of technical words.

When ESP is integrated in the English language discipline, it is done only to teach EFL students, starting from the third year, about ESP and not to teach them ESP. Our objective, as will be detailed in the fourth chapter, is to teach our UG students; particularly the first year, general academic vocabulary through a separate subject that aims at bridging the gap in their knowledge of this type of vocabulary which differs from technical vocabulary. This type of vocabulary is needed in the different modules and even across the disciplines because it is the vocabulary of instruction that helps in learning the academic content with its technical vocabulary (See chapter two for more details). The suggested module aims also at training the UG student on the main vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) that would help them study vocabulary on their own. Put this way, the suggested subject can be considered as a module of English for a specific purpose (ESP).

To conclude, we can assume that there is a shared agreement among the participants on the importance of explicit vocabulary teaching at the university. They see no objection to providing their students with lectures on vocabulary, but the objection may be on devoting a whole subject to teach vocabulary as nine (9) participants were in favour of this idea and seven (7) were against it. On the whole, we can assume that teachers participating in this study have a positive attitude towards explicit vocabulary instruction at the tertiary level which again disconfirms hypothesis four.

3.3.2.11. Participants’ knowledge about vocabulary teaching principles

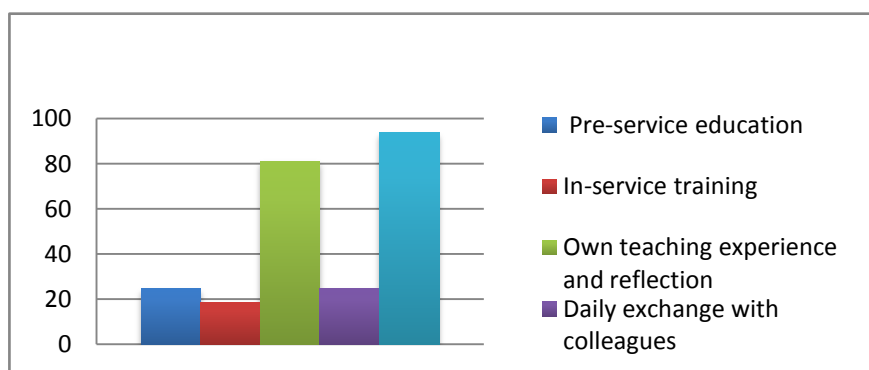
Through this question, the participants were asked whether they were familiar with the vocabulary teaching principles. Based on their answers, illustrated in bar-graph 3.2., the majority of the participants (56.25%) claim that they are familiar to some extent with these principles.



Bar-graph 3.2: Teachers' Familiarity with the Vocabulary teaching Principles

31.25% of the participants reported firmly that they are considerably acquainted with the vocabulary teaching principles. 06.25% of the participants opted for to a little extent and a similar percentage declared not being familiar with these principles. Considering the two first options as positive answers and the two last options as negative answers, we can conclude that the majority of the participants (56.25 % + 31.25% = 87.5%) consider themselves having a fair knowledge of the principles that steer vocabulary teaching, which matches the findings of question 12.

As a follow-up question, the participants were asked about the sources of this knowledge. As expected, the main source, based always on teachers' responses, was their research-based knowledge with 93.75%, followed by their own teaching experience and reflection with 81.25% as shown in bar-graph 3.3.



Bar-graph 3.3: Teachers' Knowledge about Vocabulary Teaching Principles

The findings also revealed that pre-service education (25%) and in-service training (18.75%) have got a restricted role in building the participants' knowledge about vocabulary teaching principles. Such result was obvious as it is a common knowledge that there is practically no training programme for university EFL teachers in our country. Likewise, daily exchange with colleagues does not seem to play a significant role in the participants' knowledge as only 25% of them chose this option.

Like training, daily exchange with colleagues and collaboration are important and have proved to provide teachers with insightful ideas and hands-on techniques about teaching, about the academic content as well as about learners. To this regards, Goddard and Goddard (2007) explain: "*The more teachers collaborate, the more they are able to converse knowledgably about theories, methods, and processes of teaching and learning, and thus improve their instruction.*" (p. 879). Besides, Goddard et al (2007) enumerate other benefits of collaboration on teachers and refer particularly to 1) improved efficacy, 2) more positive attitudes toward teaching, and 3) higher levels of trust. Alas, both collaboration and training are neglected in our universities and do not receive the attention they deserve.

3.3.2.12. Beliefs about UG students' autonomy and maturity

Unlike the previous questions, question 17 tackled teachers' beliefs about undergraduate students' autonomy and maturity. As already explained in the review chapter, autonomy is considered a determinant factor in language and vocabulary learning. So, the point from this question was to check whether EFL teachers' practices and beliefs about vocabulary instruction at the tertiary level were influenced by their beliefs about university students' autonomy. Teachers were provided with two sets of statements, the first set (from 1 to 10) describes common behaviours of autonomous learners who usually use vocabulary learning strategies (VLS). The second set (11 to 20) deals with common behaviours of language learners who lack autonomy and maturity and have a great reliance on their teachers

(Ariza Ariza, 2008). Then, teachers were asked to select the statements that they believe describe best their UG students.

The statements with the findings are displayed in table 3.14. The table reflects a sort of inconsistency in the participants' answers concerning the first set of statements, i.e. the positive ones, whilst the second set with the negative statements seems receiving a large agreement that is reflected through their consistent answers.

Table 3.14: Teachers' Beliefs about UG Students' Autonomy and Maturity at DLED

	SD	D	NAD	A	SA	Mode
1. DLED undergraduate students have in general a fair degree of autonomy and maturity	01	06	04	05	0	2
2. They are motivated learners	01	06	04	05	0	2
3. They use different strategies to learn new vocabulary items	01	04	06	05	0	3
4. They often use the already studied words in new situations	0	04	05	07	0	4
5. They keep notebooks /records of the new studied words	02	05	02	07	0	4
6. They regularly enquire about new words	01	03	04	07	0	4
7. They use dictionaries to check words' meaning	01	03	02	07	01	4
8. They are always motivated to share their knowledge about new vocabulary	0	08	04	04	0	2
9. They try to guess meaning from context	0	01	05	08	01	4
10. They achieve extra work (outside class) and ask for teachers' correction	03	05	05	03	0	2-3
11. They always complain about their limited vocabulary knowledge without making the necessary efforts to develop it.	0	03	04	06	03	2
12. They rely on the teacher to explain the unfamiliar words	0	02	01	08	05	2
13. They always blame others for their poor grades	01	01	03	07	04	2
14. They rely most of the time on the teacher to provide them with the course handouts	01	01	02	05	07	1
15. They rely only on the handouts and expect the teachers to explain everything in the handouts.	0	02	02	06	06	1-2
16. They are absent-minded during lectures	0	04	02	08	02	2
17. They believe that homework and outside assignments are not useful.	0	03	05	06	02	2
18. They are generally disorganized	0	01	06	07	02	2
19. They do not concentrate and they ask about things and words that have already been explained	0	02	05	07	02	2
20. They are generally late and forget about homework/assignments	0	03	04	06	03	2

Note: SD= strongly disagree, D= disagree, NAD= neither agree nor disagree, A= agree, SA= strongly agree.

As indicated in the table above, 07 participants (01 SD + 06 D) had a negative attitude towards the first and the second statements about students' autonomy and motivation, 05 agreed with them and 04 were neutral. So, based on these findings; we may argue that the majority of the participants believe that UG students at DLED are neither autonomous nor motivated learners. This negative attitude is also reflected through the disagreement of the majority with statement 08 and 10 (see table above). Accordingly, the participants believe that UG students are not always motivated to share their knowledge about new vocabulary and do not achieve extra work (outside class) and do not ask for teachers' correction. Yet and paradoxically, the majority of the participants (07 A vs. 04 D) think that their students often use the already studied words in new situations, regularly enquire about new words (01 SD+ 03 D vs. 07 A), use dictionaries to check words' meaning and try to guess meaning from context (01 SD+ 03 D vs. 07 A + 01 SA).

The participants also seem not much aware of the strategies that their students employ when learning vocabulary as reflected through statement 03. Five participants (01 SD + 04 D) disagreed with the statement that: UG student use different strategies to learn new vocabulary items and the same number agreed with it, while 06 participants were neutral. This may be explained by the fact that teachers cannot identify all the VLS used by their students because of different obstacles such as class size, time constraint, etc. Besides, some of the VLS are usually used outside the classroom when students revise or try to study on their own. Moreover, not all the strategies are observable; to identify them, teachers need to ask their students.

Moving on to the second set of statements which describes the behaviour of students who lack autonomy, maturity and motivation, there seems a wide consensus among the participants on this negative description. The majority of the participants believe that their students always complain about their limited vocabulary knowledge without making the

necessary efforts to develop it (06 A +03 SA vs. 03 D), they rely on the teacher to explain the unfamiliar words (08 A+05 SA vs. 02 D), they always blame others for their poor grades (04 A+ 07 SA vs. 01 SD +01 D), they rely most of the time on the teacher to provide them with the course handouts (05 A+ 07 SA vs. 01 SD +01 D), they rely only on the handouts and expect the teachers to explain everything in the handouts (02 D vs. 06 A+ 06 SA), they are absent-minded during lectures (08 A +02 SA vs. 04 D), they believe that homework and outside assignments are not useful (06 A+ 02 SA vs. 03 D),they are generally disorganized (07 A + 02 SA vs. 01D), they do not concentrate and they ask about things and words that have already been explained (07 A + 02 SA vs. 02 D), and they are generally late and forget about homework/assignments (06 A + 03 SA vs. 03 D).

So, though the majority of the participants recognize the use of some VLS by their students such as guessing from context, using dictionaries and note taking as well as asking about new words, they share a negative attitude towards students' overall autonomy (see table above). The use of VLS inside the classroom seems not sufficient to reveal students' autonomy. There are other behavioural patterns that learners are expected to follow to be considered as autonomous learners. Ariza (2008) points at these patterns and makes reference to: "1) [students]' *involvement in the management of their learning process*, 2) *the use of life-long learning strategies*, and 3) *negotiation of various aspects of learning situations*." (p. 51). Likewise, Genç (2015) states four Characteristics as prerequisites for autonomous learning namely: 1) desire, 2) resourcefulness, 3) initiative, and 4) persistence. (p. 25).All these characteristics are particularly important in vocabulary learning; being a lifelong process, but our students generally lack these qualities.

3.4. Analysis and Interpretation of Students' Questionnaire

Sixty seven (67) undergraduate students were sampled from the English Department of Djilali Liabes University to participate in this study. The number of the questionnaires

distributed to the target population was actually larger. However, after the collection and the exclusion of the incomplete copies, the study ended up with 67 copies limiting as such the sample population to this size. As previously mentioned the questionnaire of the students; like that of the teachers, consists of two sections; an introductory section dealing with the profile of the sample population and a core section devoted to the investigation of their beliefs and practices in relation to the research problem.

3.4.1. Section One: Students' Identification and Background

The data gathered in this section helped determine the profile of the participants. So, two groups were involved in this study representing two undergraduate levels, one group from 1LMD and one from 3LMD with almost an equal number of the participants, 33 and 34 respectively. As can be seen in the table below, the two groups had a wide age range with 18/19 being the common age for 1 LMD and 20-23 the common age for 3LMD. Besides, for both levels, females outnumbered male participants which may reflect females' preference for EFL learning; in the Algerian context.

Table 3.15: Students' Profile

Level		1LMD	3LMD
Number		33 participants	34 participants
Age		From 18 to 46 years old [18(12)+19(10)+20(3)+21(3) + 22(1)+32(1)+24(2)+ 46(1)]	From 19 to 27 years old [19(1)+20(4)+ 21(5)+ 22(3)+ 23(7)+ 24(2)+ 25(1)+ 26(1)+ 27(1)+ skipped (9)]
Gender		11 (33.33%) males + 22 (66.66%) females	08 (23.54%) males + 26 (76.46%) females
Secondary school stream	Priority1: FL	17 (51.51%)	14 (41.18%)
	Priority2: L	06 (18.18%)	10 (29.41%)
	Priority3: M/TM/ES/EM	10 (30.30%)	10 (29.41%)
BAC mark mean score		11.12	11.55
English mark mean score		14.86	15.12
First degree		29 (87.88%)	32 (94.12%)
Second degree		04 (12.12%)	02 (5.88%)

Note: Mathematics (M), Technical Mathematics (TM), Experimental Sciences (ES), Economy and Management (EM).

Moving to the participants' academic level and based on the collected data, the mean score of their BAC marks is 11.12 for 1 LMD vs. 11.55 for 3 LMD. This entails that the BAC marks of the majority of the participants revolved around eleven (11) and we can therefore deduce that the majority of the students who join the English Department of DLU are usually of very average academic proficiency. This deduction can be supported by another finding which is related to the participants' secondary school streams. As indicated in the table, roughly one third of the participants from both levels came from scientific streams that are classified as priority 3; with 30.30% for 1 LMD and 29.41% for 3 LMD. As already mentioned in the first chapter¹⁵, it is commonly known that many students belonging to these streams are often oriented to the English specialty because their BAC marks do not allow them to join their respective specialties.

Concerning the mean score of the participant' English marks, it is 14.86 for 1LMD vs. 15.55 for 3LMD (participants' individual BAC and English marks are in see appendix eleven). Based on this finding and unlike their overall academic level, the participants seem to have, in the whole, a good level in English. This may disconfirm the common assumption about the limited English level of the candidates who are usually admitted to the English department. But, this would also give rise to an unavoidable question: why do many EFL students face difficulties with the English course? Or maybe, the right question to ask would be whether the BAC results reflect students' actual level. Put differently, does the BAC exam help to measure students' actual academic level in the targeted subjects so as to know whether the candidates are eligible and sufficiently prepared to progress in the courses they apply for? Further discussion on this point is provided in the recommendation chapter¹⁶.

So, to understand better why Algerian university students do study English, our participants were asked whether this was their first degree and what reasons determined their

¹⁵ Check: Section 1.6.1/ Admission Requirements to the Algerian University.

¹⁶ Check section 4.3/ Admission Test as a Fair Procedure to Higher Education.

choice for the English department. As indicated in the table above, the findings showed that about 88% of 1 LMD and 94% of 3 LMD participants studied English as their first degree. This means that while only 6% of the third year studied English as their second degree, the percentage doubled, i.e.: increased to 12% for the first year participants. So, more students were studying English as their second degree; a phenomenon that is becoming more common in our Department. This entails that intrinsic motivation can be behind Algerian students' learning of English. The findings of the second question confirm this assumption as it is illustrated in the following table.

Table 3.16: DLED UG Students' Reasons for Studying English

Reasons behind Studying English	1 LMD	3 LMD
1. I like speaking English that is why I enrolled in this course.	21	23
2. It is my parents' choice.	0	0
3. My BAC marks did not meet the admission requirements of my first choice.	06	05
4. I am more likely to find a job with a diploma in English than in other disciplines.	03	02
5. I travel a lot and I need English for communication with foreigners.	03	03
6. I think people who speak more than one language are smart and very knowledgeable	09	09
7. I decided to choose English because it is a global language.	12	10
8. Studying English is fashionable	02	05
9. I was oriented to this course		01
10. I need English to make research and further my knowledge of my specialty/first diploma as English is the language of publication.	02	0
11. I want to pursue advanced studies in my specialty in an English speaking country.	0	0
12. I have a lot of free time and I want to benefit from it doing something useful.	0	01
Others:	01	0
▪ I want to become a writer in English		

Based on the table above, the majority of 1 LMD (21 out of 33) and 3 LMD (23 out of 34) studied English for the sake of speaking this language. The second most important motivating reason for studying English was students' awareness of the status of English in the world. 12 first year students and 10 third year students study English because it is a global language. Nine participants from both levels were driven by their belief in the importance of

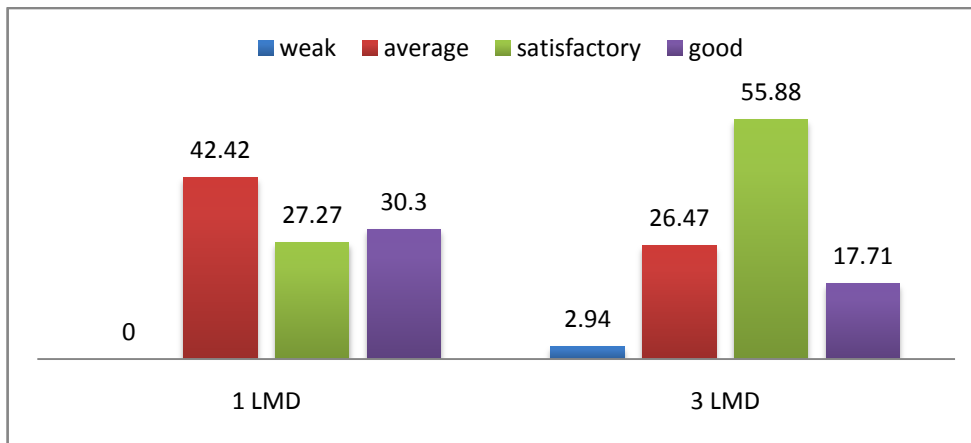
foreign language learning. So, the evidence from this study suggests that there is a very positive attitude towards the learning of English as a foreign language in Algeria in spite that some participants (6 from 1 LMD vs. 5 from 3 LMD) mentioned that they were obliged to enrol in the English course because their BAC marks did not meet the admission requirements of their first choice. This result corroborates what we mentioned previously about the scientific stream students.

3.4.2. Section Two: Students' Beliefs and Practices

Dealing with the students' beliefs and practices, this section consists of sixteen (16) questions. Some of these questions were also asked to the teachers participating in the study so as to draw a comparison between the beliefs of the two participants being the principal actors in the education process.

3.4.2.1. Beliefs about their EFL proficiency level

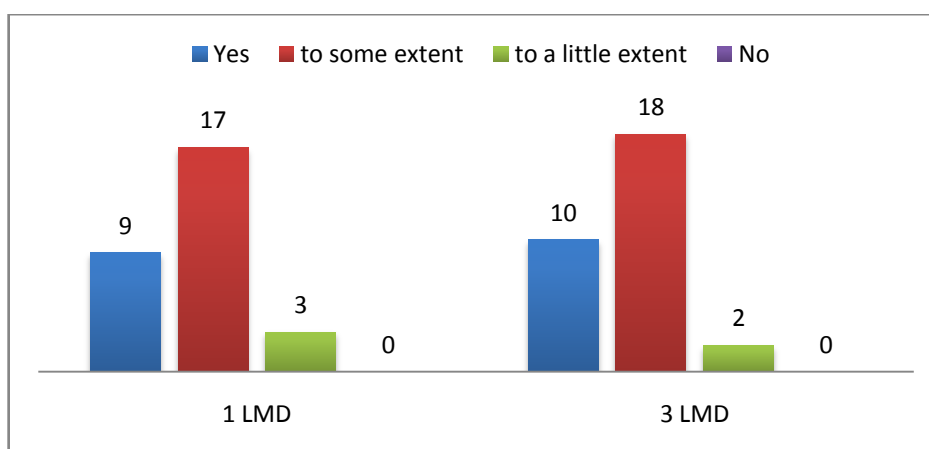
Participants' evaluation of their overall level in English was the objective of the first question. None of the first year students believed that their level was low while a small percentage (2.94%) of the third year considered their level as such. However, while the majority (42.42%) of the first year reported that their level was average, the majority (55.88%) of the third year said that it was satisfactory. The percentage (30.30%) of the first year students who believed that their level was good was higher than that of the third year (17.71%). The answers of the first year students for each category were relatively close and uniform except for the category of weak (0%), whereas the third year students' answers were distinct as can be seen in bar-graph 3.4.



Bar-graph 3.4: Students' Evaluation of their Academic Level in EFL

The divergence between the evaluation of the first year and the third year concerning their EFL level, as reflected in the above bar-graph, may be explained by the fact that students' academic level becomes well-defined as they progress in their studies. Then, the third year students may feel quite confident with their abilities than the first year who have just embarked on university studies.

Through question 2, the researcher aimed at obtaining more details for a deeper understanding of the participants' evaluation of their EFL level along with their estimation of their performance in the English course. As can be seen in the bar-graph below, the participants' answers to this question were nearly identical for both levels.

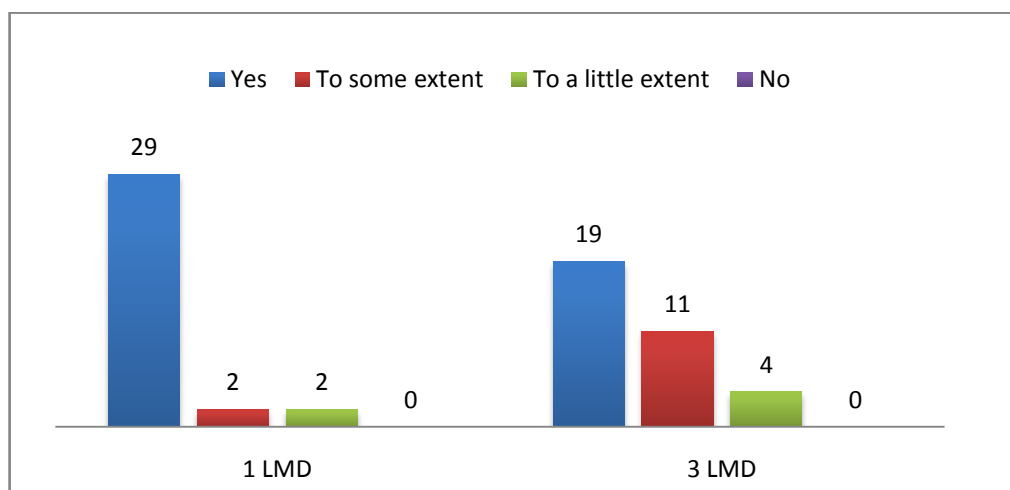


Bar-graph 3.5: Students' Perception of their Performance in the English Course

The majority of 1 LMD (17/33) as well as 3 LMD (18/34) believed that their EFL level enables them to some extent to major in the English course. Besides, nine (9) first year vs. ten (10) third year participants were categorical concerning their academic potential and accordingly think that they can major in the English course. None of the participants did chose the 'no' option while only three from 1 LMD vs. two from 3 LMD chose 'to a little extent' option. So, these findings corroborate the results of the first question.

3.4.2.2. Beliefs about the difference between English of university and pre-university education

The double aim of question 3 was to crosscheck the previous questions and to verify the awareness of the participants about the linguistic requirements of EFL studies at the university. Subsequently, the participants were asked if they feel any difference between the English studied at secondary school and the English they were studying at the university. The findings, shown in the bar-graph below, revealed a resemblance in the answers of the first and third year students as the great majority from the two groups (29 from 1 LMD VS. 19 from 3 LMD) acknowledges the difference between the English studied at the two levels

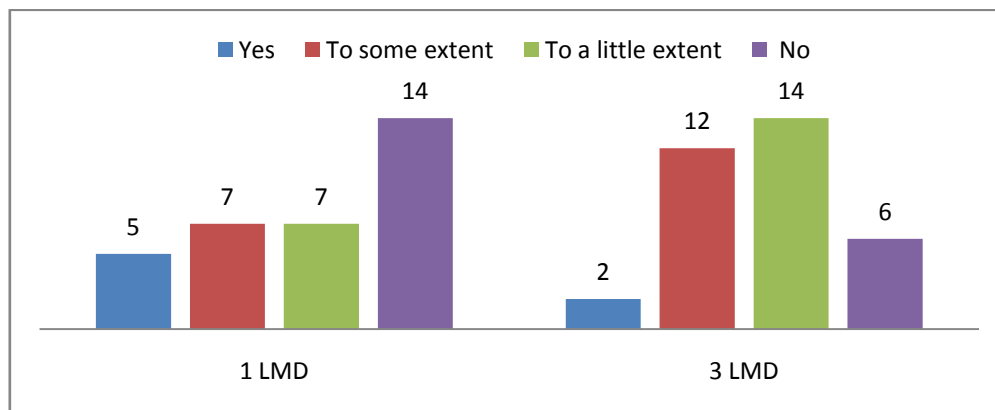


Bar-graph 3.6: Beliefs about Difference between English of University and Pre-university Education

Besides, no participants selected the option ‘no’ which reflects the categorical consensus among the participants. However, we can notice that in the third year, students’ feeling of the difference seems to be relatively moderate compared with the first year. This may be due to the fact that as students progress in their studies, they get acquainted with this type of English and their feeling of the difference diminishes over time. However, the difference may be strongly felt by the students in their first year.

3.4.2.3. Participants’ evaluation of their content comprehension

After asking the participants if there were any difference between the EFL linguistic input of the secondary school and the university, they were asked through question 4, if they face difficulty understanding the university input. Unexpectedly, the findings of this question, as reflected in the bar-graph below, showed that the majority of 1 LMD participants (42.42%) were satisfied with their comprehension while only 17.65% of 3 LMD expressed their satisfaction.



Bar-graph 3.7: Participants’ Evaluation of their Content Comprehension

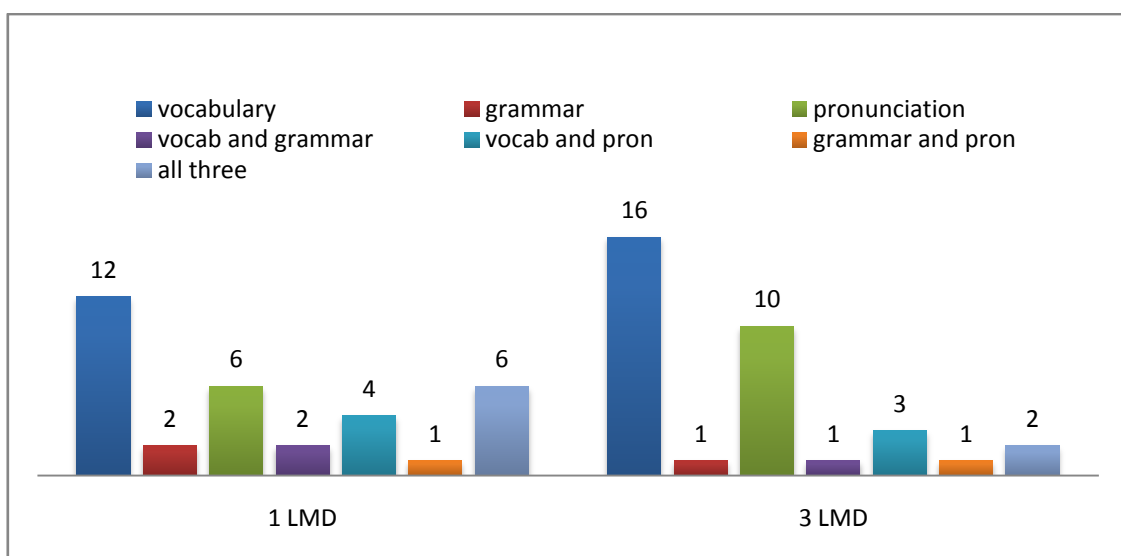
The possible explanation may be related to the relative difficulty of the content of the third year compared with the first year. Still, there seems a resemblance in the participants’ answers to this question. Considering the options ‘to a little extent’ and ‘no’ as positive answers to this question, so nearly the same number of the participants from the two levels

were satisfied with their comprehension, with 21 from the first year (7 to a little extent + 14 no) and 20 from the third year (14 to a little extent + 06 no).

This result is quite reasonable, since it is widely known that students' receptive vocabulary knowledge is larger than their productive vocabulary knowledge. As such, their ability to understand while listening and reading is much higher than their linguistic capacity to produce in speech or writing.

3.4.2.4. Participants' awareness about the significant role of vocabulary

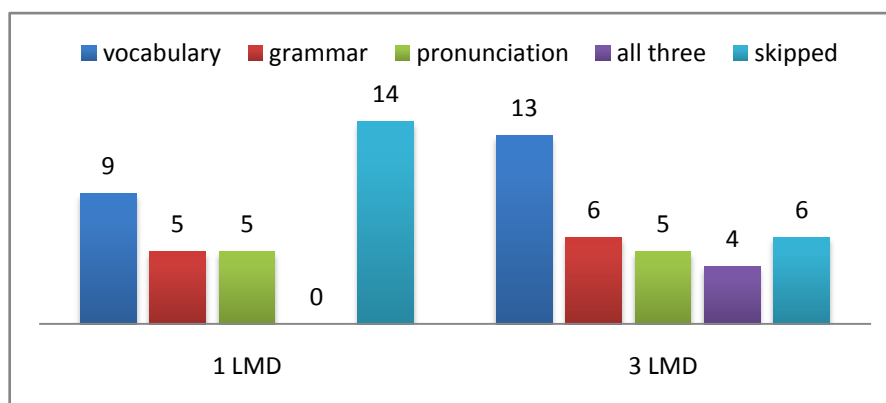
As follow-up to questions 3 and 4, the participants were asked, respectively, what makes the difference between English at the secondary school and at the university, and what language component causes them more difficulty in comprehension. The participants were allowed to choose more than one answer. As can be seen in the bar-graph below, the majority of both 1 LMD and 3 LMD think that vocabulary is the main language component that differentiates between English of higher and secondary education.



Bar-graph 3.8: Participants' Belief about Difference between English of Secondary School and University

Pronunciation comes in the second position, followed by vocabulary and pronunciation. Grammar, however, is mentioned in the last position for both levels. Nearly the same findings

resulted from the follow up of question 4, illustrated in bar-graph 3.6. It is worth mentioning that the skipped answers belong to the participants who stated previously that they do not face difficulty in comprehension (see results in bar-graph 3.7). Therefore, the majority of 1 LMD (9/19) and 3 LMD (13/28) believe that vocabulary is the main language component that hampers their understanding.



Bar-graph 3.9: Participants' Beliefs about the Causes behind their Difficulty in Comprehension

So, once again we can notice the consensus among the participants from the two levels on the supremacy of vocabulary over the remaining components of language, not only in making the distinction between levels (secondary school vs. university), but also in being the main element that boosts or hampers students' comprehension in each level (1 year vs. 3 year).

Yet, in spite of the similarity between the answers of the two levels, we can see that third year students who selected vocabulary outnumbered their counterparts from the first year in the two previous bar-graphs. This may be explained by the fact that the third year programme is more demanding and necessitates a relatively large body of vocabulary and students at this level are required, more than the first year students, to develop a more specialized register. Besides, as stated by Grauberg, W. (1997): "*The rules of grammar and the patterns of pronunciation are relatively few and the total is finite*" (p.2). So, students in

the third year may feel that they are quite acquainted with most of the EFL grammar rules, even if they do not master them all.

Whereas, their need and discovery of new vocabulary continue as they progress in their studies because vocabulary, as described by Grauberg, is open and students need 1)“*a large number of words for receptive use*”, 2)“*another large number for productive use*”and 3)“*a further number which varies with the interests and occupation of individual speakers*” (*ibid*). This may also explain why grammar, at least in DL English Department, is taught to first and second year students , but is excluded from curriculum of the third year which would reinforce students’ beliefs about this dichotomy; vocabulary vs. grammar.

3.4.2.5. Beliefs about the different types of the EFL vocabulary

The objective of questions 5 and 6 was the investigation of the participants’ beliefs and awareness about the different types of vocabulary in the English language. As such, in question 5, the participants were asked whether the vocabulary they use in the different lectures/assignment/exams was the same vocabulary they use to converse in English with their classmates/friends. As for question 6, the participants were asked if they know the exact difference between the different types of vocabulary and when and how to use each type. Their answers are displayed in table 3. 17.

Table 3.17: Participants’ Knowledge about Vocabulary Types

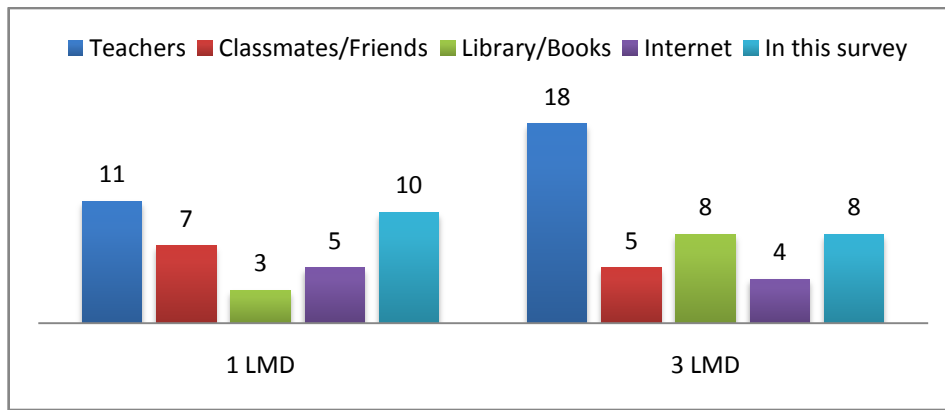
		Yes	To some extent	To a little extent	No
5. Is the vocabulary used in the different lectures/assignment/exams the same you use when you speak with your classmates/friends in English?	1 LMD	06	10	05	12
	3 LMD	04	12	09	09
6. There are three types of vocabulary in English; High frequency/ conversational vocabulary (Tier one), General academic vocabulary (Tier two), and Technical Vocabulary (Tier three). Do you know the exact difference between them and when to use each type?	1 LMD	06	08	02	17
	3 LMD	06	09	08	11

Based on these findings, the participants seem aware of the difference types of vocabulary that exist in the English language, but their awareness and knowledge seem partial. This is because only 06 participants from 1 LMD vs. 04 from 3 LMD categorically stated that they use different vocabulary in formal and informal situations, whereas 12 participants from 1 LMD vs. 09 from 3 LMD reported the contrary. However, a great number of the remaining participants were distributed between ‘to some extent’ and ‘to a little extent’ with respectively 10 and 05 for first year vs. 12 and 09 for the third year.

The same applies to question 09, while 17 participants from first year vs. 11 from the third year categorically mentioned that they do not know the difference between the vocabulary types of English, the greater number of the participants who were positive in their answers, were distributed between yes (6 from 1 and 3 LMD), to some extent (8 from 1 LMD vs. 9 from 3 LMD), and to a little extent (2 from 1 LMD vs. 8 from 3 LMD).

3.4.2.6. Sources of participants’ knowledge about vocabulary types

The aim of this question was to check the source of the participants’ knowledge about the vocabulary types in English. The participants were provided with a set of possible sources and were invited to choose among them. The findings revealed that the main source, as illustrated in the bar-graph below, was the teacher for both levels. This means that teachers, in the Algerian EFL class, continue to assume the traditional role that characterizes the teacher-centred class in spite of the supposed changes in the teaching approaches and the impressive development of ICTs.

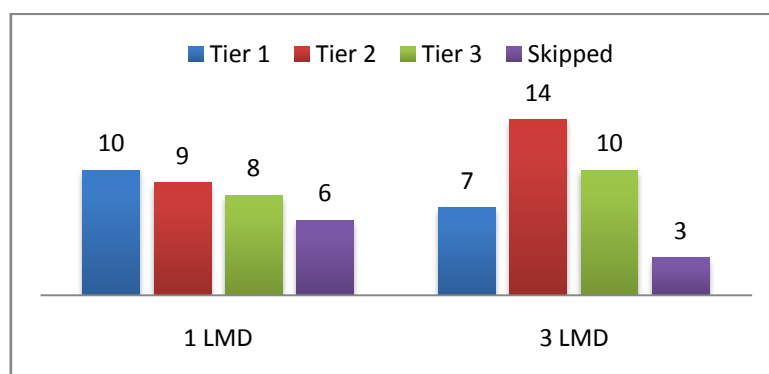


Bar-graph 3.10: Sources of Students' Knowledge about Vocabulary Types

According to these findings, a great number of the participants heard about the different types of vocabulary for the first time in this survey which confirms the results of the previous question (see table 3.16, question 6). The second source of knowledge for the participants, who believe that they know the difference, was classmates/friends for the first year and library/books for the third year. Internet comes in the third position for the first year and the fourth position for the third year. This may confirm the common assumption that our students use the internet mainly for purposes other than studies.

3.4.2.7. The type of vocabulary causing more difficulty to the participants

The objective of question eight was to determine what type of vocabulary caused more difficulty to the participants. As clearly illustrated in the bar-graph below, first year students seem to have difficulty with the three tiers of vocabulary as the number of participants who chose each tier was approximately identical.



Bar-graph 3.11: The Type of Vocabulary causing more Difficulty to the Participants

Likewise, the findings show that third year students had difficulty with all the three tiers, yet their main difficulty was caused more by tier two (general academic vocabulary) in the first place, followed by tier three (technical vocabulary) in the second place. This result reflects the important role of vocabulary with its three types for all levels and confirms our assumption concerning the growing need of the university students for academic vocabulary with its two types; general academic and technical, as they progress in their studies.

3.4.2.8. Participants' feelings/reactions when faced with unfamiliar vocabulary

Through this open-ended question, the researcher tried to uncover the participants' feelings when they do not understand a lecture/assignment/exam because of the difficult/unfamiliar vocabulary. The answers of each level are sorted into categories and displayed in the following tables.

Table 3.18: First Year Students' Reaction Face to Unfamiliar Vocabulary

N ^o	Category one	Category two	Category three
1.	<i>That is annoying.</i>	<i>Nothing, try to ignore.</i>	<i>Sometimes I get angry and after I relax I do researching on the net.</i>
2.	<i>I feel disappointed of myself and I feel that am weak.</i>	<i>I feel nothing.</i>	<i>First, I feel confused, but I immediately take the dictionary to make my vocab enriched.</i>
3.	<i>I feel sad when I don't understand and this is especially difficult for me sometimes.</i>	<i>Nothing at all, I just try to ignore it.</i>	<i>I feel obliged to try (read) again (many times) to understand.</i>
4.	<i>I feel trapped and lost.</i>		<i>It feels as a challenge. So, I push myself to learn more as a student.</i>
5.	<i>I feel stressed and I need to understand the lecture at that moment or I won't be fine.</i>		<i>Go to the dictionary.</i>
6.	<i>I am generally feel that I am not have enef power to face.</i>		<i>Make research and ask questions.</i>
7.	<i>Feel annoying</i>		<i>I ask the others to make it clear for me.</i>
8.	<i>I feel sad and disappointed.</i>		<i>Curious to learn/learn this unfamiliar vocab.</i>
9.	<i>I panic.</i>		<i>I feel that I need to do more research and dedicate more time to studying these terms.</i>
10.			<i>I find it pleasing to know new words and enrich my vocabulary</i>
11.			<i>I deal with the difficulty in a normal way. I go to the internet and do survey or I ask my classmates.</i>

Table 3.18 summarizes the feelings of the first year students when they face difficulties in comprehension because of their limited vocabulary. Three categories of reactions have been identified. The first category includes participants who expressed feelings that can be considered as negative such as feeling annoyed, weak, sad or disappointed. Besides, some participants reported that they got stressed while others even mentioned that they panic. The second category includes participants with neutral feelings, or more exactly, participants who felt nothing and simply tried to ignore the unfamiliar words. In the third category, there are three types of participants: 1) those who expressed negative feelings (*I feel angry, confused*), 2) those who expressed positive feelings (*I find it pleasing*), and those who did not express any feeling. But, what is common among these participants is that their feelings did not prevent them from taking positive actions such as checking the meaning of the words through the net or the dictionary, asking someone else and making more efforts to learn the new words.

Moving to the third year findings that are displayed in table 3.19, only two categories were identified. Like with the first year, the first category consists of participants who reported negative feelings when faced with unfamiliar words such as feeling weak, insecure, frustrated and even unable to follow the rest of the lecture.

Table 3.19: Third Year Students' Reaction Face to Unfamiliar Vocabulary

Category one	Category two
<i>I feel weak and insecure.</i>	<i>I feel motivated to improve my knowledge.</i>
<i>I feel that I have lack in my vocabulary.</i>	<i>Make me feel curious to know it.</i>
<i>I feel myself lost and I can't follow the rest of the course.</i>	<i>As a challenge.</i>
<i>I feel myself boring and I faced my difficulties in understanding.</i>	<i>I feel curious about it.</i>
<i>Frustrated in general.</i>	<i>It is a more challenging to me to make more efforts.</i>
<i>I feel I have no information from vocabulary.</i>	<i>Nervous, and then I check it in the internet or contact my friends and try to understand it.</i>
<i>I feel disappointed.</i>	<i>I need to read more books.</i>
<i>Confusing.</i>	<i>I learn about it in the internet.</i>

	<i>I try to grasp the general meaning and translate the words.</i>
	<i>I make research at home.</i>
	<i>I try to figure out each word and sentence to clarify the whole idea.</i>

The second category, as seen in the table above, resembles the third category of the first year; the participants either expressed negative feelings (*Nervous*) or positive feelings (*I feel motivated*), but all of them took positive actions that vary from trying to figure out the meaning of the new words to the need to reading more books.

So this question, revealed the participants' feelings when facing difficulties of comprehension because of their limited vocabulary knowledge. These feelings are shared among the first and the third year and actually reflect the stressful impact that the lack of vocabulary usually have on language learners. The findings of this question also uncovered some of the common strategies that language learners usually use when trying to learn new vocabulary.

3.4.2.9. Participants' vocabulary learning strategies (VLS)

In relation with the previous question, questions 10 was asked to gain a deeper understanding of the strategies that our students use when faced with unfamiliar vocabulary during lectures. The participants were presented with a table including the most common strategies that can be used to discover the meaning of new words. The table was designed based on Schmitt' taxonomy of the vocabulary learning strategies (1997) (see appendix twelve for the complete version of the taxonomy). Table 3.20 illustrates the results of question ten.

Table 3.20: Participants' Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Vocabulary learning strategies inside classroom	never		rarely		sometimes		often		always	
	1 LMD	3 LMD	1 LMD	3 LMD	1 LMD	3 LMD	1 LMD	3 LMD	1 LM	3 LMD
I try to guess meaning from context.	1	0	4	4	7	3	7	10	14	17
I ask a classmate.	2	4	10	10	14	14	4	4	3	2
I ask the teacher.	5	5	15	9	6	10	4	6	3	4
I use a dictionary to check out meaning.	3	3	5	6	7	8	6	6	12	11
I take note of the words and check them at home.	5	4	5	9	9	7	2	3	3	11
Nothing	8	11	0	4	2	1	0	2	2	3

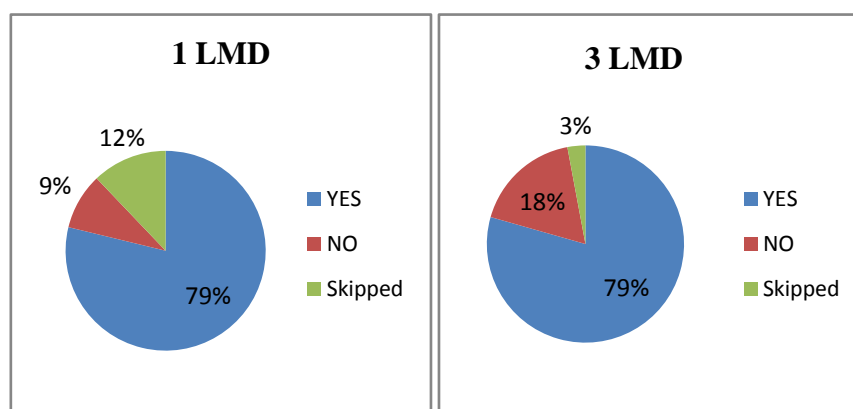
Based on the table above, the most common VLS used in the classroom by both the first and second year participants, are first guessing meaning from context followed by using the dictionary and then taking note of the words to check them at home. These strategies are described by Schmitt (1997) as determination strategies and constitute the first sub-division that belongs to the discovery division of his taxonomy. As its name indicates, this division includes strategies that are used to discover the meaning of words met for the first time.

The discovery division includes a second sub-division known as social strategies. The latter simply refer to the interaction of the learners with their teachers or classmates for the sake of seeking direct help by asking them questions about the meaning of the new words (*ibid*). According to the findings, the social strategies used by our participants, that is to say asking a classmate and asking the teacher come in the last positions for the two groups. This may reflect the limited interaction of our participants especially the first year, with their classmates and teacher. It means also that only a few students sought their teachers' help for understanding the new words' meaning.

This was clearly noticed during the different sessions of the classroom observation with the two levels, and therefore the findings of the two tools corroborate each other on this issue. So, why is it so? Does this mean that students do not need their teachers' help? Do they prefer to rely on themselves? The following sub-section attempts to answer these questions.

3.4.2.10. Participants' attitudes towards their teachers' support vis-a-vis vocabulary learning

To verify the previous questions, the participants were asked whether they like when their teachers explicitly teach the unfamiliar vocabulary along with the content of the teaching subject. With a percentage of 79%, the great majority of both first and third year participants were affirmative and expressed their positive attitude towards their teachers' vocabulary support as clearly illustrated in the following pie-charts.



Pie-chart 3.2: Participants' Attitudes towards their Teachers' Vocabulary Support

As expected, the participants' categorical answers confirm the need of UG students to their teachers' support vis-à-vis vocabulary learning. As a follow up question, the participants were invited to explain their attitude by choosing their reasons among a set of statements. They were also given the opportunity to add other reasons through the option 'others'. Yet, as can be seen in the table below, one participant from the first year used this option and reported that they get extra information.

Table 3.21: Participants’ Reasons for /against Teachers’ Vocabulary Support

		1 LMD	3 LMD
YES	English vocabulary is large and I cannot learn it without teachers’ support.	11	10
	When the teachers explain the unfamiliar words they help me concentrate on the lecture instead of wasting time checking meaning.	15	11
	Teachers’ explanations are simple, clear, concise and related to the lecture context compared to the dictionary definitions.	15	8
	Teaching vocabulary is part of teaching the language and teaching the language is as important as teaching the content.	11	8
	Explicitly teaching vocabulary by the teachers helps me better understand and memorize the studied words.	12	7
	I am often afraid to ask questions in class, explicit teaching of vocabulary is then in my benefit.	4	5
	Others: “we can have extra information”	1	0
NO	I prefer relying on myself to learn vocabulary.	3	4
	Teachers waste time teaching vocabulary instead of teaching the content.	2	2
	Teachers do not give all the possible meanings of the word like in the dictionary.	0	3
	Teaching vocabulary is not teachers’ responsibility but students’.	1	2
	Others:	0	0

So based on these findings, the main reasons why 1 LMD like when their teachers explain difficult/new words are first the explanations provided by the latter are clear and simple compared to the definitions of the dictionary and these explanations help them concentrate on the lecture instead of wasting time checking meaning. Their second reason is that the explicit teaching of vocabulary helps them better understand and memorize the studied words. In the third position, they selected the large size of the English vocabulary which necessitates their teachers’ support along with the importance of vocabulary teaching. The last reason chosen by the first year was that related to the affective factor as some students are often afraid to ask questions in class, explicit teaching of vocabulary is then in their benefit.

These findings were a bit different for the third year participants who selected concentration and time saving as their first reason why they like their teachers’ vocabulary

support and the large size of the English vocabulary as their second reason. The third position was given to two reasons together; the simple explanation of the teacher and the importance of vocabulary. As a fourth reason, they selected the fact that the explicit teaching of vocabulary helps them better understand and memorize the studied words. The only common answer that the third year shared with the first year participants was the affective reason which came in the last position for both levels.

Concerning the limited number of the participants who were against teachers' support, both levels reported, as their first reason, that they prefer relying on themselves to learn vocabulary, but with only three participants from 1 LMD and only four from 3 LMD. Three participants from the third year believe that teachers do not give all the possible meanings of the word like in the dictionary, while none of the first year chose this option. Two participants from both levels think that teachers waste time teaching vocabulary instead of teaching the content. However, only one participant from the first year vs. two from the third year think that it is not teachers' responsibility but theirs'.

To sum up, UG students' need of their teachers' assistance is unambiguous and their reluctance to ask them about the meaning of new vocabulary may be simply the result of the usual factors that generally influence students' interaction/participation in class. Such factors include the socio-cultural, cognitive, affective and linguistic factors as well as the physical environment of the classroom (Ghannadj, 2019; Susak, 2016).

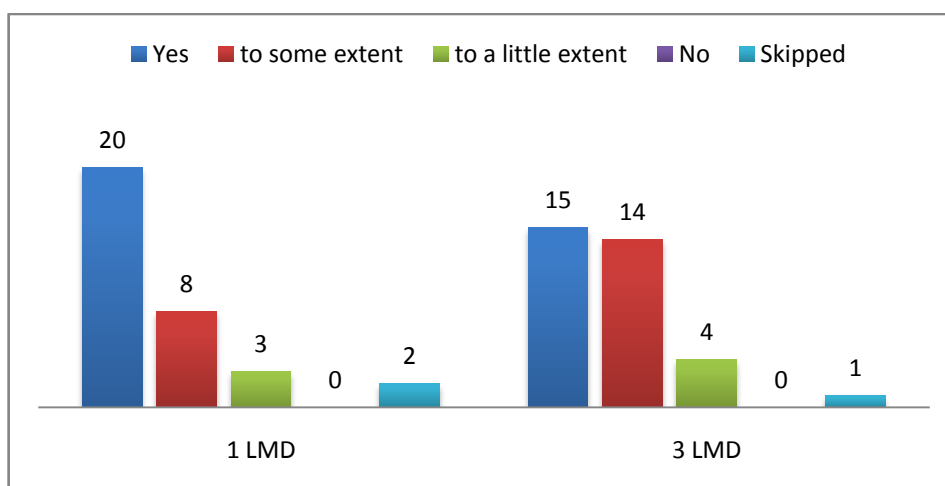
As Ghannadj (2019) explains, our EFL students "*aren't linguistically prepared, which makes their reluctance to participate in class understandable*". Students' reluctance may be amplified by teachers' practices and teaching methodology that can either encourage or discourage them from participating in class. Added to that, the large size of the class and the classroom arrangement can contribute positively or negatively to students' engagement and participation. Last but not least, students' traits including their shyness or fear from speaking

in front of their classmates often prevents them from expressing their opinions or asking questions. That is why the great majority of the participants seem to like it when their teachers explicitly teach the unfamiliar vocabulary along with the content of the teaching subject which confirms hypothesis number three.

3.4.2.11. Participants' evaluation of their vocabulary after joining the university

Asking the participants to evaluate their vocabulary after they joined the university was an unavoidable and a rational question because its data would reflect their satisfaction or dissatisfaction about the university EFL curriculum. This would in turn help understand whether the curriculum succeeded to meet the lexical needs of our students. So, as reflected in the bar-graph below, all the participants from both levels believe that their vocabulary knowledge has improved in terms of quantity and quality after joining the university.

Though the bar-graph shows a difference in the distribution of the participant' answers, none of the participants from the two levels chose the option 'no', and the majority selected the option 'yes' with 20 from 1 LMD and 15 from 3 LMD. Besides, only a small number opted for 'a little extent' with 3 participants from 1 LMD vs. 4 from 3 LMD. So, we can conclude that there is a positive agreement among the participants concerning this question



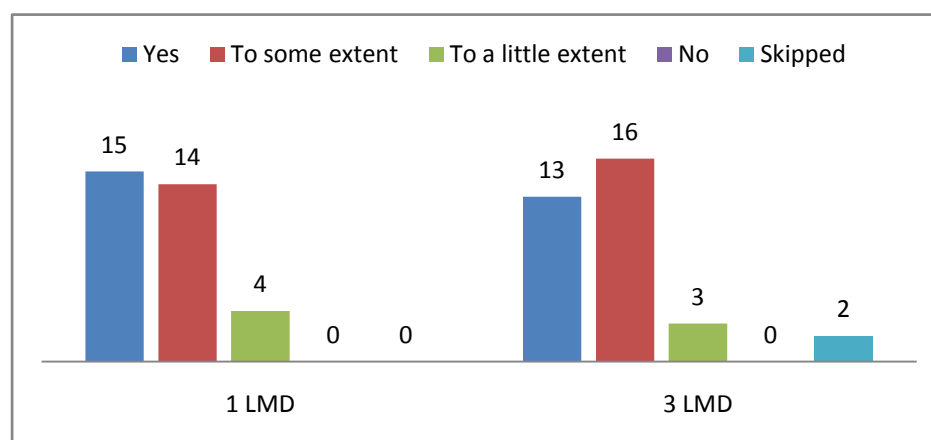
Bar-graph 3.12:Participants' Evaluation of their Vocabulary after Joining the University

Such result was expected and is reasonable since it is commonly known that exposure to a language is key to its learning (Partika, 2017) and our EFL students are likely to be more exposed to the English language at the university where almost all their studies are in English than at the secondary school where English is only one teaching subject among others.

Still, even at the university, this exposure remains limited since always restricted to the formal setting of the classroom that is shaped by the already stated factors and therefore cannot completely close the gap in the students' vocabulary knowledge. Thus, the participants' evaluation of their vocabulary knowledge may well be subjective and unreliable, that is why the study included a vocabulary test that was administered to the participants at the beginning and end of the academic year to crosscheck the questionnaire findings.

3.4.2.12. Participant's attitudes towards having a vocabulary-based teaching subject

Do you agree with having a teaching subject/module devoted to general academic vocabulary instruction? That was the last question addressed to the participants in order to uncover their attitudes towards studying academic vocabulary in a separate teaching subject. The findings revealed that none of the participants opposed this idea as reflected in the bar-graph below. Besides, only a small number chose the option 'to a little extent' with 4 participants from 1 LMD and 3 from 3 LMD.



Bar-graph 3.13: Participant' Attitudes towards Studying Academic Vocabulary in a Separate Teaching Subject

The majority of the participant were divided between the options ‘yes’ (15 from 1 LMD vs. 13 from 3 LMD) and ‘to some extent’ (14 from 1 LMD vs. 16 from 3 LMD). We can conclude therefore that the participants have a positive attitude towards the idea of a separate vocabulary-based subject which reflects UG students’ awareness of the noteworthy role of vocabulary and their readiness to enhance their vocabulary knowledge supported by a formal instruction.

3.5. Analysis of Classroom Observation

The classroom observation, as formally stated, was employed to crosscheck the findings of the different tools used in this study and more particularly to obtain insightful data through the systematic description that it could offer the observer about the studied phenomenon. So, this classroom observation involved five lectures or sessions; three sessions with the first year and two sessions with the third year. After obtaining the permission of the teachers in charge of the observed modules, the researcher set at the back of the classroom to have a holistic view and to avoid to the maximum disturbing the class. The observation was framed by a checklist that guided the researcher during the different sessions. Therefore, the results of this tool are displayed through the checklist designed in a table format.

3.5.1. First Year Classroom Observation

The three sessions of the first year were conducted in the modules/subjects of 1) linguistics, 2) grammar and 3) cultural studies. The findings of the linguistics session are displayed in the following table.

Table 3.22: First Year Linguistics Classroom Observation

Level/Group: 1 LMD/G3	Academic Year: 2019/2020				Module: Linguistics				Lecture title: Language			
Inquiry about	Asked by		Answered by		Type of information provided					Type of vocabulary		
	T	S	T	S	Def	Syn	Ant	Trans	Eg. sentence	T.1	T.2	T.3
instinctive		X	X					X				In common usage. One of the 10,000 most commonly used words (Collins Dict.)

Note: T=teacher, S=students, Def= definition, Syn=synonym, Ant=antonym, Trans=translation

As can be seen in the above table, the linguistics lecture was about language and only one word; ‘instinctive’ has been explained during the whole lecture. The term ‘instinctive’ originally belonged to the psychology terminology, but it started gaining increasing frequency in everyday life in the 1920s (Uhrbrock, 1932). So, though in common usage, it is not a high frequency word since it is one of the 10,000 commonly used words in English according to Collins Dictionary. Thus, it can be considered as a technical word in the context of psychology, psycholinguistics and linguistics, belonging as such to tier 3 vocabulary. The inquiry about the word was done by a student and it was the teacher who provided the information by translating the word into Arabic, the mother tongue of the participants.

To have a better understanding of the above results, it is worth noting that the teacher in charge of this module was a part-time teacher who has never taught before though she obtained her Bachelor’s degree a long time ago. The teacher delivered the lecture by writing the content on the whiteboard and required from her students to copy it down. Students seemed facing difficulties to grasp the content of the lecture (evolution and characteristics of human language) which was quite new for them. Furthermore, the explanation of the content was a simple reading from the board. So, the students were passive and their passiveness was

interrupted by the only question asked about the word 'instinctive'. We believe that the teacher's teaching methodology and limited experience, and the impact of our presence, explain by far the findings of this observation session.

The second session, conducted in the grammar module, was quite different from the previous one in terms of the teacher's methodology as well as in terms of students' reactions. The lecture was about pronouns, and as students have already dealt with this topic in pre-university education, the teacher did not need to put too much effort in explaining the content. Thus, the teacher relied mainly on asking her students questions to activate their prior-knowledge. The latter reacted positively to their teacher's questions and the information collected from their answers was used by the teacher in completing a table that summarized the English pronouns. This explains why all the questions were asked by the teacher while the answers were provided by the students as illustrated in the following table.

Table 3.23: First Year Grammar Classroom Observation

Level/Group: 1 LMD/G3	Academic Year: 2019/2020				Module: Grammar				Lecture title: Pronouns				
Inquiry about	Asked by		Answered by		Type of information provided					Type of Vocabulary			
	T	S	T	S	Def	Syn	Ant	Trans	Eg. sentence	T.1	T.2	T.3	
Pronoun	X			X	X					X			In common usage. One of the 10,000 most commonly used words in Collins Dict.
Subject	X			X	X						Extremely common. GSL (434)		
Object	X			X	X						Extremely common. GSL (733)		

So, as can be seen in the table, the inquiry was about three words; pronoun, subject and object that were obviously the core of the lecture. The familiarity of the students with the studied topic helped them to provide definitions to these words. Yet, in the second step, the teacher re-explained and summarized the collected data, and at the same time supplied her students with some missing information supported and illustrated by different examples.

The teacher was a full-time teacher with a PhD degree who has been teaching at the University for ... years and she has also taught grammar for ... years. We believe that it was the teacher's experience with EFL teaching in general and with grammar in particular, added to the fact that the students have already studied pronouns in middle and secondary schools, which have clearly contributed to the smooth and good delivery of the lecture.

The third and last session with the first year was with the module of Culture and Civilisation of the English Speaking Countries. The lecture was an introduction into the United Kingdom. The lecture was heavy with information and new words which explains the number of vocabulary items included in the table below.

Table 3.24: First Year Cultural Studies Classroom Observation

Level/Group: 1 LMD/G3	Academic Year: 2019/2020		Module: Culture and Civilisation of the English Speaking Countries		Lecture title: Identification of the UK							
Inquiry about	Asked by		Answered by		Type of information provided					Type of Vocabulary		
	T	S	T	S	Def	Syn	Ant	Trans	Eg. sentence	T.1	T.2	T.3
Sovereign	X		X	X	X				X			In common usage. One of the 10,000 most commonly used words in Collins Dict.
constitutional		X	X		X				X		AWL	
monarchy												In common usage. One of the 10,000 most commonly used words in

											Collins Dict.
Continental	X		X		X				X		//
coastline	X			X		X					//
Sea border	X			X		X				GSL	
Land area	X		X	X	X				X	GSL	AWL
Populous		X		X		X					Used occasionally, it is one of the 30,000 most commonly used words in the Collins dict.
constituent	X		X		X				X		AWL

As shown in the table above, both the teacher and the students asked questions about the unfamiliar words and both contributed to the answers during this session. The inquiry about the new words by the students to understand their meaning is a commonsense action, and what is interesting is that students in this lecture were motivated to do so, may be by their teacher's methodology. We noticed that the teacher used to ask his students about some words whenever he felt that the words were unfamiliar to the students, especially when the latter did not ask. So, when the students could not answer his questions, the teacher automatically provided them with the words' explanations, either as synonyms or definitions, and often supported them with example sentences. The teacher was a PhD holder and a full-time teacher with a quite long teaching experience, yet it was his first experience with this module.

3.5.2. Third Year Classroom Observation

It is worth noting that most of the third year programme is delivered as lecture courses in amphitheatres followed by oral presentations achieved by the students as part of their classroom assignments in the TD sessions. This made it difficult to observe the behaviour of both the students and teachers vis-a-vis vocabulary as it was the case with the first year. That is why only two classroom observation sessions have been conducted with the third year, namely with the modules of Cultural Studies and Research Methodology. The following table displays the findings of the Research Methodology session.

Table 3.25: Third Year Research Methodology Classroom Observation

Level/Group : 3 LMD/G3	Academic Year: 2019/2020				Module: Research Methodology				Lecture title:			
Inquiry about	Asked by		Answered by		Type of information provided					Type of vocabulary		
	T	S	T	S	Def	Syn	Ant	Trans	Eg. sentence	T.1	T.2	T.3
Theoretical Research	X		X		X						AW L AW L	
Applied (research)	X		X		X					GSL		
Descriptive research										GSL		
Exploratory (research)	X		X		X					GSL		
Correlational (Research)	X		X		X							In commo n usage. One of the 10,000 most commo nly used words in Collins Dict.
Quantitative (research)	X		X		X				X	Very common. One of the 4,000 most commonly used words in the Collins Dict.		
Qualitative (research)	X		X		X				X		AW L	
Shed light	X			X		X				Very common. One of the 4,000 most commonly used words in the Collins Dict. GSL		

As can be seen in the table above most of the vocabulary items discussed in this session were collocations composed of words belonging either to tier 1 or tier 2 vocabulary, yet the collocations as whole units are technical words particular to the module or the field of research methodology. This may explain why the teacher in charge of the module asked the questions and answered them, especially that the module and the topic were new for the students. The only exception was the last collocation ‘shed light’ which was explained by a student. As for the teacher, she was a PhD student and a full time teacher with a teaching experience of six years.

Moving on to the second session of the third year, it was conducted in the module of Culture and Civilisation or more precisely ‘Study of historical texts’. It is worth noting that at the first and second year; undergraduate students discover the civilisation and culture of the English countries through the study of their symbols, history, and political as well as educational institutions, hence the name of the module ‘Culture and Civilisation of the English speaking Countries’. At the third year, students continue to learn about these topics, but in a different way, the focus is rather on the analysis of political and historical texts.

So, before starting the observation, and while informing the teacher in charge of the module about the aim of our work, she told us that the TD was preceded by a lecture course in an amphitheatre where she had already explained the content and by extension she had explained the main technical and new words to her students. Thus, the session observed was a TD where students had to analyse a historical text related to the previous lecture. The familiarity of the students with the topic reflected in their positive interaction during the brief revision at the beginning of the TD may well explain the limited number of the unfamiliar words discussed in this session as seen in the table below.

Table 3.26: Third Year Culture and Civilisation Classroom Observation

Level/Group: 1 LMD/G3	Academic Year: 2019/2020				Module: Linguistics				Lecture title: Language			
Inquiry about	Asked by		Answered by		Type of information provided					Type of vocabulary		
	T	S	T	S	Def	Syn	Ant	Trans	Eg. sentence	T.1	T.2	T.3
speakeasy		X	X		X							Used rarely, it is in the lower 50% commonly used words in Collins dict.
Scarface	X		X		X							//

So, only two questions were asked; the first inquiry was done by a student and the second by the teacher, yet both questions were answered by the teacher who provided her students with the definitions of the words. The two terms are of very low frequency since they are rarely used in everyday life. The teacher in charge of the module was also a full time teacher holding a PhD degree with a quite long experience in teaching the English language as well as the module of culture and Civilisation which was her specialty in the Magister and Doctoral studies.

It is worth noting that in the five sessions conducted with both the first and third year, we noticed that the classes were crowded and many students who were sitting at the back were passive; some of them seemed uninterested while others seemed disturbed by our presence which was even the case of two teachers. Some students seemed facing difficulties, like us, to hear the teachers because of the low voice of the latter, and others were following the lecture with interest, but seemed hesitant to take part in asking or answering the questions.

3.5.3. Classroom Observation Synthesis

To conclude, we can firmly claim that both teachers and students at the first as well as the third year showed interest in vocabulary which is very sound in a language class, especially a foreign language class. On the one hand, the teachers observed showed their willingness to help their students with vocabulary learning by deliberately explaining the unfamiliar words. On the other hand, students, though only some of them, were seeking their teachers' help to provide them with words' explanations which is one of the VLS that language learners often use when learning vocabulary (Schmitt, 1997). These findings back up the participants' claims in the questionnaire. Yet, we cannot deny the influence of some factors on the quality and extent of the participants' interest in vocabulary; mainly the teachers' qualification and experience and the students' personality trait and motivation.

Other factors may include the inadequate learning atmosphere and the class size that often add stress on some students who already face difficulty speaking because of different reasons as shyness, anxiety, etc. So, to answer our fourth question, we can claim that vocabulary instruction is more or less present in our classes which disconfirm our fourth hypothesis concerning the negative attitude of the teachers towards explicit teaching of vocabulary. It also corroborates the findings of the teachers' questionnaire. But, the actual problem is that vocabulary instruction, as has been observed, was not constant and systematic and therefore it cannot lead to effective results.

The second important finding is that our students actually face difficulty with all types of vocabulary namely tier one, two and three. Nonetheless, these findings also revealed that most of the words discussed in the observed sessions were tier one and three vocabulary, i.e. conversational and technical vocabulary.

3.6. Conclusion

Given that at the university level, EFL students need to possess a rich academic register, the current study tried to shed light on one particular type of academic vocabulary, namely tier two, for its special role in enhancing learners' comprehension and performance. The main objective of this chapter was therefore to explore the state of this type of vocabulary in the Algerian EFL classroom; at the Bachelor's level through the analysis of the gathered data. The different tools employed in this study provided us with a considerable amount of qualitative and quantitative data that helped to a certain extent in answering the research questions. Out of the four hypotheses guiding this research work, three have been confirmed. The validation of the results was based on first the triangulation of the tools, namely the tests, questionnaires and classroom observation, and second the triangulation of data sources including students and teachers separately and the classroom as a setting that gathers both participants and permits interaction that generates another type of data.

The tests provided data that confirmed the first hypothesis stating that Algerian undergraduate students have a deficit in their knowledge of general academic vocabulary (tier two). Moreover, the tests revealed another expected finding which was the limited overall vocabulary knowledge of the participants. Both findings were then corroborated by the data gathered through the questionnaires about teachers' and students' beliefs. Then, when comparing the AWLT pre-test and post-test results, we obtained confirmation for our second hypothesis. The limited vocabulary progress achieved by the first and the third year participants at the end of the academic year added to the insignificant difference between the vocabulary size of the first year and the third year validated our assumption concerning the limited effect of exposure alone on EFL vocabulary learning.

We therefore assumed that explicit teaching of vocabulary would help our undergraduate (UG) students learn general academic vocabulary deemed important for their

progress. Accordingly, the study tried to verify students' and teachers' attitudes towards explicit instruction as an additional way to boost the vocabulary learning process. As was expected, we obtained confirmation of hypothesis three; UG Students favour explicit vocabulary teaching because first vocabulary is large and more importantly they need their teachers' support in the different teaching subjects to enrich their academic vocabulary knowledge. Conversely, the fourth hypothesis dealing with teachers' attitude was disconfirmed. We expected teachers to be against explicit vocabulary instruction, but it was not the case. The analysis of their beliefs reflected two important points which were interrelated; the first concerned their conviction about their students' lack of autonomy and the second was their shared agreement on the importance of explicit vocabulary teaching to these students. Teachers' support of explicit vocabulary instruction was validated by their students through their questionnaire and also confirmed during the observation sessions. Yet, the focus was mainly on technical words and their teaching was restricted to providing students with words' definition. Such practice seems quite justified since the subject's teaching time does not allow more than the delivery of the content and the explanation of its related terminology.

Chapter Four:

Suggestions and Recommendations

Chapter Four: Suggestions and Recommendations

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4.1. Introduction

The analysis of the gathered data provided us with valuable insights into the research learning situation. We obtained confirmation of our main assumptions; first students lack knowledge of (general academic) vocabulary and second they welcome their teachers' support and the explicit teaching of vocabulary. Besides, we discovered that teachers too share a positive attitude towards explicit vocabulary instruction due to its role in developing students' lexical competence. This fourth and last chapter therefore builds on these findings to provide some recommendations believed to benefit undergraduate students in their vocabulary and EFL learning process.

The chapter starts by referring to the load put on our EFL students' shoulders at their entry to the university. As a remedy to their limited vocabulary gains from secondary education, the researcher calls for the administration of a test so as to identify the candidates that are eligible to join the university. As the test aims at contributing to the quality of EFL learning, we esteem that the test is a fair procedure to join higher education. The second recommendation concerns candidates who succeed to embark on university studies.

To deepen their knowledge in English, students study a set of subjects including grammar, phonetics, written and oral expression, etc. Since vocabulary is an important language component, it is even the '*building blocks*' and the '*core or heart*' of language, we equally recommend to devote a subject to teach vocabulary. Because the latter is very large, a painstaking selection is then required and clearly the focus should be on undergraduate students' vocabulary needs. Teachers are also at the heart of our recommendations; since their quality is likely to ensure a quality in vocabulary/EFL learning, their support is as important as learners' support and training is one form of this indispensable support.

4.2. Studying EFL at the University Level

Studying EFL at the University Level involves the particular use of academic English (AE); a type of discourse that characterizes higher education and differs, as discussed in chapter two, from Social English (SE). Then, being non-native speakers of English, Algerian university students face the double challenge of closing the gap in their SE and learning the new discourse of AE. Gee (2008) clarifies this challenge and explains the load put on EFL students' shoulders, by drawing a comparison between non-native and native speakers of English stating that:

For native speakers of English, each new style of academic language differs from, but also builds on, their conversational variety of English. For English language learners, however, the challenge of learning academic styles is greatly magnified. They must acquire a conversational style of English in addition to a number of academic styles, sometimes simultaneously. (p. 62)

Gee, thus, points to the divergence between the two types of discourse and claims that there are different styles even within the academic discourse that also native speakers need to learn. Yet, the researcher recognizes that what makes the learning of these academic styles relatively easier for native compared to non-native speakers is naturally the mastery of their own conversational discourse.

Therefore, the challenge of Algerian EFL undergraduate students (UG) is that they are required to “exhibit *a wide range of academic skills*” (Martin, 1967, pp. 91) in addition to a wide range of social skills in the English language. They need to perform different tasks as part of their English studies. They need to listen to their teachers and classmates speak in English, to participate, to read and write assignments in English, to sit for tests and exams and to make research and present their findings orally in English too. To perform these tasks with success, UG students need to have a good knowledge of English vocabulary, including

general conversational vocabulary as well as academic and technical vocabulary which usually characterize the university setting.

As beginners, EFL students are usually exposed to high frequency vocabulary and the most frequent words of general academic vocabulary over the seven years of middle and secondary school. When they join the university English course, they are expected to continue developing this prior knowledge and also to build on it. At this level students are mainly exposed to general academic and technical vocabulary which they need to develop and increase along with the other academic skills as they progress in their studies. This means that a deficit in students' prior vocabulary knowledge constitutes a real obstacle to meet the requirements of a Bachelor's degree in English. Students with such limited lexical profile are usually committed to failure or it is at the least the main cause behind their weak academic achievement as demonstrated in this study. Accordingly, testing and evaluating students' prior knowledge in English including their vocabulary should be a precondition to have access to the university, hence the importance of an admission test before joining the course.

4.1. Admission Test as a Fair Procedure to Higher Education

There is no doubt that higher education and university degrees are significant as they generally offer graduate and post-graduate students more job opportunities compared with students who do not complete their education. That is why "*Access to higher education matters to many people and so do fair admissions.*" (Admissions to Higher Education Steering Group, 2004,p.2). To assure such fairness in admissions, international universities, in addition to the secondary education grades, usually require from their applicants to sit for entrance or entry examinations also known as admission tests.

The objective of such examination is to decide whether the candidates are eligible and sufficiently prepared to progress in the courses they apply for and therefore to achieve quality in learning and teaching. As for the universities or programmes that are less selective,

Häkkinen (2004) explains that they: *“suffer from high dropout rates [especially] when students succeed to get into other programs after a few years”* (p.2). Therefore, the worth of the admission tests is that on the one hand, they help the qualified applicants to have access to the chosen courses. On the other hand, they prevent the unqualified students from joining courses or programmes that may cause them difficulties and even failure. This is all for the benefit of the applicants and subsequently the tests can be considered as reasonable and fair procedures to higher education.

The rationale behind this claim is that it has been demonstrated that students who succeed in the admission tests usually perform positively in their university studies. For instance, Silfverberg and Orbeta (2018) found that: *“there is a consistent positive correlation between subsequent academic performance in math, science and english and entrance examination scores.”* (p.30). The researchers further claim that this strong positive correlation has been consistently recorded in the developed countries such as the USA, whereas the records of such correlation are mixed in the developing countries ; stating China and Ethiopia as examples with strong positive correlation and Turkey as an example with low correlation (ibid, p.3). Yet, what is interesting is that the researchers mentioned foreign languages, namely English among the courses whose success is positively correlated with the admission tests scores. (ibid). Therefore, quality is one of the main concerns of these universities which regularly publish new regulations that *“aim to provide a common framework to manage quality.”* (Djoudi, 2018)

Another important reason for supporting the adoption of admission test as a university entry requirement; particularly to the English course , is the limitations of the final secondary education exam ; namely the Algerian Baccalaureate Exam which does not reflect the actual level of the examinees in foreign languages. In this context, Naoua (2006) conducted a study whose objective was to uncover the reasons behind the weak achievement of technology

pupils of Eloued in the BAC English tests ; entitled : *An Evaluation of English Language Testing in the Baccalaureate Examination: The Case of the Tests Administered to Technology Streams from 2001 to 2006*, and his findings simply reinforce the negative assumption that we commonly hold about the invalidity and unreliability of the Algerian BAC examination.

Naoua claims that: « *these tests failed to ensure three main criteria: construct representation, content relevance, and coverage*» (ibid, p.27). He explains then that the main cause behind such problematic situation is the fact that the BAC exam is designed by teachers only (ibid, p.25). To solve this problem, Naoua recommends the Algerian National Office of Examinations and Contests (ONEC) to set up teams consisting of three types of experts: 1) linguists, i.e. university lecturers specialized in the sciences of language so as to delimit the constructs intended to be tested ; 2) psychometricians who are specialists in educational measurement and can use scientific measurement techniques to set down a valid and reliable test and 3) secondary school teachers to inform the linguists and the psychometricians thanks to their long expertise in teaching third year students(ibid, p.26).

Provided that these suggestions are taken into consideration, the BAC exam could be credible enough to gauge students' English ability and would suffice as an entry requirement giving access to a Bachelor's degree in English. This is because the test would be designed first by experts and more importantly by teachers from both secondary and tertiary education. Such cooperation would urge the continuity between the programmes of the two levels and would then assure their representativeness in the exam. In other words, the EFL test at the BAC exam would be informative, i.e. it would uncover students' linguistic gains from secondary education and at the same time inform about how well they are prepared to join the university and pursue advanced studies in English. Unfortunately, the BAC exam is still designed in the same inefficient ways and then the admission test would be a plausible alternative.

The test should be based on a framework that helps to describe the actual language proficiency of the testee. As the target language is English, the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) can well fulfill this objective. The CEFR has been developed in 2001 by the Council of Europe as a standard for grading an individuals' language proficiency. The framework arranges language proficiency into six levels that range from A1 to C2as can be seen in the table below.

Table 4.1: CEER Language Proficiency Levels

C2	Mastery	Proficient user
C1	Effective Operational Proficiency	
B2	Vantage	Independent user
B1	Threshold	
A2	Waystage	Basic user
A1	Breakthrough	

The above six levels are described in terms of abilities in the four language skills; listening, speaking, reading and writing and based on these abilities, each two levels of the six levels are regrouped into a broad level which creates three broad levels that are 1) Basic User including A1 and A2, 2) Independent User including B1 and B2, and 3) Proficient User consisting of C1 and C2. The framework is used to elaborate language syllabuses, to design teaching materials as well to design tests that assess learners' language proficiency. Different well-known exams use this framework as a reference and a leveling system, including but not limited to IELTS which stands for International English Language Testing System and Linguaskill, both developed by the University of Cambridge.

4.4. Follow-up of the Admission Test

As explained previously the admission tests are usually administered to the applicants because the final exams of pre-university education do not always inform universities and higher education institutions about the applicants' achievements and abilities. To this regards, Stemler (2012) explains that: *“universities expect students to develop a broad range of skills*

that are not always fully captured by FYGPA¹⁷” (p.6). Hence, the test is meant to remedy this situation by providing relevant information about the applicants’ achievements and abilities which in turn determines and steers the follow-up of the test regarding the qualified and unqualified applicants.

4.4.1. Unqualified students

Failure in the admission test obviously means that the unsuccessful students are unqualified and not equipped enough to engage with the English course and cannot therefore meet the standards and expectations set by the degree programme. As such, these students would have the choice between two options:

1. To choose another course that better matches their academic abilities.
2. If still interested in joining the English course, students can benefit from a second opportunity which is to be directed to a foundation year programme in English. The latter would give them afterward automatic access to the Bachelor’s programme provided that they achieve success upon completion of the foundation year.

4.4.2. Unqualified Students and the Foundation Year

If students do not meet the admission requirements for their chosen undergraduate course, a foundation year programme can be the alternative way into studying at the university and joining the course of their choice. A foundation programme is defined by Cann (2019) as: *“a stepping stone into the world of higher education, particularly if [students] don't have the right qualifications to go straight onto a degree programme”*. Likewise, Pop (2019) presents the foundation programme as a course designed essentially to:

¹⁷ FYGPA: College freshman-year grade point average/ first year college grade point average.

fill the gap between [students'] current level of qualification and knowledge and the level needed to be admitted to a Bachelor's or Master's degree at an international university. Foundation degrees, also known as preparation courses or pathways programmes, complement any knowledge or qualification that [students] might still be lacking after finishing high school

Therefore, a Foundation programme or a preparation course is not expected to award students an academic degree upon its completion. It is rather meant to provide them with the necessary knowledge that prepares them to pursue university studies and then obtaining an academic degree such as a Bachelor's or Master's degree. That is why they are considered as pre-degree study programmes. These programmes are very common in many countries, especially in developed countries. They are directed both to local and international students and their duration varies from six months to one academic year.

In the same way, these programmes can be applied in our country. They can be very beneficial because on the one hand they open the door to new opportunities for students who were unlucky to join the courses of their choice. On the other hand, they can promote teaching and learning as they: "*guarantee a certain level of qualification that allows [students] to follow a higher education degree*" (ibid) which is believed to contribute to the overall enhancement of education in the country.

Thus, by joining an EFL foundation programme, students who succeed upon its completion and pass with the required grades would have the possibility and even the University guarantee to be automatically admitted into the Bachelor's programme of English in the following academic year. During this pre-degree programme, students will study an extra year and will receive intensive preparatory classes meant to assist them boost and fine-tune their English language skills as well as their basic study skills with a special focus on developing their academic English in terms of grammar and vocabulary knowledge.

Such programme can be offered and ensured by existing institutions that are already specialized in foreign language teaching and known in Algeria as *Centre d'Enseignement*

Intensif des Langues (CEIL), i.e. Intensive Language Teaching Centres. These centers are available at the level of each university as they are an integral part of the university's common services created at the origin to help students enhance their level in the French language being the medium of instruction at the Algerian university as clarified by Mohamed Boudiaf M'Sila University (MBMU) (2019)

The Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research, having expressed the desire to remedy the high failure rate of students in the first year of higher education which finds part of its origin in their low level in French, has decided to strengthen the system of the Intensive Language Teaching Centre (CEIL) within Algerian universities (MBMU, 2019)¹⁸ [own translation]

After that, the role of these centers expanded to include the teaching of different languages, even the teaching of Arabic to foreign students. The main objective of these centres is to meet the increasing need of a wide range of foreign language learners including students from different disciplines, university staff essentially teachers wishing to learn a particular foreign language for specific, scientific or professional purposes, the extra-academic public seeking to learn foreign languages or to better their language skills as well as institutions of the public and private sectors wishing to enhance the language skills of their staff in their different fields.

Belonging to the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research, it would be a common sense to benefit from these public institutions for the sake of promoting students' learning abilities and facilitating their admission as well as their integration into the university. These institutions can also take charge of the admission test discussed previously in section 3, since they are already acquainted with the design and organization of placement tests that are held at the beginning of each academic year to assess the actual linguistic ability

¹⁸Original text : « *Le Ministère de l'enseignement supérieur et de la recherche scientifique, ayant manifesté la volonté de remédier au taux d'échec élevé des étudiants de première année d'enseignement supérieur qui trouve une partie de son origine dans leur faible niveau en langue française, a décidé de renforcer le dispositif des Centre d'Enseignement Intensif des Langues (CEIL) au sein des universités algériennes* ». Retrieved on : 20/12/2019, from: <http://www.univ-bejaia.dz/ceil/presentation>

of the applicants who want to join these centres for learning or improving their level in a foreign language. So, the CEILs can benefit from their expertise in the testing as well as the teaching of EFL to ensure the new attributed role which is very similar to their original role.

4.4.3. Qualified students

Students who succeed in the admission test are obviously considered as qualifying to meet the standards and expectations of the English course programme. Yet, providing these students with support would always be needed and pertinent first to help them achieve a smooth transition from secondary to higher education and second to accompany them throughout their Bachelor's studies. The utmost objective of this support is to bridge the gap in students' vocabulary knowledge engendered by the lack of exposure and practice that usually characterize the EFL context. The intended support is evidently meant to be in the form of a systematic vocabulary instruction which can be achieved in two possible ways:

1. By integrating vocabulary instruction in each teaching subject/module¹⁹ which makes of vocabulary one component among others in the programme of each module.
2. By designing a vocabulary-based subject, i.e. devoting a specific subject/module to teach academic vocabulary separately from the other subjects, in this case vocabulary would be the core component in the programme of this new teaching subject.

4.5. Integrating Vocabulary Instruction

Upon completion of secondary education, Algerian students' age usually ranges from 18 to 20 years old. As discussed in chapter two, this entails that they are in their late adolescence and that their maturity and autonomy are still incomplete. As our students lack autonomy which is considered a determining factor of success in foreign language learning in

¹⁹ Definition of module in Cambridge Dictionary: "one of the units that together make a complete course, taught especially at a college or university",

<https://dictionary.cambridge.org/fr/dictionnaire/anglais/module>

Definition of module in Merriam-Webster: "an educational unit which covers a single subject or topic"
<https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/module>

general and vocabulary learning in particular; it would be common sense to support them by integrating vocabulary instruction into the undergraduate EFL course.

Nonetheless, even if we assume that undergraduate students have reached their adulthood and their plain maturity, it does not mean that they do not need assistance and support from their teachers. Such assistance is required in all fields of learning but is prominent in the learning of foreign languages. This stems from the fact that language is a social construct and its learning is highly based on extensive social interactions which, in the context of EFL, are restricted to the classroom environment.

Besides, it has been hypothesized in this study that undergraduate students' main problem was with academic vocabulary, yet the VLT and the AWT used in this study revealed that students' lexical competence was limited regarding both high frequency and low frequency vocabulary. This means that students not only have a deficit in their academic vocabulary, but they also face difficulties with their conversational vocabulary and consequently they do need assistance with the three types of vocabulary; conversational vocabulary (tier 1), general academic vocabulary (tier 2) and technical vocabulary (tier 3). Bromley (2007) points out that: "*While teaching vocabulary well in every curriculum area is only one aspect of developing engaged and successful readers, it is a key aspect*" (p. 528). For this reason, providing undergraduate students with support, i.e.: with a quality vocabulary instruction is revealed to be a necessity.

Therefore, every EFL teacher is invited to contribute to this support at the level of his/her teaching subject. Students study a variety of content-based subjects as part of their EFL Bachelor's degree programme. Evidently, the subjects differ in their contents and automatically they differ in their register and vocabulary repertoire. For instance, the technical vocabulary needed to deliver a lecture in *Phonetics*; on speech sounds and phonetic transcription is different from the technical vocabulary needed to deliver a lecture in

Grammar; on parts of speech and verb tenses or in *Cultural studies*; on symbols of the USA and the UK, etc. Then, all teachers are required to explain the technical words that are specific to the content of their subject and that are relevant to its comprehension.

The findings of the classroom observation revealed that teachers actually did ensure this role and they used to explain the technical vocabulary of their subjects to their students, but it has been also noted that the way they proceeded put students in a passive position. Moreover, it has been noted that teachers' main focus was on technical words, while the findings of the tests and the focus group interview revealed that students faced also difficulties with general academic vocabulary and conversational vocabulary which were often neglected as recorded in the different classroom observation sessions.

A suggested technique can help to overcome these problems, this method was tried by the researcher during the achievement of this research work with first year students and it revealed to have some benefits for both students and the teacher/the researcher. The first benefit of this method is to help students study and get familiar with all the newly encountered words regardless of their type instead of focusing only on technical words. The second benefit is to urge students to be active by engaging them in their learning process and urging them to rely less on their teachers and more on themselves.

The technique was carried as follows; having the charge of the *Cultural Studies* module, the researcher used to provide her first year students with the handout of each lecture, one week before the teaching session as a reading assignment. Students were therefore required to read the handout not only to urge them prepare for the lecture, but also as way to help them develop their reading habits. As a second task, students were asked to draw a list of all the difficult/unknown words from the handout and to hand in the list to their teacher (the researcher) the day of the lecture with their names and group number.

Students had to divide the list into three columns; the first column was devoted to the unfamiliar words, the second to the words' definitions and/or synonyms and the last to an equivalent in French and/or in Arabic; their mother tongue. An optional column was to be added for an example sentence with the target word. It is worth mentioning that none of the students took the last column into account and all the collected lists were limited to three columns. The following table illustrates the format of the required vocabulary list.

Table 4.2: Suggested format for the Vocabulary Word List

Cultural Studies Module 1LMD/S1/(2018-2019)			Full Name:	
			Group:	
Nº	Word	Definition/synonym	Translation	Example sentence
1.				
2.				
3.				

As students have different vocabulary knowledge, the collected lists were expected to differ from one student to another, besides the lists were expected to include the three types/tiers of vocabulary which had been eventually the case.

By doing this, the researcher aimed at encouraging her students to participate and to engage with their vocabulary learning process which was meant to start at home while reading the handouts and preparing the lists. The process continued while delivering the lectures; instead of providing students with explanations of new words, the researcher used to ask her students to provide these explanations given that they had already drawn their vocabulary lists. The process continued also after the lectures; as students were quizzed about the studied vocabulary as part of their continuous evaluation.

It is now commonly known that repeated exposure is the key factor in vocabulary learning. It helps store the newly encountered words into learners' long-term memory. While Nation (2014) considers twelve repetitions as a reasonable amount for word retention, Vidal

(2011) (cited in Nation, 2014) recorded vocabulary gains after only two and three repetitions. Hence by applying the above stated method, it is believed to provide students with a minimal exposure to a wide range of vocabulary. The first exposure happens when students read the handout, the second when they check the meaning of the unknown words and draw the vocabulary list, the third when teachers deliver the lectures and check the meaning of the words during the class discussions, and the fourth during the tests. Besides, some of the unfamiliar words can reappear in other lectures' lists and/or in other modules lists provided that the experiment is applied in different teaching subjects allowing thus for more exposures.

The researcher applied this technique during the first semester of the academic year 2018-2019, but the experiment was interrupted because of the students' strike that took place in the second semester. Yet, the researcher noted the interest and motivation of many students with the experiment and their disappointment with its interruption. At the end of the experiment, the researcher was planning to ask students to collect and arrange all their vocabulary lists into a pamphlet and to use it as a personal dictionary or glossary in the *Cultural Studies* module.

Obviously, this simple technique has its own drawbacks as its implementation may be hampered by the large size class usually witnessed in the English department; as such the technique could be carried out with students working in pairs or even in small groups. Besides, teachers can ensure the engagement of students by regularly collecting and checking the lists as well as by quizzing the students on the vocabulary during the lectures and within the TD²⁰ tests.

²⁰TD : Travaux dirigés (in French), usually known as tutorials in English, which are defined in the online Cambridge Dictionary as: “a *period of study with a tutor involving one student or a small group* » <https://dictionary.cambridge.org/fr/dictionnaire/anglais/tutorial>

4.6. Testing Vocabulary

By testing students on the studied vocabulary, teachers will not only be informed about their students' achievements, but they will also make their students benefit from the backwash effect of the tests. Brown (2004) claims that assessing vocabulary has a positive backwash effect on learners who will be driven by the need to review their vocabulary before the test. Such feeling urges EFL students to concentrate more on this language component even after class with the intent to memorize it as explained by Laufer, Meara & Nation (2005): *“Even if words are practiced in class, they are remembered much better after an additional stage of intentional memorization, and testing is one way to encourage students to do this”* (p.4). Testing therefore helps students to recycle their vocabulary and it subsequently raises their awareness about the importance of vocabulary knowledge in developing their EFL language proficiency.

Teachers can assess their students' vocabulary in different ways, either separately or included in the other skills like reading or writing. Read (2000) identifies three dimensions of vocabulary testing which are presented in table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Dimensions of Vocabulary Assessment (Adapted from: Read, 2000, p. 8)

Discrete	Embedded
A measure of vocabulary knowledge or use as an independent instrument	A measure of vocabulary which forms part of the assessment of some other, larger construct
Selective	Comprehensive
A measure in which specific vocabulary items are the focus of the assessment	A measure which takes account of the whole vocabulary content of the input material (reading/ listening, tasks) or the test-taker's response (writing/speaking tasks)
Context-independent	Context-dependant
A vocabulary measure in which the test-taker can produce the expected response without referring to any context	A vocabulary measure which assesses the test-taker's ability to take account of contextual information in order to produce the expected response

As indicated in the table above, the dimensions are 1) discrete vs. embedded, 2) selective vs. comprehensive and 3) context-independent vs. context-dependent. In the first dimension, Read (ibid) distinguishes between the discrete testing of vocabulary which assesses a word as: *'an independent construct'* and embedded testing that incorporates vocabulary within other skills and considers it as part of *'a larger construct'*. In the selective vs. comprehensive dimension, Pearson, Hiebert & Kamil (2007) explain that the tested vocabulary may be selected from only one lecture to check if learners have assimilated the words in that particular lesson, however the tested words can be sampled from a larger corpus and include for example the whole curriculum, in this case the assessment is considered as comprehensive.

In other words, there is a direct relationship between the size of the corpus to be tested and the nature of the test as elucidated by Pearson et al. (ibid) who argue that: *"In general, the smaller the set of words about which we wish to make a claim, the more selective the assessment"*(ibid, p. 288). The context- dependent vs. independent dimension, is defined however as: *"the degree that textual context is required to determine the meaning of a word"*(ibid, p. 289). Put differently, through this dimension of testing teachers can evaluate students' ability to display vocabulary understanding either with or without the use of textual context.

Hence, teachers can assess the studied vocabulary discretely; in separate tests or embedded in the other skills as through reading comprehension. They may also be selective and assess a set of words from one specific lecture or design a comprehensive test that gauge the vocabulary studied during one semester or a whole academic year. As for the format, they can measure their students' vocabulary knowledge with or/and without the support of textual context using different format such as labeling, definition, translation, MCQs, Yes/No checklist, matching and cloze-test with or without choices. By assessing students' vocabulary,

teachers are at the same time evaluating students' language proficiency as well as their comprehension of the content of their lectures since it is vocabulary that carries meaning and is the key indicator of comprehension.

4.7. Vocabulary-based Teaching Subject

In addition to integrating vocabulary instruction to every module²¹/teaching subject, EFL students would gain more by studying vocabulary as a separate teaching subject, the same way other language components and skills are taught. Students study for instance written expression, oral expression, reading, grammar and phonetics separately in different teaching subjects; and vocabulary should be no exception. This idea can be opposed on the basis that:

1. it is not conventional to devote a module to vocabulary teaching as it has been expressed in the questionnaire by one of the teachers participating in this study.
2. it is difficult to tackle all the English vocabulary because it is very large.

Our reply to these criticisms is very simple. It is first backed by common sense and second by scientific research.

4.7.1. Reply to Criticism One

First, if it is currently not conventional to teach vocabulary in a separate subject, this is not the actual problem because there is always a first time for everything, especially if it is beneficial and helps, in our case, to meet the needs of our students. More importantly, this idea is actually not new; it has been shared and advocated by many researchers. For instance, Ozturk (2015) conducted a research which investigated the vocabulary growth of advanced Turkish EFL learners and his findings revealed an unsatisfactory vocabulary growth among the participants. Ozturk (2015) recommends extensive reading and writing as a way to

²¹“a unit that can form part of a course of study, especially at a college or university in the UK” (Oxford Learner’s Dictionaries) <https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/module?q=module>
 « one of the *units* that together make a *complete course*, *taught especially* at a *college* or *university* »
 (Cambridge Dictionary) <https://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/module>

guarantee increase in learners' vocabulary at this academic level. Moreover, his findings led him to recognize students' need not only for direct vocabulary instruction, but also for studying vocabulary as a separate teaching subject.

Further, the researcher (2015) clearly explains that: "*extra support and guidance may need to be given to the learners in the form of an advanced vocabulary course. It would be wrong to expect vocabulary to take care of itself*" (p.107). Thus, the researcher recognizes that one of the causes that hamper learners' vocabulary growth is the fact that at this academic level, vocabulary learning is mainly incidental and the advanced learner: "*is left to their own devices to learn a large vocabulary mainly through language use*" (ibid, p. 95). Ozturk (2015) even claims that his findings corroborate the findings of other studies which were carried in different EFL contexts and where vocabulary learning was mainly incidental. Examples of these studies are Schmitt and Meara (1997) with Japanese EFL learners and Cobb and Horst (2001) examining the vocabulary size of Hong Kong university students (ibid). Furthermore, the idea of devoting a vocabulary course at an advanced level exists even in the English as first language context, where Snowden, and as early as 1946, declared:

In the light of an increasing anxiety concerning the grave lack of vocabulary knowledge among college students, there can no longer be any doubt that the college must introduce courses which will have as the object of first importance the development of a knowledge of word-formation needed by the undergraduate body as a whole" (p.5)

Teaching students word-formation is necessary and it could be part of a Grammar course programme as well as part of a Vocabulary course programme which should be adapted to match and meet the increasing need of the EFL students for vocabulary knowledge during their undergraduate studies. Eventually, the teaching of foreign languages has witnessed myriad changes over time in terms of methodology, perspectives as well as the teaching materials, and the teaching of vocabulary has equally been influenced by these continuous changes. Sprenger (2013) for instance clearly refers to this change by declaring

that: “*Vocabulary has long been ignored or thought a burden in our classrooms. It is time to give it the time it deserves*” and this can well be achieved by devoting a whole course to teaching vocabulary.

In the same vein, Solange and Sao (2001) explain that in the traditional approach to ELT, vocabulary was taught explicitly to elementary levels, but beyond this level, it was mainly incidental; learners were presented new vocabulary items while reading or sometimes listening to selected texts. Thus, the teaching of vocabulary was indirect and its learning was expected to occur through the practice of the different language skills. The researchers claim that this approach “*has been proved not enough to ensure vocabulary expansion*” (ibid), they further argue that: “*Nowadays it is widely accepted that vocabulary teaching should be part of the syllabus, and taught in a well-planned and regular basis*” (ibid). Incorporating vocabulary instruction into the syllabus is also advocated by Nation; an outstanding figure in Applied Linguistics and an expert in the teaching and learning of vocabulary and language teaching methodology.

In an attempt to design an ideal course to teach vocabulary, Nation (2011) claims that a well designed vocabulary course should be based around four strands which he identifies as: 1) meaning-focused input, 2) meaning-focused output, 3) language-focused learning, and 4) fluency development. The strands as explained by the researcher are illustrated in the following table.

Table 4.4: Strands of an Ideal Vocabulary Teaching Course (Adopted from Nation, 2011, p.50)

1. <i>Meaning-focused input</i>	<i>involves learning through listening and reading at a level which is suitable for the learner.</i>
2. <i>Meaning-focused output</i>	<i>involves learning through speaking and writing at a level which is suitable for the learner.</i>
3. <i>Language-focused learning</i>	<i>involves the deliberate study of language, in this case, vocabulary.</i>
4. <i>Fluency development</i>	<i>does not involve the learning of any new items but involves becoming very proficient at using what is already known. Fluency development needs to occur separately for each of the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing.</i>

Does the Algerian English course respect these strands? To answer this question, we need first to decipher these strands and understand what Nation means by an ideal vocabulary teaching course. So, according to Nation, meaning-focused input occurs when learners receive an extensive but a comprehensible input that matches their right level through their receptive skills, listening and reading (ibid). First, to provide learners with meaning-focused input through extensive listening, Nation (2011) suggests three ways to do that; and one of these ways is to: “*make most of the classroom management occur through the medium of English*”(p. 51), that is to say that English teachers are required to use the English language to communicate with their learners in all situations such as to:

tell the learners what to do, to control their behaviour, to praise them for good work, to give them feedback on their performance, to explain why they are doing certain activities and what the benefit will be to them, and to generally motivate them. The success of this lies in the teacher's skill in finding comprehensible and consistent ways of doing these things through the medium of English. (ibid)

In fact, this is applied in our classes; based on our learning and teaching experience, we can assume that EFL instruction at the tertiary level is most of the time provided by means of the English language. Teachers, regardless of the module, usually deliver the content of their subjects in English and use the language to communicate with their students which provides students with opportunities for implicit learning of vocabulary from extensive listening.

With respect to meaning-focused input through reading, the researcher explains that a good way to apply this strand is to provide learners with an extensive reading programme and to make it an essential part of any vocabulary course (ibid). Unfortunately, in spite of its importance as a key alternative to remedy and compensate the lack of contact with foreign languages (Davis, 1995; De’Ath, 2001), most of our universities; if not all, lack such reading programmes as pointed out by Toulgui (2017) who states that “*Today nostalgia for reading*

haunts the Algerian university. We even witness a tragic split between the book and its reader that is caused by an endless degradation of their intimate/friendly relationship” (p.14). Therefore, our learners are deprived from the many benefits of this important source of linguistic/vocabulary input and knowledge, a situation for which students also share responsibility being themselves poor readers.

As for meaning-focused output, it happens through speaking and writing and Nation argues that the most appropriate way to apply it is through teaching content using English as the means of instruction (ibid). Such teaching is known as content-based instruction and it is used in some EFL countries that use English to teach mainly scientific subjects such as mathematics, natural sciences, etc. It is worth mentioning that this method is applied in the Algerian university, but through the medium of the French language.

Though English is, for the time being, not used in content-based instruction, it can be assumed that this method is partly practised in our EFL courses since the latter include some content-based subjects such as *Literature, Cultural Studies, Linguistics, and Social Sciences* where students study a variety of contents through the means of English. During each of these modules, while receiving the content students are obviously committed to make use of English for classroom discussion. Likewise, during tests, assignments and exams, students are required to answer in English. So, students have the opportunity to learn the content and the language while practising their speaking and writing skills. This method is also believed to sustain the first strand and to provide learners with meaning-focused input.

Concerning the third strand; Language-focused learning, Nation (2011) clearly states that an ideal language teaching course should involve the deliberate study of the different language features including grammar, pronunciation, discourse and vocabulary (ibid). In other words, Nation supports the intentional, direct and explicit teaching of EFL vocabulary. Undoubtedly, vocabulary is taught in our courses but not in a systematic way and not as a

separate module. While, there is a separate module for grammar, one for pronunciation (phonetics), one for discourse (oral and written expression), there is no such module for teaching vocabulary. Besides, there seems to be a preference among teachers to teach and stress technical words over general academic vocabulary as demonstrated in this study. This is more or less understandable due to the relevance of the former to the comprehension of the content of their subjects. Yet, tier two vocabulary is equally important, hence, the need for a separate module to teach general academic vocabulary and compensate for lack of attention to it.

With regard to the last strand; fluency development, as presented by the researcher, it simply refers to the practice, the revision and the recycling of what has been already studied so as to reach fluency, and therefore it is a step that naturally accompanies each of the previous strands. Apparently, what differentiates between the ideal vocabulary course as seen by Nation and our EFL course is the lack of 1) an extensive reading programme, 2) a separate vocabulary teaching module that focuses only on vocabulary and 3) sufficient practice.

4.7.2. Reply to Criticism Two

With respect to the second criticism referring to the large size of the English vocabulary as an argument against a separate vocabulary course, selection and adaptation is the logical reply to deal with this matter. If the English vocabulary is large, it is always possible to select what to teach and to teach it progressively; and this is actually the practice in each teaching subject. Taking as example the subject of *Cultural Studies*, it is not possible to deal with all the cultural issues in one academic year. The rich and lengthy programme of this module makes that it is spread over the three academic years of the Bachelor's level; still the objective is not to teach everything about the culture of the English speaking countries, but to try to cover the most useful and relevant issues for the cultural awareness and emancipation of the Algerian EFL student.

Likewise with the *Written Expression* module, students learn how to write in English starting with the clause and the simple sentence, moving to the paragraph with its different types and ending with the essay with its different types and formats; again this is achieved through a programme that is spread over the three academic years, and the same thing is applied for the remaining modules. The gradual teaching of these subjects in fact respects and is in conformity with the six elements of “*great teaching*” identified by Coe *et al.* (2014).

So, based on Coe *et al.* (2014), to ensure a “*quality instruction*” which is the second element of “*great teaching*”; teachers need among other things, to: “*progressively introduc[e] new learning*” (p. 2) in their lessons. This progressive inclusion of new learning may occur at the micro-level; meaning at the lecture/lesson level or at the macro-level, i.e.: at the syllabus /programme/curriculum level by distributing the programme over a number of academic years taking into account students’ age, academic level and learning needs.

Similarly, the main objective of a vocabulary module is not to teach all the English vocabulary, which is practically impossible even in an L1 context, but to try to cover the most useful vocabulary to our EFL students based on their immediate needs. So, as seen in this study, most teachers teach tier three vocabulary or the technical words of their module. Besides, high-frequency vocabulary or tier one is generally introduced in pre-university education, and students are more likely to meet and learn this type outside the educational setting (while playing games, chatting through social media, watching films and videos, etc). Accordingly, it would be common sense to devote the suggested module to teach general academic vocabulary (tier two) which is usually neglected by most teachers as also demonstrated in this study.

To this regard, Kelley *et al.* (2010) point out that: “*Although this academic vocabulary is different from conversational language and essential for academic success, surprisingly, it is infrequently taught in schools*” (p.6). The benefit of teaching this type of

vocabulary; as explained in chapter two is that it is common across different disciplines and different subjects. Students are likely to meet tier two in all teaching subjects, in lectures as well as in exams. Hence, helping EFL students to develop this type of vocabulary would probably boost their comprehension and performance in exams, especially students who pursue advanced studies. This is why researchers such as, Kelley *et al.*(2010)highlight the significance of teaching tier two vocabulary; claiming that:

Spending precious instructional time on the deep learning of general-purpose academic words (e.g., analyze, frequent, abstract), or “delivery words”—those that deliver the content to the reader ... is more valuable than targeting the low-frequency and relatively unimportant words (e.g., refuge, burrow).(p.6)

Convinced of the worth of teaching tier two vocabulary, many researchers have endeavoured to identify the core of this type of academic vocabulary and the result has been the development of different valuable lists that are summarized in the table below.

Table 4.5: Summary of the Most Used Academic Vocabulary Lists

List	year	Researcher	Content	Lexical coverage
UWL	1984	Nation and Xue	8036 word families	8,5%
AWL	2000	Coxhead	570 word families	10%
AVL	2013	Gardner and Davies	2000 word families	≈14%

The most renowned academic lists are Nation and Xue’s University Word List (UWL) (1984) and Coxhead’s Academic Word List (AWL) (2000); already discussed in chapter two, in addition to Gardner and Davies’ Academic Vocabulary List (AVL) developed in 2013. Though, some scholars deny the worth of these lists and even the existence of a core academic vocabulary (Hyland and Tse 2007), Gardner and Davies (2013) highlight the need of language learners as well as teachers to such lists stating that: “*Pedagogical word lists will*

continue to be important in academic settings” (p. 306). They further elucidate the reasons that make such lists important claiming that they are useful in:

- establishing vocabulary learning goals,
- assessing vocabulary knowledge and growth,
- analyzing text difficulty and richness,
- creating and modifying reading materials,
- designing vocabulary learning tools,
- determining the vocabulary components of academic curricula, and
- fulfilling many other crucial academic needs (p. 306)

So, one possible way to support our students is to create a vocabulary-based teaching subject that targets one of the above lists and to design a programme that can help our students expand their general academic vocabulary. But before dealing with the design of such programme, it is worth discussing the reasons behind the selection of the AWL as a basis for this programme.

4.8. Pros for an AWL-based Teaching Programme

Based on what has been mentioned so far, it would be common sense to build on existing academic lists such as the AWL to design an academic vocabulary programme. The AWL could be a good start for it is highly considered “*as one of the most reliable sources for the development, learning, and teaching of academic vocabulary, specifically at higher secondary and tertiary level*” (Pathan *et al.*, 2018, p. 286). Pathan and his colleagues examined the text coverage of Coxhead’s (2000) AWL in Pakistani doctoral theses of three major scientific disciplinary groups and found that the list provides a valuable coverage of 8.76% of the text in Pakistani doctoral thesis corpus which corroborates the findings mentioned in the above table and ensure the worth of this list.

Likewise, Roth (2017) argues that there is a true need for a systematic, focused vocabulary list, and this is why: “*the AWL quickly established itself within academic high schools around the world. Many intensive English programs also adopted the AWL for their*

college prep programs, aiding ambitious, college-bound international English students and creating a niche within the ESL/EFL world'. Nation and Wang (1999) recommend using the AWL to adapt material and enable students to read and comprehend academic text at their right level.

The value of the AWL is reflected in the diverse teaching material created with the intent to assist students learn this particular list. Examples about such material are the *Vocabulary Power* series written by Recio Lebedev and Dingle (2007) and published by Pearson Longman. The series covers 400 out of the 570 words of the AWL, and provides students with eight encounters with each word to help them memorize the words easily. The series comprises three books; *Vocabulary Power 1* meant for low-intermediate, *Vocabulary Power 2* for intermediate and *Vocabulary Power 3* for advanced learners.

The *Inside Reading* series written by Burgmeier and Zimmerman (2007) and published by Oxford University Press is another example which covers the total 570 words of the AWL. The series is written with the dual objective to equip learners to deal with academic texts and assist them learning the fundamental academic vocabulary represented in the AWL.

The list is therefore of significant value for students in EAP programmes preparing for university studies and for teachers and material designers as it provides them with the foundation for the development of teaching resources in the EAP context (Read, 2004). Yang (2014) considers that this list “*has revolutionised EAP learning*” (p. 29) because it is according to him “*the main representative list of academic vocabulary*” (ibid). So, teaching the AWL to the Algerian university students in a separate module fits well with existing practices and is by no means unconventional as some teachers may think.

The AWL consists of 570 w.f. subdivided into ten lists each containing 60 families except for sublist number 10 which has 30 word families. Assuming that a semester consists on average of ten weeks, so teaching the AWL over the three academic years, would result in

an amount of about 8-10 words per teaching session which is very reasonable and would give students and teachers room for sufficient practice. The amount may even be reduced because first not all the words in the list are unfamiliar to the students; for instance words as *adult*, *benefit*, *paragraph* and *environment* are more likely to be known by our students than words like *collapse*, *discrete*, *exhibit*, *invoke* and *paradigm*. Second, not all the words in the list need to be taught, even if these are the most frequent academic words, teachers' focus should be again on the most frequent and useful words in the list and hence the need for teachers to use their common sense when selecting the words to be taught.

Students therefore would have the opportunity not only to practise the AWL vocabulary, but also to learn the strategies that enable them to continue studying vocabulary on their own; inside and outside the classroom. So, designing a vocabulary teaching programme should be achieved in the light of what research has shown and needs to be steered by the principles discussed previously. The programme would then consist of two basic components:

- 1) practice on the AWL through a variety of vocabulary teaching exercises, and
- 2) practice on the VLS that are deemed appropriate to the nature of the learner, the task and the context involved in the process.

4.9. A Tentative Vocabulary Teaching Programme

Planning lessons and designing activities and exercises that aim at helping students to expand their academic vocabulary knowledge is not an easy task. It is a fact that our students have a deficit in their lexical competence and highly need (general) academic vocabulary to progress in their studies, but it is also commonly known that students generally find vocabulary lectures boring (Croll, 1971; Zheng, 2012; Narin & Mede, 2014). So, teachers may find themselves trapped between "*the necessity of teaching vocabulary and its "dull" reputation*" (Bafile, 1999). On the one hand, teachers should avoid the traditional method of

providing students with long word lists along with their definition for memorization, and on the other hand they have to find an appropriate recipe that makes students benefit from the AWL.

Obviously, the problem is not with word lists as discussed before, but with providing students with these lists to memorize as homework without much in-class practice (Nation, 1990). Another criticism made against this method is that words are presented in isolation with no context, and this de-contextualized learning is believed to promote short-term rather than long-term memory and in the end learners forget the words quickly (Nation, 1990; Oxford and Scarcella, 1994).

Nonetheless, some researchers consider learning from word lists an appropriate and a practical solution to learners who lack the necessary amount of vocabulary that can help them afterward learn words from meaningful context such as through extensive reading. For instance, Coady (1997) wonders: *“How can they learn enough words to learn vocabulary through extensive reading when they do not know enough words to read well?”* (p. 229). This is to say that first learners need to gain some basic vocabulary knowledge through some outdated or traditional methods like word lists, to be able to progress in their vocabulary learning by using innovative methods.

Actually, there is no best way to teach vocabulary and the only best way would be not to exclude any possible means that can lead to positive effects on our learners' vocabulary knowledge. What is important is to motivate students and keep them focused by involving them in their learning process and in the planning of the different lessons of their vocabulary programme (Lessard-Clouston, 2013). It is also suitable to incorporate some technology-based teaching material that matches the learning preferences of this young generation. So, the programme will be basically planned as follows:

- a) In the first step, students will be given an overview about the three tiers of vocabulary, the differences between them and the importance of studying each tier. Then, they will be introduced to the most important vocabulary lists with a special focus on the AWL to raise their awareness about the benefits they can gain from learning this specific list.
- b) The second step consists of identifying what students already know from the list to avoid wasting time on the known words. A simple way to do that can be through arranging students into groups and supplying them with the ten sub-lists of the AWL, then asking students to cross the familiar words from each list. The teacher then collects the lists and uses the result to decide on what words to teach.
- c) Starting from the third step onwards, students will begin studying the AWL ; a set of ten words per session; depending again on students' prior knowledge, potential, etc., through a variety of vocabulary exercises such as fill in the gaps, matching pairs, sentence completion and the different formats already mentioned in the previous section on Testing Vocabulary. Actually, students are already familiar with most of these formats as they used to practise them during middle and secondary education which would make the task easier for both the students and the teacher. Other formats can include vocabulary games that add fun to learning such as mixed letters, crossword puzzles, word search, etc.

As for the content of these exercises, teachers have different options; three important options may be 1) to use a small corpus compiled from the content of the different teaching subjects, i.e. a lecture-based corpus 2) to use the wider pre-existing corpora, and 3) to combine both corpora. The planning of the lessons and the evolution of the programme will definitely depend on the feedback that the teachers get from each step.

4.9.1. Using a Small/ Lecture-Based Corpus

Using the content of the different teaching subjects as a corpus and a source to design lessons/exercises for teaching the AWL would certainly provide students with handy and useful examples about the studied words. More importantly, it would boost their awareness making them realize how important the list and tier two vocabulary are, as students can concretely see that this type of vocabulary is in fact common across the different subjects and as mentioned previously it is the main vocabulary used by all teachers to deliver the content of their subjects to their students (Kelley *et al.*, 2010, p.6). Therefore, learning tier two vocabulary; particularly the AWL that contains the most frequent words of this tier/type, would be definitely beneficial for them. The following table lists samples obtained from some modules taught to first year students.

Table 4.6: AWL Example Sentences Derived from the EFL Course Modules

Teaching subject	Lecture	Example sentence	AWL vocab. Item
Culture and Civilisation of the English Speaking Countries	1. Introduction to culture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ A society is a large social group sharing the same geographical area, the same culture and typically subject to the same political authority. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • area • authority
	2. Identification of the United Kingdom	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ The UK consists of four countries: England, Scotland, Wales, and Northern Ireland. The largest is England, with an area of 130,373 square kilometers. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consist(ent) • Area
Initiation to Linguistics	1. Characteristics of Human Language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Names consist of a limited number of sounds combined in such a way that they refer to one and only one object, concept, quality, etc. within a particular speech community. ▪ The process by which a language is passed on from one generation to the next is called cultural transmission. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • consist • concept • process
	2. Branches and Areas of Linguistics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ According to the micro linguistic view, languages should be analyzed for their own sake and without reference to their social function. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • analyze • function
Literature		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Genre is the term used to describe the various types of literature; it is a French term derived from the Latin genus, generis meaning type, sort or kind. ▪ The historical novel is a form of fictional narrative which constructs history and 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • derive • (re)create • issues • involve

	1. Literary Genre	<p>recreates it imaginatively.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Social novel deals with social, religious or even political issues, having a didactic purpose. ▪ Plot often involves conflict between two or more characters or between a character and himself or between a character and external opposing forces. 	
	2. Stylistic Devices	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Allusion: is an indirect reference to people or things outside the text in which it occurs, without mentioning them explicitly 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Occur

The bolded vocabulary items illustrated by these example sentences belong to sub-list one of the AWL which is listed below:

Analysis approach **area** Assessment assume **authority** available benefit **conceptconsistent** constitutional context contract **create** data definition **derived** distribution economic environment established estimate evidence export factors financial formula **function** identified income indicate individual interpretation involved **issues** labour legal legislation major method **occur** percent period policy principle procedure **process** required research response role section sector significant similar source specific structure theory vary.
(Coxhead, 2000)

By using example sentences from different modules to illustrate the same words, teachers do provide their students with rich and varied language experiences. And to help them develop word consciousness, teachers can ask students in turn to provide similar example sentences from their lectures which would urge them for concentration while in search for the target words. Besides, this method would allow for collaboration between the teacher in charge of this module and the other teachers to facilitate the building of the corpus. The same way, we have referred to the exam-based corpus in chapter one; research methodology, as a means to identify students' difficulties with (academic) vocabulary, a similar corpus can be compiled based on the different subjects of the English course, for each level, or one corpus for the three levels.

Such corpus can be built from lessons already developed by teachers; mainly Phd holders, who have been through the process of university habilitation. During this process, teachers are required to submit a portfolio, including among others, a set of lessons/lectures

(programme) that they have taught for at least three years. The lessons are scrutinized and approved by an academic committee which would therefore guarantee the quality of their contents and insure for these teachers the authorship and ownership of the selected lessons. The corpus can be used for different purposes as it could benefit novice teachers and guide them during their early teaching years.

4.9.2. Using Large Pre-Existing Corpora

As mentioned in Chapter one and two, there exist a wide range of corpora including, but not limited to, the British National Corpus (BNC), the American National Corpus (ANC), Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCOA) and the International Corpus of English (ICE). The common characteristic of these corpora is that they are more or less comprehensive and include texts of all genres, yet there are other corpora that are specialized in one specific field or genre. Examples of these corpora are the Cambridge Academic English Corpus (CAEC)²² and the British Academic Written English (BAWE)²³ which are, as their names may indicate, restricted to academic English. CAEC is a collection of texts sampled from the written and spoken academic language used at both the undergraduate and post-graduate levels, gathered from a range of American and British institutions. Accordingly the included texts are lectures, seminars, journals, textbooks as well as students' essays and presentations. The BAWE however is smaller and more specific as it includes only written texts sampled from students' assignments.

Using these corpora, particularly the academic ones, provides teachers not only with authentic input, but also with countless example sentences to create tasks and exercises for their lessons. The corpora are available via the Sketch Engine²⁴ corpus query tool which is:

an online text analysis tool that works with large samples of language [...] to identify what is typical and frequent in a language and what is rare, outdated, going out of use or what new

²² Accessible at : <https://www.sketchengine.eu/cambridge-academic-english-corpus/>

²³ Accessible at : <http://www.helsinki.fi/varieng/CoRD/corpora/BAWE/>

²⁴ Accessible at: <https://www.sketchengine.eu/what-can-sketch-engine-do/>

words or grammar are beginning to be used. In a nutshell, Sketch Engine is a tool to learn how language works” (SKECTH ENGINE, n.d.)

The tool contains 500 corpora and supports as many as 90 languages, but is not free for use and requires registration. Fortunately, the user can register for a free trial of 30 days; which does not necessitate any credit card or payment information, and even more it gives the user access to the complete functionality of the tool as well as access to 100 corpora in more than 75 languages. Besides, Sketch Engine has an open version which contains only three corpora, but luckily all in the English language. (ibid)

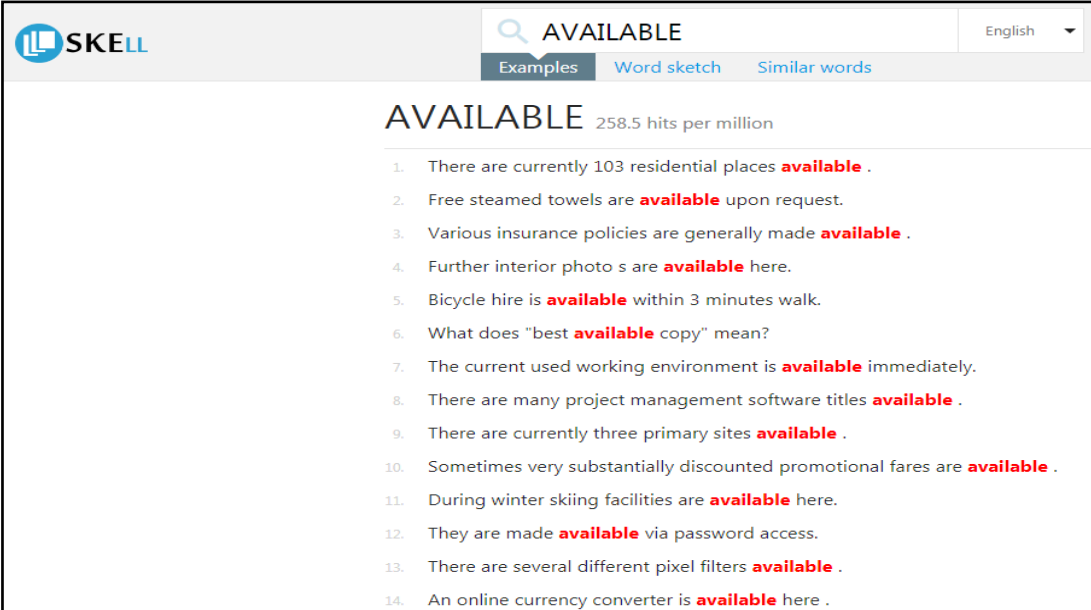
More importantly, Sketch Engine has a simplified version for language learners, hence its name SKELL²⁵ (Sketch Engine for language learning). What is interesting about this tool is that it is specifically meant for teachers and students of English to help them check how this language is used by its native speakers and it is free and necessitates no registration. It is an easy functioning tool where users need only to type their words and click a button (ibid). SKELL actually offers its users the possibility to look for 1) words in examples through a tool called *concordance*, 2) collocations and word combinations through a tool called *wordsketch* and 3) for similar words through the *thesaurus* tool. However, while SKELL offers only three services/tools, Sketch Engine provides its users with a deeper descriptive analysis on how languages are actually used through ten (10) important services/tools that are enumerated in the following table.

²⁵<https://www.sketchengine.eu/skell/>

Table 4.7: Services and Tools of Sketch Engine and SKELL (Adopted from Sketch Engine, n.d.)

Tool/Service	Function
1. <i>Word Sketch</i>	<i>Collocations and word combinations: The Word Sketch gathers information from thousands and millions of examples of use and provides a one-page summary of categorised collocations with links to examples. One look at the page will tell how the word is used.</i>
2. <i>Word Sketch Difference</i>	<i>Compare collocations of two different words: Word Sketch Difference is an extension of the word sketch. It generates Word Sketches for two words and compares them making it a breeze to observe differences in use. The feature is especially useful for close synonyms, antonyms and words from the same semantic field.</i>
3. <i>Thesaurus</i>	<i>Synonyms and similar words: Unlike classic hand-made thesauruses with limited coverage, the thesaurus in Sketch Engine is automatically generated by ingenious algorithms analysing multi-billion text corpora which means a thesaurus can be generated for almost any word in the language (provided the corpus is large enough).</i>
4. <i>Concordance</i>	<i>Examples of use in context: The concordance is used to find examples of a word, lemma, phrase, tag or even a complex grammatical or lexical structure.</i>
5. <i>Parallel Concordance</i>	<i>Translation search: Sketch Engine can use bilingual and multilingual texts, called parallel corpora, to look up a word or phrase and see example translations in context. This is called a parallel search and the result is a parallel concordance. Sketch Engine contains ready-made parallel corpora in many languages. You can also upload your own texts and build your own parallel corpus.</i>
6. <i>Wordlist</i>	<i>Frequency list: The wordlist tool is used to generate frequency lists of all kinds: lists of words, lemmas, nouns, verbs, tags, words containing or not containing certain characters etc</i>
7. <i>N-grams</i>	<i>Multiword expressions (MWEs): The n-gram tool produces frequency lists of sequences of tokens. N-grams are also called multi-word expressions or MWEs. The user has a choice of filtering options including regular expressions to specify in detail which n-grams should have their frequency generated. N-grams can be generated on any attribute with word and lemma being the most frequently used ones</i>
8. <i>Keywords</i>	<i>Terminology extraction: Keywords and terms are word and phrases typical for your corpus because they appear in your corpus more frequently than they would in general language. They can be used to define or understand the main topic of the corpus. Sketch Engine combines statistics with linguistic criteria to extract keywords and terms.</i>
9. <i>Trends</i>	<i>Diachronic analysis, neologisms: Trends is a feature for detecting words which undergo changes in the frequency of use in time (diachronic analysis). Trends identify words whose use increases or decreases in time. Lexicologists can use trends to identify new words (neologisms) and historians can use trends to identify the point time when a word started to be used, stopped being used or when it saw an unusually increased or decreased use.</i>
10. <i>One-Click Dictionary</i>	<i>Automatic dictionary drafting(experimental feature)</i>

These tools are all important and can benefit different types of users including linguists, lexicographers, translators, historians, publishers as well as language teachers and students. Undoubtedly, the tools can provide our EFL teachers with insights into the English language as well as their teaching practices and can be very inspiring particularly when designing teaching material based on authentic language. Yet, the most significant tools for the current study are the three tools common between Sketch Engine and SKELL which are concordance, word sketch and thesaurus. By using only SKELL, EFL teachers will be able to generate countless of example sentences on the AWL with the appropriate collocations and their similar words. The following figure shows an example concordance search with the word *available* using SKELL.



The screenshot shows the SKELL interface for a concordance search of the word "AVAILABLE". The search bar at the top contains the word "AVAILABLE" and a language dropdown set to "English". Below the search bar are three tabs: "Examples" (selected), "Word sketch", and "Similar words". The main content area displays the word "AVAILABLE" followed by "258.5 hits per million". Below this is a numbered list of 14 example sentences, with the word "available" highlighted in red in each sentence.

Number	Example Sentence
1.	There are currently 103 residential places available .
2.	Free steamed towels are available upon request.
3.	Various insurance policies are generally made available .
4.	Further interior photo s are available here.
5.	Bicycle hire is available within 3 minutes walk.
6.	What does "best available copy" mean?
7.	The current used working environment is available immediately.
8.	There are many project management software titles available .
9.	There are currently three primary sites available .
10.	Sometimes very substantially discounted promotional fares are available .
11.	During winter skiing facilities are available here.
12.	They are made available via password access.
13.	There are several different pixel filters available .
14.	An online currency converter is available here .

Figure 4.1: Concordance Search with the Word *available* using SKELL.

The word *available* is the seventh in sub-list one of the AWL and the above figure captures a small sample from the concordance searches; so it displays only a limited number of example sentences. The aforementioned tools will certainly facilitate the task of the teachers and make them gain valuable time; besides combining both options/sources to design

lessons; using the small and the large corpora, would be beneficial for students and teachers alike.

4.10. A Suggested Lesson Plan

Based on Nation (2005) and Schmitt (2010), to affirm that we know a word, we need to be familiar with a number of aspects characterizing that word. Word knowledge consists of understanding not only its basic aspects that are meaning, spelling and pronunciation, but includes also its collocations, associations, formality, connotation, frequency as well as its grammar. When language learners reach this level of word knowledge, it entails that they have succeeded to completely assimilate that word. They can recognize the vocabulary item when hearing and reading it and can also use it appropriately in speech and writing. This deep knowledge about the different aspects of a particular word is referred to as vocabulary depth as opposed to vocabulary breadth which refers to the size/amount of vocabulary known by an individual.

Therefore, it would be sound and beneficial to start the third step of the programme by an activity on the different aspects of the targeted words. Involving students into a discussion on words' aspects would give them a clear understanding of these words and help them to enhance their vocabulary depth. The outcome of the discussion can be finalized by a table that summarizes the different aspects of each vocabulary item. Table 4.8 illustrates this idea using some of the bolded words in sub-list one as example.

Table 4.8: Sample Word Aspects of AWL Sub-list One

Word	Pronunciation	Meaning	Word family	Collocation from the ACL
area	[eriə]	<p>area noun (PLACE) [C] a particular part of a place, piece of land, or country:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>All areas of the country will have some rain tonight.</i> • <i>The area of New York to the south of Houston Street is known as Soho.</i> • <i>Houses in the London area (= in and around London) are very expensive.</i> • <i>He's an area manager (= is responsible for business in a particular area) for a computer company.</i> • <i>This is a very poor area.</i> • <i>Dogs are not allowed in the children's play area.</i> <p>area noun (SUBJECT) [C] a <u>subject</u> or <u>activity</u>, or a <u>part</u> of it:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Marketing is Paul's area.</i> • <i>Software is not really my area of <u>expertise</u>.</i> <p>area noun (MEASURE) [C or U] the size of a flat surface calculated by multiplying its length by its width:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>the area of a rectangle</i> • <i>Meadow Farm is 50 square kilometres in area.</i> <p>area noun (FOOTBALL) [C_usually singular] → <u>penalty area</u></p>	<p>n: area, areas</p>	<p>adj+n: complex area, core area, geographic(al) area, key area, local area, main area, major area, metropolitan area, particular area, related area, rural area, specific area, subject area, urban area, vast area, whole area, wide area.</p> <p>v+n: cover (an) area, identify (an) area.</p>
consistent	[kənsɪst]	<p><i>verb</i> 1. be composed of. E.g.: What does this dish consist of? [Syn: <i>comprise</i>]</p>	<p>n: consistency v: consist verb forms: <i>consisted, consisting, consists</i> adj: <i>consistent</i> ad: consistently</p>	<p>adj+n: consistent pattern, consistent results.</p>

			opposite <i>inconsisten</i> <i>cy</i> <i>inconsistent</i>	
create
derive
issue
proce ss

As shown in the above table, the first aspects of the word students are presented with are its written form (spelling) and its spoken form (pronunciation). It is worth mentioning that the objective is by no means to deliver a lecture in phonetics. It is rather to benefit from the knowledge students get from the module of phonetics and provide them with the phonetic transcription of the targeted words because as Wells (2002) puts it: *“there may be sporadic mismatches between the sound and the spelling of words”* and *“Without this information, a learner risks being misled either by an inadequately trained ear or by the dazzling effect of the ordinary spelling”* (ibid). So, the discrimination between the two forms is likely to be beneficial for our students

Then, through the third column, students are provided with the main meaning or the broad meaning of the word and some of its nuances. This would help in raising their awareness first about the polysemy of these words and second about the importance of the context in identifying the meaning of a vocabulary item. The word ‘area’ in the above table illustrates this idea; it can mean a place, a subject or a size of a flat surface depending on the context where it is employed.

As academic vocabulary is generally characterized by abstractness, teachers may face difficulties to explain the meaning of these words only through their definitions. So, it is important to provide students with examples that illustrate the words’ meaning. Furthermore, as stated in the review chapter, it is recommended for teachers to support their explanation by providing non-examples that deepen their students’ understanding of the targeted words. For

instance, to explain the word ‘abstract’, the teacher can mention some examples of abstract words (life, beauty, freedom, etc.) and other non-examples of abstract words (table, board, window, etc.).

Obviously, this example and non-example strategy does not work with all the words. When the target word is, for instance, a verb, the teacher can opt for another strategy. As indicated in the review chapter, there is a tendency in Academic written English to make use of Latinate single verbs, while in speech phrasal verbs are more frequent and students are to some extent more familiar with them than with the former. Thus, teachers can simply combine the Latinate verbs with their equivalent phrasal verbs. This would elucidate the meaning of the target verbs, provides students with synonyms and thus equip them with varied vocabulary, and contribute to raising their awareness about the distinction between the two styles. In other words, students would gain some knowledge of the difference between formal and informal English. Examples of these combinations are included in the table below.

Table 4.9: A Sample of Single Latinate Verbs with their Equivalent Phrasal Verbs

Academic English Verbs (Single Latinate Verbs)	Conversational English Verbs (Phrasal Verbs)
Attain	Come up to
Conceive	Think of
Distribute	Give out
Display	Set out
Consult	Refer to
Investigate	Look into
seek	Look for

The fourth column of table 4.8 provides students with the different forms of the word, known as word family. Nordquist (2019) defines a word family as: “*a group of words with a common base to which different prefixes and suffixes are added*”. An example of a word

family²⁶ is: consist, consisted, consisting, consists, consistent, consistently, consistency, inconsistency, inconsistent(see table above). The base is also called root, stem as well as headword. Bauer and Nation (1993) explain the importance of teaching word families to language learners claiming that: *“The important principle behind the idea of a word family is that once the base word or even a derived word is known, the recognition of other members of the family requires little or no extra effort”* (p. 253). What is also interesting about word family, is that on the one hand students would learn to create new words through the use of inflections and derivations of words as well as prefixes and suffixes used in word formation and on the other hand to make use of the roots and affixes to identify the meaning of unknown words.

The last aspect to be discussed in this opening activity is word collocations which are derived from the Academic Collocations List (ACL). Because collocations are often characterized by their *“grammatical or lexical unpredictability or inflexibility”* (Nation, 2001, p. 324) they are challenging to non-native speakers of English. Ackermann and Chen (2013) argue that collocational competence is fundamental for achieving advanced language proficiency. Driven by this belief, Ackermann and Chen developed the ACL in 2013 by using the Pearson International Corpus of Academic English (PICA-E). The importance of the list stems from the fact that first it consists of 2,469 of the most frequent collocations that occur in written academic English, second it contains collocations rather than single words, and third it is considered as a collocational companion to the Academic Word List (AWL) (Smith, 2019) which is the focus of the current study.

The first set of words should be done by the teacher with the active participation of the students. To make them participate, the teacher can allow/invite them to use their phones and search the needed information. Then, students will have to prepare for the next sessions by

²⁶<http://www.macmillandictionaries.com/MED-Magazine/December2003/14-cd-rom-word-families.htm>
<https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/word-family-framework>

drawing similar tables for each new set of words as a regular assignment/homework. To remedy the problem of the large size of the class and to give opportunity to every student to take part in the lesson, students can work in pairs/groups and in each session a pair/group may be assigned the task of presenting a set of words following the example achieved in class. Furthermore, the task can be assigned to two different pairs/groups that can compete when presenting their findings.

By doing that, students are no more passive receivers; they will have to use their (e)dictionaries and/or search the web to find out the meaning, the formality, the collocations, etc., of the assigned words. They can even benefit from the collaborative learning that may result from pair/group work. For instance, the interaction/negotiation that takes place among the group members over the target words can boost their memory and help them learn these words.

Once students understand the different aspects of the selected words, teachers can move on to providing them with practice to achieve the double objective of checking their understanding of each aspect and helping them to memorize what has been learnt. The following exercise for instance checks students' understanding of some of the AWL words meaning.

Exercise A: Complete the sentences on the right with the words on the left.

- | | |
|--|--------------|
| 1. A society is a large social group sharing the same geographical and the same culture. | a. recreates |
| 2. The UK of four countries: England, Scotland, Wales, and Northern Ireland. | b. area |
| 3. Genre is a French termfrom the Latin genus, generis meaning type, sort or kind. | c. process |
| 4. Social novel deals with social, religious or even political, having a didactic purpose. | d. consists |
| 5. Cultural transmission is theby which a language is passed on from one generation to the next. | e. Derived |
| 6. The historical novel is a form of fictional narrative which constructs history andit imaginatively. | f. Issues |

The sentences in this exercise have been taken from different teaching subjects of first year programme (see table 4.7.). To match the items and complete the sentences, students have obviously to retrieve what they have understood in the previous activity and reactivate their memory. Teachers can also check students' understanding of the academic verbs' meaning through their equivalent phrasal verbs as illustrated in the exercise bellow.

Exercise B: Match the items on the right with the items on the left.

A	B
Attain	Come up to
Conceive	Give out
Distribute	Look for
Display	Look into
Consult	Refer to
Investigate	Set out
seek	Think of

The teacher may provide the students with the two items, but in a scrambled order, and ask them to match the correct item as done in the above exercise, or can provide only the items of one column and ask students to provide their equivalents in the other column. Dealing with the same words, the teacher may then move on checking students' understanding of words' forms (word family) using exercises such as the following example.

Exercise C: find the odd one out in each word family then complete the list.

- approach, approach, approachable, **approacher**, approaching, unapproachable,
- consistency, consist, consistent, inconsistence, **unconsistent**,
- Creatingly**, creator, created, creates, creating, creatively, recreate,
- Derivation, derivative, derive, derivative, derived, **driving**,
- Process, **processable**, process, processed, processed, processes,??

Such practice helps students to distinguish between the different forms of the studied word and their understanding of the headword in each family, as mentioned previously, is

likely to support their understanding of the remaining members of the family. After that, students need to practise word collocations to see how native speakers combine specific words to form phrases with sometimes meanings that differ from the meaning of the individual words. A simple exercise may be to provide students with two different lists of words and ask them to find the correct pairs/collocations as in the following example.

Exercise D: Match words from list A with list B to form correct collocations.

A	B
academic	principle
learning	area
underlying	policy
major	method
foreign	research
qualitative	role
rural	process

It is important to vary the format of vocabulary exercises and include formats that review and activate students' vocabulary knowledge receptively and productively. Exercises A, B and D, for instance, help students to practise only their receptive vocabulary, i.e. to recognize the words when they see them and match the correct parts. Exercise C, however, requires from students to find/recognize the odd word (receptive knowledge) and then complete the list by adding/producing the appropriate missing words (productive knowledge). Other formats that activate the receptive knowledge include close tests and sentences completion like in exercise A, but without supplying students with the missing words.

To consolidate and review what has been studied, teachers can use vocabulary games after each set of words to serve the previous objective; practising receptive knowledge and to make the learning enjoyable and interesting. Danesi (1979) explains that vocabulary games like crossword puzzles: *“may also serve as a needed change of pace to the daily routine of*

teaching techniques and can perhaps serve to increase students' motivation as a result" (p.7). Through vocabulary games the teaching/learning objective is kept while the pace and motivation change, especially when the game is combined to group work as a concluding activity. Hence, students continue to practise and review their vocabulary in groups while challenging each other to find the correct answers. More importantly, each exercise and each practice; provided in class or outside, constitute a new encounter with the word and thus augment the amount of exposure to that word and the possibility to fix it into students' long-term memory.

4.10.1. Using Technology to Design Vocabulary Exercises

Obviously, the suggested list of exercises is by no means exhaustive. The objective behind these suggestions is simply to clarify our ideas through this sample of exercises. There is no doubt that teachers have the necessary qualifications to design appropriate activities that fit their teaching objectives. Besides, teachers have currently the possibility to take advantage of the available technology and consult the rich and huge body of knowledge to design their teaching material. Moreover, different books²⁷ and websites²⁸ provide vocabulary teaching material that is based specifically on the AWL.

Besides, some of these websites²⁹ help users to create their own exercises through some useful tools such as *word list highlighter*, *gapfill maker* and *crossword puzzle maker*. The highlighter assists teachers to identify the words from the AWL in any text; they have only to enter their passages in a box and click the submit bottom. The texts appear with the words of the AWL highlighted in different colours depending on the list they belong to and the user can even decide about the colours. Furthermore, the highlighted words appear under the passage sorted by list such as the sample below.

²⁷Vocabulary Power Series, *Inside Reading, Unlock the AWL. Inside Reading 4: The Academic Word List in Context*

²⁸UEFAP.com, *ENGLISH Vocabulary Exercises, Academic Vocabulary*

²⁹AEPFoundation.com, *Crossword Puzzle Games, Crossword Labs.*

This branch has the power to enact **legislation**, **confirm** or **rejects** Presidential appointments, and has the **authority** to declare war. It **consists** of the Congress. This latter is bicameral, i.e.: it **consists** of two branches: The House of Representatives and the Senate. □ The House of Representatives is considered the "House of the People." It is **comprised** of 435 representatives, apportioned among the states according to population (California gets 53 Representatives, Wyoming gets 1). Five U.S. territories and possessions also have nonvoting representation in the House: the District of Columbia, American Samoa, Guam, Puerto Rico, and the U.S. Virgin Islands. All Representatives serve two-year terms with no limit on the number of terms they may serve, and all are elected at the same time. Each Representative is elected from a **defined** geographic **area** within a state called a Congressional District. □ The Senate is considered the "Upper Chamber". It is **comprised** of 100 Senators (Each state gets 2 Senators, regardless of population). Senators serve six-year terms, with no limit on the number of terms they may serve. For election purposes, senators are divided into three classes; one class stands for election every two years. This **ensures** that there are always experienced **legislators** serving in Congress. The Vice President of the United States serves as the President of the Senate. The Congress is the only **institution** that has the power to **legislate**, i.e. to make laws. Laws are first introduced as bills by the representatives, through a complicated predefined **procedure**. To become a law, the bill has to be accepted by a **majority** of the House and a **majority** of the Senate and be signed by the President. However, the President can refuse to sign a law, which is called a 'veto', which means the law does not pass.

Wordlists

Sorted by sublist

Sublist 1 area authority consists defined legislate legislation legislators majority
procedure
Sublist 2 institution
Sublist 3 ensures
Sublist 4 none
Sublist 5 rejects
Sublist 6 none
Sublist 7 comprised confirm
Sublist 8 none
Sublist 9 none
Sublist 10 none

Figure 4.2: Highlighted Sample Text using the AWL Highlighter of AWLFoundation.com

As mentioned previously, to design exercises in the vocabulary programme, the teacher can use the content of any teaching subject as source. The passage used in the above sample is an extract from the lecture of *American government system* in the module of *Culture and Civilisation*. Then the same passage can be used to create close test or a gap filling exercise. By clicking gapfill maker on the same website, the passage appears with blanks after the tool eliminates the highlighted words as illustrated below.

Click here for a
simple gapfill

Click here for a
head word gapfill

Click here for a
word family gapfill

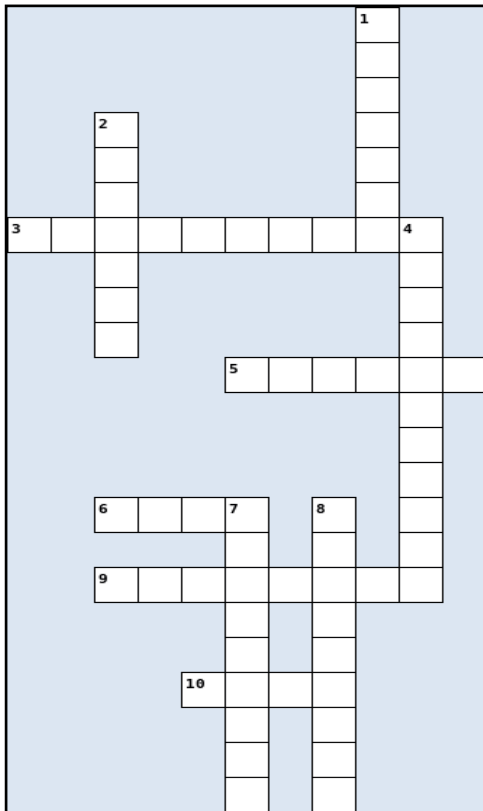
This branch has the power to enact _____, _____ or _____ Presidential appointments, and has the _____ to declare war. It _____ of the Congress. This latter is bicameral, i.e.: it _____ of two branches: The House of Representatives and the Senate. □ The House of Representatives is considered the "House of the People." It is _____ of 435 representatives, apportioned among the states according to population (California gets 53 Representatives, Wyoming gets 1). Five U.S. territories and possessions also have nonvoting representation in the House: the District of Columbia, American Samoa, Guam, Puerto Rico, and the U.S. Virgin Islands. All Representatives serve two-year terms with no limit on the number of terms they may serve, and all are elected at the same time. Each Representative is elected from a _____ geographic _____ within a state called a Congressional District. □ The Senate is considered the "Upper Chamber". It is _____ of 100 Senators (Each state gets 2 Senators, regardless of population). Senators serve six-year terms, with no limit on the number of terms they may serve. For election purposes, senators are divided into three classes; one class stands for election every two years. This _____ that there are always experienced _____ serving in Congress. The Vice President of the United States serves as the President of the Senate. The Congress is the only _____ that has the power to _____, i.e. to make laws. Laws are first introduced as bills by the representatives, through a complicated predefined _____. To become a law, the bill has to be accepted by a _____ of the House and a _____ of the Senate and be signed by the President. However, the President can refuse to sign a law, which is called a 'veto', which means the law does not pass.

Figure 4.3: Gapfill Exercise using the Gapfill Maker of AWLFoundation.com

As can be seen in the figure above, the tool offer three options of gap making that can back up and vary the practice of the studied words. The first option, *simple gapfill*, creates the gaps and the text appears without the words as in figure 4.3. The second option, *head word gapfill*, replaces each of the academic words by the head word (or by another word form if the replaced word is itself a headword). The last option, *word family gapfill*, replaces the academic words by another word from the same word family. So, in the first option the words do not appear at all, whilst in the second and third options, the words appear, but not in the right form. Learners thus practice their productive vocabulary through the first option by trying to find the missing words and by trying to figure out the form that fits the context; they will practise one aspect of word knowledge which is word family through options 2 and 3.

The third useful tool in this website is the crossword puzzle maker which can also facilitate the task of the teacher. The following AWL crossword puzzle has been created with the help of the *Crossword Labs*³⁰

³⁰ Available at: <https://crosswordlabs.com/>

Exercise E: AWL Crossword Puzzle**Across**

3. another word for 'form or compose'
5. opposite of import
6. a collection of facts from which conclusions may be drawn
9. to make smaller
10. a particular geographical region of indefinite boundary

Down

1. The set of facts or circumstances that surround a situation or event.
2. the system of production and distribution and consumption
4. the area in which something exists or lives
7. the power or right to give orders or make decisions
8. obtainable or accessible and ready for use or service

These websites not only help building crossword puzzles, but also provide ready-made puzzles of different sizes and on any subject. The websites are supplied with software that is easy to manipulate. Basically, the user/teacher has only to enter the words and their clues or hints, and then click the submit button. The software then generates the puzzle which consists of a grid. The latter is an arranged number of squares formed in a vertical and horizontal pattern, followed by the clues grouped into two lists; across and down (see exercise D). The words or the answers obviously do not appear in the puzzle.

What is interesting about the crossword puzzle is that the clues can be in the form of a definition of the target word, a synonym, an opposite, a fill-in-the-blank clue, a bilingual clue or even a picture clue (Wolfe, 1972 in Sandiuc & Balagiu, 2020). The teacher can also provide incomplete collocations or phonetic transcriptions, and students have to find the corresponding words. So, different exercise formats and different word aspects can be

practised through this single game/activity. These vocabulary games can be considered as pauses between each set of words or teaching unit.

The formerly stated websites are useful for both teachers and students. So, teachers can also direct and advise their student to continue practising their vocabulary through these and other similar sites that offer vocabulary exercises and tests. Still, technology should be considered as an additional technique; in context when it is available for the majority of teachers and students.

But, this vocabulary teaching programme would be incomplete without the integration of vocabulary learning strategies that can maximise the learning process and take it a step further, to continue beyond the classroom boundaries. Since, vocabulary learning strategies are “*the actions that learners take to help themselves understand and remember vocabulary items*” (Cameron, 2001, p.92), and since they are generally used by successful learners, it is reasonable to teach these strategies so as to benefit all learners and contribute to their autonomy.

4.10.2. Teaching Vocabulary Learning Strategies (VLS)

Though, the VLS are used by learners inside and outside the classroom, teachers have a role to play in “*teaching learners how to learn*” (Brown, 1994, p.124). Actually, teaching students to use the VLS is part of teaching them the language skills. And this should begin at the pre-university education; right from primary school when students first embark on formal education and start dealing with their L1 (Walter, 2006). These strategies evolve and develop as learners advance in their studies, and if not all, some of them are transferred when new subjects and languages are introduced (Barton, 1994, Cook, 2000; Korun, 2011; Altmisdort, 2016).

Provided that this happens, by the time EFL learners reach the university, they should be equipped with different language/vocabulary learning strategies (LLs/VLSs) that

help them build their vocabulary knowledge and enhance their language proficiency. Furthermore, the use of LLs should be a reflection of their self-directed learning, aka autonomous learning. In this respect, Hawkins (2018) claims that “*the use of LLS moves ownership of language learning to the learner and is commonly linked to learner autonomy*”. Alas, countless studies; both published and unpublished, confirm the lack of autonomy among Algerian EFL students at the different levels of education. Examples about unpublished studies include, but are not limited to:

- Magister dissertation of Kadi (2018) with The Case of 4th **Year Pupils** in Guettaf Mansour Middle School, El-Bayadh.
- Master dissertation of Rahmani (2016) with The Case of **Second Year** English Language Learners in Secondary schools of MAATKAS, Tizi Ouzou.
- Master dissertation of Souilem (2018) with A Case Study of **Third Year Licence** Students of English at Adrar University.

Likewise, examples about published documents include:

- Article of Hadi (2017) with a case study of **First Year Pupils** in Secondary Education, Ain Temouchent.
- Article of Tebib (2017) with a case study of **third year EFL students** at third-year students Mentouri Brothers University
- Article of Idri (2012) on LMD reforms and autonomy in **higher education**.

Along the same line, our study revealed that teachers share a negative attitude towards UG students’ overall autonomy. So, as Idri (2012) puts it “*Autonomy in our learners is still unachieved although the reform highlights it*” (p. 2174). This lack of autonomy is usually accompanied by a lack in the use of LLs/VLSs and this is where the teacher has to intervene. So, what strategies can be part of this vocabulary teaching programme and how can teachers assist UG students to adopt and implement these strategies?

4.10.2.1. What strategies to use?

Examples of strategies that are employed by successful learners and that can be part of a vocabulary teaching programme are numerous and the most common VLS include dictionary use, guessing from context and note taking . The first and second strategies are considered determination strategies that belong to the discovery strategies category in Schmitt's taxonomy (Schmitt, 1997). Both strategies are employed to discover the meaning of unknown words.

Learners may use a monolingual dictionary that “*generally provides more in-depth explanations*” (Huang *et al* 2013, p. 2) or a bilingual dictionary that “*supplies meaning in an accessible fashion*” (ibid). Along the same line, Marckwardt advocates the usefulness of this strategy claiming that: “*dictionaries often supply information about the language not found elsewhere*” (1973: 369). However, this strategy is criticized as it is time consuming and it slows down and interrupts the reading process.

As for the second strategy; guessing from context, it is widely supported by language researchers. It is even regarded as a distinguishing trait of successful learners (Rubin, 1975). For instance, Williams reports that “*a willingness to guess is characteristic of good learners and readers*” (1994: 3768). This strategy fits better intermediate to advanced ESL/EFL learners than beginning learners (Gu, 2003). It is particularly important “*in the absence of dictionaries or human assistance*” (Çetinavcı, 2014) and it is expected to lead to reading comprehension (Kerr, 2019). Yet, EFL learners do not always succeed to infer the right meaning of words from context (Folse, 2004: 3).

Subsequently a combination of the two strategies is the most useful for language learners (Gu, 2003). Likewise, Songhao (1997) points out that: “*guessing word meaning and using a dictionary are not mutually exclusive*”(p. 96). He even stresses the fact that language learners can take huge advantage from this “*guessing-and checking strategy*” (ibid) because a

wrong guessing of a word may be compensated by using a dictionary to check its exact meaning.

Besides, learners can benefit from the advantages of e-dictionaries which make the search for words' meanings easier and faster compared to printed dictionaries. E-dictionary like other technology-based devices can easily integrate the university teaching environment due to learners' age, educational level and expected maturity. These technological devices are believed to "*facilitate the attainment of learning goals for individuals with wide differences in their abilities to see, hear, move, read, write, understand English, sustain attention, organize, engage and remember*" (Brand *et al*, 2012, p. 134). Thus, vocabulary instruction can benefit from the advantages of the digital technologies that have become an integral part of the new generation's everyday life.

Once students discover the meaning of the new words, they need to keep records of these words for revision and memorization. Common strategies that serve this goal include but are not limited to keeping word lists, flash cards and notebooks described by Schmitt (1997) as cognitive strategies in the consolidation division of his taxonomy. In the same vein, Gu (2003) states:

After getting information about a new word, learners may take notes, in the form of vocabulary notebooks, vocabulary cards, or simply notes along the margins or between the lines. However, learners differ in what they do in note-taking, when they take notes and how they take notes. (p. 9)

The merit of note taking in the context of vocabulary learning stems from the fact that it increases learners' attention, makes learners get involved in the lesson while recording the vocabulary items, preserves the recorded lexical information for later use and serves learners in revising and preparing for their exams (Boyle & Weishaar, 2001).

4.10.2.2. How to assist students to use VLS?

In addition to the formerly stated strategies, there are numerous other strategies that can be used in vocabulary learning and that can fit different learning tasks and different learning styles. Teachers' role is then to:

1. raise learners' awareness of these strategies. In this regards, Tarhuni (2013) explains that one of the underlying goals of a strategy training programme is: "*to help learners become more conscious of the LLS they are using and the onesthey are not using*" (p. 54). Tarhuni argues that such role of the teacher is very important because learners in general do not know that they are already employing strategies.
2. highlight the effectiveness of LLS/VLS. This can be achieved through simple discussions on how these strategies can help the learners obtain linguistic information and overcome their learning difficulties.(*ibid*)
3. model the strategies in class. In other words, teachers can clarify to their students how to make use of the strategies by applying them themselves through illustrative examples. For instance, to guess meaning from context, the teacher clarifies to students that this involves going through different steps that are:
 - Determine the part of speech of the unknown word
 - Analyse the immediate context to try to determine the meaning of the unknown word
 - Analyse the wider context to try to determine the meaning of the unknown word
 - Guess the meaning of the unknown word
 - Check the guess against the information that was found in the first four steps. (From Clarke & Nation, 1980, cited in Webb & Nation, 2017, cited in Kerr, 2019)
4. To give learners the opportunity to practise a wide range of these strategies and to apply them to different language tasks whenever the opportunity arises. Using always the example of guessing from context, students need to practise the strategy in class with their teacher putting the steps themselves into action. Kerr (2019) also refers to teachers' modelling and links it to learners' practice stating that:

a demonstration by the teacher using a marked-up text, perhaps followed by ‘think-aloud’ sessions, where learners say out loud the step-by-step process they are going through when inferring meaning. It may also include a progression from, first, cloze exercises to, second, texts where highlighted words are provided with multiple choice definitions to, finally, texts with no support.

Such a combination between teachers’ demonstration and students’ implementation would help the latter not only grasp how the strategy functions, but also raise their awareness of the effectiveness of the strategy in vocabulary and language learning. More importantly, students would be able to appreciate what strategies fit their learning style and accordingly make their own choices. Tarhuni (2013) believes that this is “*an important step for stimulating a creative attitude toward the learning process and thus preparing for learner autonomy*” (p. 102), an autonomy which is one of the ultimate objective of any teaching programme. Still, to be able to achieve this teaching programme, there are different elements that must be taken into consideration; with the teacher being the most important.

4.11. Teachers and Effective Teaching

As discussed in the review chapter, teachers maintain their pivotal role in the success of education. In spite that there are other contributing factors, teachers’ quality and students’ progress continue to be closely interconnected as the two sides of the same coin. Coe, Aloisi, Higgins and Major (2014) points out to this relationship and state that:

The research keeps coming back to this critical point: student progress is the yardstick by which teacher quality should be assessed. Ultimately, for a judgement about whether teaching is effective, to be seen as trustworthy, it must be checked against the progress being made by students. (p. 2)

So, in terms of vocabulary learning, students’ progress should be the reflection of their teachers’ quality. Such quality involves a deep knowledge of the three types of English vocabulary with their distinguishing characteristics, of the underlying principles of vocabulary

teaching and of the different strategies of language/vocabulary learning (LLS/VLS). A lack of knowledge of any of these elements would prevent the teacher from successfully undertaking their task of transmitting knowledge because simply they cannot give what they do not have. Coe *et al.* argue that: “*when teachers’ knowledge falls below a certain level it is a significant impediment to students’ learning*” (ibid). To possess the required content knowledge is an important step in the long journey of teaching, yet the content alone is not sufficient.

Some teachers may be well versed in their subjects (English vocabulary), but they may lack the methodology or the *savoir-faire* that makes the learners benefit from their knowledge. Such *savoir-faire* includes, among others, being aware of students’ prior knowledge, using this prior knowledge to clarify new concepts, having explanation skills, asking the right questions that help to decipher students’ difficulties and assess their understanding, reviewing previous lessons to reinforce what has been learnt, serving as role models whenever it is required such as with the implementation of the VLS, providing opportunities for vocabulary practice by optimizing students’ talk, etc.

Usually, teachers are initiated to this *savoir-faire* through their pre-service education. It is then put into practice and questioned or reinforced when they embark on exercising their profession and it is fine-tuned and updated through their in-service training. This training programme is necessary to support teachers towards their professional development and the achievement of quality teaching.

4.12. Teachers’ Training

The English course consists of different teaching subjects. Though, these subjects share some common teaching principles, each subject is particular and then requires a specific teaching methodology. For instance, the teaching of literature differs from the teaching of grammar, writing or the oral skill and likewise with vocabulary instruction, whether

incorporated in the different subjects or provided in a separate subject. In all cases, teachers have to deal with vocabulary, either for its own sake or to deliver their subject content.

As demonstrated in this study, the main sources of teachers' knowledge about the principles of vocabulary instruction were their own research along with their teaching experience and reflection. There is no doubt that these are key elements in the continuous development of teachers' proficiency (Moon, Leach, & Stevens, 2005), yet these elements alone are not sufficient. Both pre-service education and in-service training are important for teachers' preparation at all levels, and contribute to their professional development. Accordingly, it would be rational to call for a training that takes into account teachers' real needs because:

Teachers are the interface between top-down policy requirements and the bottom-up needs of their students. As that interface, they need to be involved in decisions about the content and process of their professional development, and they need expert support and leadership, so that their professional development explicitly builds on their role and professional needs. (Galaczi, Nye, Poulte & Alle, 2018, p. 12)

These needs can be identified as the challenges that usually face the practicing teachers; either novice or experienced, as well as the student teachers³¹. And a well designed training has the potential to assist and accompany teachers regardless of their status, to overcome these challenges. As Sahragard & Saberi, (2018) put it, teacher trainings, pre and in-service, equip "*future teachers with basic teaching techniques and gives them a general background in teaching and their subject matter [and] keep practicing teachers informed about current practices in their field*" (p. 446-447). In other words, training provides teachers with opportunities to update their knowledge and put it into practice. More importantly, a good training enables teachers to witness by themselves the applicability of what research has discovered; under the supervision and the directives of experts in the field.

³¹ "A student who is studying to be a teacher and who, as part of the training, observes classroom instruction or does closely supervised teaching in an elementary or secondary school." Dictionary.com, retrieved on: 31/8/2020, from: <https://www.dictionary.com/browse/student-teacher>

It is worth mentioning that Algerian university teachers, do benefit from what is known as in-service training, it is usually of short-term and takes place abroad, but it has actually nothing to do with the above discussed training. We admit that we have no research-based evidence to support our claim, but it has become common knowledge that these trainings actually do not serve their goals. We assume that the responsibility for this problematic situation is shared between the Ministry of Higher Education, the university and the teachers themselves.

As, the target language is English, it would be sound to plan and organize these trainings in the English speaking countries, or at least in countries where the teaching of English as a foreign language meets the standards. It is then the responsibility of the Ministry and the university to contact appropriate universities that can benefit EFL teaching in Algeria. Their main role is to negotiate and conclude conventions with these universities and accompany their teachers to obtain entry visa to the target countries. This would avert arduous troubles for the teachers who usually misuse the training because of the difficulties to obtain the visa and to find appropriate universities that accept to receive them. At the end of the training, the receiving university grants the trainees documents; reports for instance, that trace their achievement and thus assure that the training served its goals.

On the other hand, teachers' responsibility would be to identify their true individual needs, whether in terms of selecting the appropriate methodology, improving their content knowledge, acquiring assessment skills, analysing learners' needs, integrating ICT or transferring responsibility to learners and enhancing their autonomy, etc. They have then to inform their respective universities which have to take these needs into account when planning for teacher training within the terms of the concluded conventions. Summer trainings are interesting examples of useful trainings, where teacher trainees can attend workshops that target the enhancement of their knowledge and skills and that can be tailored to their needs.

More importantly, workshops can last longer and include practical sections which can expand and deepen the trainees' understanding of the new techniques and approaches. This entails that teachers' responsibility should continue during their trainings where they are required to make the best of these valuable academic opportunities.

Local in-service trainings are as important as the ones that take place abroad. They are generally meant for novice teachers who can then benefit from the expertise of the experienced teachers. They can also be led by national or international guest experts and experienced teachers who may have been themselves trained abroad and can participate in the training of their colleagues. The main aim of these trainings is to provide concrete answers to the frequent pedagogical questions that arise whenever difficulties obstruct the attainment of teachers' different roles. Such training programme is expected to contribute in the long run to the professional development of EFL teachers.

According to the British Council (2015), teachers' development continues throughout their career, still we can discern four distinctive stages that are illustrated in the figure below.

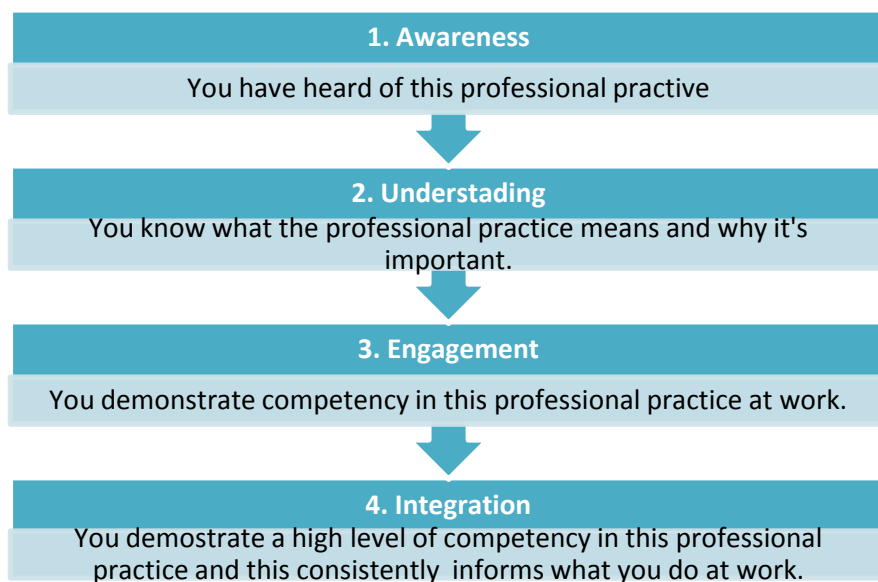


Figure 4.4: Stages of Teachers' Development (British Council, 2015)

In terms of vocabulary instruction, in the first stage, *awareness*, the teachers know about the existence of a specific professional practice, but without any further knowledge of it. As

example, they may know that there are specific principles that steer vocabulary instruction, or they may know that there are three types of vocabulary, but they have no idea about what they are. In the second stage, *understanding*, teachers understand the meaning and recognize the importance of the practice, for instance, they know what the vocabulary teaching principles are and how much important they are for language learning.

Moving to the third stage, *engagement*, teachers do exercise the principles of vocabulary teaching demonstrating as such a competency in these professional practices. In the final stage, *integration*, teachers reach a high level of competency that is naturally integrated into their daily practice and that regularly influence their work. At this stage and always in terms of vocabulary teaching principles, the competency of the teachers would enable them to have a great impact on their students' vocabulary learning and language proficiency.

Nonetheless, teachers may well have the necessary quality, but can be obstructed by some external factors that usually characterize our universities, especially the foreign languages departments, the case of Djilali Liabes English Department. One of the factors that are repeatedly debated in the literature is the large class size (Richards & Pennington, 1998; Borg, 2003). Teaching language skills in particular along with vocabulary require the use of small group activities and individualized teaching, but the large size of the class often inhibits these practices (Al-Jarf, 2006).

Moreover, increases in the class size very often lead to a decrease in the amount of learning opportunities which, in turn, "*hamper teachers from achieving the necessary pace, depth and breadth of curriculum coverage*" (Pedder, 2006, p. 224). So, factors such as large classes can make the teacher avoid applying up-to-date vocabulary teaching methods or trying innovative teaching techniques. Richard et al. (1998) explain:

Such factors discourage experimentation and innovation, and encourage a ‘safe’ strategy of sticking close to prescribed materials and familiar teaching approaches. Without any relief from these factors and without any reward for innovating in the face of them, the teachers would naturally be led back toward a conservative teaching approach to align themselves with the characteristics of the existing teaching context. (p. 187–88)

Taking care of the teachers by improving their working conditions, improving the school/education facilities such as simply reducing the class size, and providing them with quality training is likely to boost teachers’ potential and encourage them put their expertise into practice.

4.13. Conclusion

With a deficit in their overall and academic EFL vocabulary knowledge, our students do definitely face difficulties to major in English. And, we; teachers witness regularly the struggle of our students reflected in their limited participation in class discussions, in their poor performance in the oral presentations and in the different written tasks; tests and exams, especially when the tasks require writing long paragraphs and elaborated essays. Still, and in spite of these difficulties and even with their vocabulary deficit, they eventually succeed to graduate, and we all know that many of them do not have the adequate EFL language proficiency for graduation. In view of that, the present chapter discussed the idea of introducing an admission test as a fair procedure to higher education with the suggestion of a foundation year for unqualified students to consolidate their skills before they could join the English course.

The researcher then tried to defend her convictions concerning the worth of devoting a separate subject to teach vocabulary, namely the AWL. She provided the description of a tentative vocabulary-based subject with a sample of vocabulary exercises to elucidate her conceptualization of explicit vocabulary instruction. The latter would be inefficient without training students to take advantage of the vocabulary learning strategies inside and outside the classroom. The chapter concluded by highlighting the need to accompany teachers in their

professional development with reference to teacher training as a means to promote their knowledge and skills. Last but not least, the chapter discussed the betterment of the working conditions which definitely facilitates the teaching process and contributes to the productivity of the teacher. The size of the class is one of the factors that usually obstruct teachers' productivity in our schools and the problem seems to persist at the university level.

General Conclusion

One of the primary concerns of EFL university students is developing their proficiency in English for academic purposes (EAP). A key aspect of EAP is academic vocabulary with its two types; technical and general academic. The significant role of vocabulary in supporting comprehension and communication, and thus in language learning has heightened the need for the integration of vocabulary instruction in the EFL classroom. In the light of our research findings, technical vocabulary; being the specialized vocabulary of a given field of study or teaching subject, is usually taught as a precondition to deliver and explain the subject content.

However, general academic vocabulary seems to be neglected. This type of vocabulary is very important as it is not specific to a particular subject/field of study and is subsequently very frequent in the academic discourse. It even constitutes a large portion of the language of instruction and then its acquisition is relevant to the acquisition of subject content with its technical vocabulary. But, because of the high-frequency of tier 2 vocabulary, it may be assumed that students have already learned it in pre-university education or they can learn it on their own through simple exposure during their undergraduate studies.

Unfortunately, none of these assumptions is absolutely true. On the one hand, Algerian EFL students usually join the university with a deficit in their English vocabulary; academic as well as conversational. On the other hand, exposure alone does not suffice to learn the large amount of vocabulary that EFL university students usually meet during their studies, let alone to close the gap in their general vocabulary knowledge brought with them from secondary education. Added to that, our learners lack the necessary autonomy that can make learning continue overtime; outside the classroom and contribute to reduce the vocabulary gap.

The role of learners' autonomy in foreign language learning is undeniable. Autonomy involves learners possessing a range of strategies which they can use successfully in different contexts, including the foreign language context, to facilitate their learning. Actually, some learners are talented and exhibit some degree of autonomy at an early stage, yet autonomy is

not an inner quality; it develops in early childhood education when conditions are favourable. So, it is not sound to require from our learners to be autonomous simply because they have reached the university while they have spent most of their pre-university education spoon-fed.

This is not a mere assumption, but a fact that does not need proof and is commonly shared among teachers, students themselves and the Algerian society as a whole. Still, different studies have demonstrated the lack of autonomy among our EFL learners across the academic levels, starting from middle school to university. Likewise, our study corroborates this finding and provides additional evidence as regards the lack of autonomy among university (undergraduate) students based on their teachers' belief.

The current study demonstrated also the deficit in Algerian EFL learners' vocabulary when a sample of 67 undergraduate students from the English Department of Djilali Liabes University sat for two vocabulary tests to determine their lexical profile. Our sample consisted of students from first year (33) to measure the size of their vocabulary upon the completion of their secondary education and entry to the university, and students from third year (34) to gauge their vocabulary at the end of their undergraduate studies.

The first test, Vocabulary Size Test (VST), developed by Nation and Baglar (2007), includes words of different frequency levels of the English language and thus it measures total receptive written vocabulary size of the users. The second test Academic Word List Test (AWLT) comprises only general academic vocabulary and more importantly, it includes the most frequent words of this type of vocabulary and university students are expected to know every word of this list. Unsurprisingly, in both tests, our participants scored below standards. While 3 LMD students scored 7033.33 word families on the VST, 1 LMD scored 699.33 word families, which does not match their expected academic level. As for the AWLT, their scores were 314.33 vs. 363.67 for first and third year respectively.

A remedy is therefore needed to close the gap in their vocabulary knowledge and overcome the difficulties that generally result from this lexical deficit. We suggest, as a preliminary step to overcome this problematic situation, the adoption of an admission test as an additional requirement to join the university. The test should assess, among others, learners' vocabulary knowledge and the students who pass the test successfully join the English course. As for those who fail, they will have the opportunity to join the course, but after they complete a foundation year to compensate any knowledge that might still be lacking after finishing secondary education.

The second step is equally important and involves helping successful learners as well to continue building their vocabulary knowledge by providing them with a quality vocabulary instruction. This quality can be achieved through the systematic, explicit teaching of academic vocabulary as a way to remedy the slow implicit learning that results from the limited exposure. Because vocabulary learning is incremental and requires different encounters with words to be committed to long-term memory, learners would gain a lot from 1) integrating vocabulary instruction in the different teaching subjects and 2) devoting a separate subject to teach vocabulary.

In the first case, the vocabulary taught would be any word that obstructs learners' understanding of the subject content. We have noticed during the classroom observation that teachers tend to explain spontaneously some words. But, they were not methodical and they used to give priority more to technical words as they believe in the pertinence of the latter to the understanding of their subjects. Their instruction was restricted to providing their learners with the synonyms or definitions of the difficult words without further information, while research has shown that knowing a word requires a deep understanding of its meaning, form and use.

In the second case, the vocabulary targeted would be the general academic vocabulary represented in the AWL. The list adds a coverage of 10% to the coverage of the GSL estimated to 82% and thus by learning the two lists the learners are more likely to be able to comprehend most of the academic content. It will be even easier for them to guess the meaning of other words and to deal with any teaching material with more confidence. The list can be covered in one year or spread over the three years of the undergraduate education depending on the students' familiarity with the words of the list and their capacity of word assimilation.

It is worth noting that teachers in charge of this AWL-based subject will have a wide range of teaching resources. They can employ texts from other subjects to design their vocabulary activities/exercises; they can use existing vocabulary books/teaching materials or can create their own material using the diverse internet sources/corpora and software. Simply put, teachers have plenty of options for designing their teaching material. Furthermore, vocabulary ready-made teaching materials are actually available and there are even books devoted to the teaching of the AWL. So, our study does not aim at reinventing the wheel. We simply think that since there are books teaching grammar and phonetics/pronunciation, reading, writing, etc, and there are subjects teaching the same content; then why not devoting subjects that teach the same content of the existing books about (AWL) vocabulary? The different exercises suggested in the fourth chapter are a mere sample of the different exercise formats that can be easily used to teach the AWL or any type of vocabulary.

This teaching programme cannot be effective without the contribution of a number of interrelated factors. The teacher is the main influencing factor; in other words, the quality of a teaching programme depends heavily on the quality of the teachers whose proficiency is determined by knowledge of their content subject and knowledge of the key principles guiding the teaching of their subjects. But, the same way learners need their teachers' support,

teachers also need the support of other people, namely field experts and education officials. Their duty is to provide the teachers with opportunities to update their knowledge and with the means that enable them to concentrate only on their roles as teachers which are to serve the students and benefit them from their expertise.

Vocabulary teaching, for instance, involves a lot of practice and guided work (T.D.); however, the large size of the class usually impedes teachers' time and classroom management. A dedicated and qualified teacher would certainly endeavour to carry out his/her academic duties regardless of the working conditions. Nonetheless, enhancing the teaching conditions by improving the school/education facilities, reducing the class size, and providing teachers with quality pre-service and in-service training would definitely facilitate teachers' tasks, make them feel valuable and encourage them to give generously, not only in vocabulary teaching, but in any teaching subject.

It may be noticed that the current study discussed teachers' role without referring to students' role. Obviously, both have a fundamental role to play and each role complements the other, yet our focus was on the teacher for the following reason. Taking responsibility of their (vocabulary) learning requires from the learners to be autonomous and to be equipped with minimum skills to be able to do so. However, as stated previously, the transfer from a spoon-fed learner to a completely autonomous learner is a project that should have started in earlier stages so as to be achieved, at least, by the time learners enter the university. As this did not happen and as the proverb suggests; it is better late than never, it is then part of the duty of university teachers to revive this project and help prepare our students as autonomous and self-motivated learners.

Teachers are invited to support and guide undergraduate students towards this autonomy. This support can take different forms, first it is more than important to help students by training them on the LLS/VLS that promote their autonomy and enable them to

continue learning efficiently outside the classroom. This is valuable as it contributes to students' development and it compensates for the limited time of contact with the language in the classroom. Teachers should not only raise their students' awareness of the different types of strategies and their *consequential benefits*, but should also apply them in class to demonstrate to their students how to use such strategies effectively. Second, the teaching of the VLS coupled with the explicit teaching of the AWL is meant to help students to build strong vocabulary knowledge which would give them a sense of achievement and confidence and then can smooth the transition to autonomous learning.

Sometimes, we believe that we need to innovate and create new methods and techniques to be able to enhance the learning of English as a foreign language. While this may be true, such belief can prevent us from realizing the real potential of some already existing methods. An extensive body of the literature has long existed on the significance of both explicit instruction and the academic vocabulary lists. But, we continue relying only on implicit teaching as the main way to teach vocabulary. While implicit learning is the natural way to acquire vocabulary in an L1 context and can eventually lead to vocabulary gains in an EFL context, the many constraints that Algerian EFL learners usually face prioritize explicit vocabulary teaching/ learning as an adequate way to remedy some of these constraints as well as to pave the way to their autonomy.

There is no doubt that UG students do learn vocabulary implicitly and explicitly through the different teaching subjects of their curriculum. Each subject actually contributes to the development of their overall vocabulary knowledge, yet the gain remains slow and limited compared to the amount of vocabulary expected to be learned. In real life language is not sub-divided; it is one entity. But, research and the formal context of EFL learning sometimes impose such sub-division to highlight the aspects of language that need particular attention. So, the vocabulary class we have suggested in this research is not meant to be seen

in isolation, it can be well combined with a reading class especially that the latter seems to be deleted from the curriculum.

The contribution of our humble work was thus to highlight the significance of explicit teaching as a direct and time-saving method to deepen knowledge of particular words that are deemed important for our students such as the AWL. The study also offers some important insights into the lexical profile of the Algerian EFL undergraduate students as the data available about their vocabulary size are very sparse. However, more research needs to be undertaken to verify the impact of AWL-based subject on the depth and breadth of our students' vocabulary knowledge. Unlike our research which was somehow synchronic and compared between the vocabulary knowledge of the first year and the third year, the suggested research can be diachronic. It can focus on the same sample of population and track its vocabulary knowledge as the participants/students progress in their undergraduate studies; from first to third year. This would better inform us of the vocabulary gains made by the participants; if any, and thus of the utility of such a vocabulary-based subject.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: AWLT, Version A

A Test of the Academic Word List: Test A

Instructions

Choose a word on the left that matches a meaning on the right. Write the number of that word next to its meaning. Here is an example:

- | | | |
|-------------|-------|----------------------------|
| 1. business | | |
| 2. clock | _____ | part of a house |
| 3. horse | _____ | animal with four legs |
| 4. pencil | _____ | something used for writing |
| 5. shoe | | |
| 6. wall | | |

You answer it the following way:

- | | | |
|-------------|---------|----------------------------|
| 1. business | | |
| 2. clock | ___6___ | part of a house |
| 3. horse | ___3___ | animal with four legs |
| 4. pencil | ___4___ | something used for writing |
| 5. shoe | | |
| 6. wall | | |

You do not use all of the words. In the example above, the words *business*, *clock*, *shoe* did not have a meaning for you to choose.

If you do not know the meaning of a word you do not need to answer that question. If you think you know the word you can guess.

1. environment
2. principle____ the close study of something
3. response ____ money received
4. assumption____ the surrounding conditions and influences
5. analysis
6. income

1. similarity
2. data ____ something that can change
3. variable____ a problem
4. method____ a way of doing something
5. section
6. issue

1. site
2. commission ____ a place
3. definition____ keeping in the same condition
4. maintenance ____ a group with a special job to do
5. achievement
6. conduct

1. authority
2. culture ____ the language, art and behavior of a society
3. injury____ something valuable that can be used
4. range____ deciding if something is good enough
5. evaluation
6. resource

1. location
2. partnership____ the amount a container can hold
3. exclusion ____ one thing coming after another
4. fund ____ money kept for a special purpose
5. sequence
6. volume

1. contribution
2. alternative ____ another choice
3. task ____ something given to help
4. instance____ piece of work to do
5. component
6. reaction

1. regime
2. status____ something that regularly goes around
3. summary ____ a system of government
4. prediction____ the present condition of something
5. approximation
6. cycle

- | | | |
|-----------------|-------|---|
| 1. commit | | |
| 2. predict | _____ | to agree to do some work |
| 3. access | _____ | to find a way in |
| 4. emerge | _____ | to come out |
| 5. modify | | |
| 6. mechanise | | |
| | | |
| 1. licence | | |
| 2. draft | _____ | a fight or disagreement |
| 3. conflict | _____ | a purpose or aim |
| 4. stability | _____ | the study of the mind |
| 5. psychology | | |
| 6. objective | | |
| | | |
| 1. academic | | |
| 2. liberal | _____ | the same |
| 3. precise | _____ | involving the brain or thought |
| 4. mental | _____ | involving the study of ideas |
| 5. equivalent | | |
| 6. transitory | | |
| | | |
| 1. expert | | |
| 2. brief | _____ | a talk at a university |
| 3. abstract | _____ | based on ideas not on real things |
| 4. lecture | _____ | amount of money paid |
| 5. ministry | | |
| 6. fee | | |
| | | |
| 1. incentive | | |
| 2. display | _____ | all of someone's possessions |
| 3. allocation | _____ | an encouragement |
| 4. estate | _____ | an amount given out |
| 5. utility | | |
| 6. tape | | |
| | | |
| 1. global | | |
| 2. definite | _____ | freely decided, not forced |
| 3. hierarchical | _____ | clear, sure |
| 4. classical | _____ | in a system from highest to lowest |
| 5. reversed | | |
| 6. voluntary | | |
| | | |
| 1. confirm | | |
| 2. insert | _____ | to take away something that is not needed |
| 3. transmit | _____ | to say for certain |
| 4. eliminate | _____ | to put in |
| 5. quote | | |
| 6. isolate | | |

1. paragraph
2. contradiction _____ strength or great feeling
3. schedule _____ extra information at the end of a book
4. intensity _____ a program of work
5. exhibit
6. appendix

1. radical
2. uniform _____ extreme
3. contemporary _____ at the present time
4. crucial _____ not said directly
5. implicit
6. widespread

1. minimise
2. relax _____ to reach
3. found _____ to happen at the same time
4. coincide _____ to badly change the shape
5. attain
6. distort

1. accommodation
2. team _____ something that people do not agree about
3. controversy _____ a group of people working together
4. vision _____ a place to stay
5. portion
6. manual

1. forthcoming
2. straightforward _____ not wanting to do something
3. odd _____ unusual
4. persistent _____ very large
5. enormous
6. reluctant

Appendix 2: AWLT, Version B

A Test of the Academic Word List: Test B

Instructions

Choose a word on the left that matches a meaning on the right. Write the number of that word next to its meaning. Here is an example:

- | | | |
|-------------|-------|----------------------------|
| 1. business | | |
| 2. clock | _____ | part of a house |
| 3. horse | _____ | animal with four legs |
| 4. pencil | _____ | something used for writing |
| 5. shoe | | |
| 6. wall | | |

You answer it the following way:

- | | | |
|-------------|---------|----------------------------|
| 1. business | | |
| 2. clock | ___6___ | part of a house |
| 3. horse | ___3___ | animal with four legs |
| 4. pencil | ___4___ | something used for writing |
| 5. shoe | | |
| 6. wall | | |

You do not use all of the words. In the example above, the words *business*, *clock*, *shoe* did not have a meaning for you to choose.

If you do not know the meaning of a word you do not need to answer that question. If you think you know the word you can guess.

1. labour
2. interpretation _____ an idea
3. concept _____ work; a political group
4. distribution _____ the particular part you need to play
5. role
6. area

1. formula
2. export _____ the power to give orders
3. requirement _____ out of each hundred
4. percent _____ the sending of products for trade
5. context
6. authority

1. normal
2. complex _____ made of many parts
3. previous _____ usual
4. select _____ the last
5. final
6. relevant

1. journal
2. item _____ planned arrangement
3. design _____ a single unit
4. administration _____ the management of a business
5. survey
6. aspect

1. immigration
2. consent _____ the result
3. sufficiency _____ a way of doing something
4. outcome _____ permission
5. layer
6. technique

1. coordination
2. framework _____ the supporting parts of a building or plan
3. sex _____ male and female
4. maximum _____ working together well
5. emphasis
6. comment

1. job
2. concentration _____ mistake
3. parameter _____ the settlement of an argument
4. error _____ a fixed limit or guide
5. resolution
6. attitude

1. dimension
2. output _____ what is produced
3. code _____ a planned large piece of work to do
4. statistic _____ size
5. project
6. implementation

1. trend
2. enforcement _____ making people obey the rules
3. modify _____ how much something can contain
4. perspective _____ way of looking at something
5. symbol
6. capacity

1. alter
2. notion _____ to not accept
3. contact _____ to develop naturally and slowly
4. evolve _____ to meet, to touch
5. pursue
6. reject

1. bond
2. minimise _____ to be greater than expected
3. acknowledge _____ to recognize or admit to be true
4. input _____ to hold things together
5. exceed
6. assign

1. index
2. transformation _____ the limit or edge such as on a page
3. margin _____ a big change
4. edition _____ a return to the usual
5. subsidiary
6. recovery

1. chemical
2. mode _____ the most important
3. priority _____ way of doing something
4. successor _____ a long serious piece of writing
5. thesis
6. intervention

1. advocate
2. infer _____ to include
3. comprise _____ to throw away
4. dispose _____ to support or argue for
5. file
6. survive

1. drama
2. commodity _____ understanding and enjoyment
3. appreciation _____ movement away from the usual
4. infrastructure _____ something that is bought and sold
5. tension
6. deviation

1. bias
2. accumulation _____ money
3. currency _____ changing up and down
4. restoration _____ the collection of more and more of something
5. practitioner
6. fluctuation

1. incompatible
2. medium _____ not able to be together happily
3. mutual _____ hard, unmoving
4. rigid _____ shared in common
5. military
6. spherical

1. duration
2. insight _____ the way something holds together
3. trigger _____ something that starts something else
4. protocol _____ the ability to see the true nature of something
5. coherence
6. format

1. pose
2. collapse _____ to think of an idea or plan
3. convince _____ to meet
4. levy _____ to fall down
5. encounter
6. conceive

Appendix 3: AWLT Notes and Answers

Tests of the Academic Word List

These two tests test receptive knowledge of the words in the Academic Word List (Coxhead, 2000). There are 57 items in each test, so a learner's score on one test should be multiplied by ten to estimate the total number of words known. So, if a learner gets 38 answers correct, they know 380 out of the 570 words in the Academic Word List. So, they need to learn another 190 words from the list. The Academic Word List can be found at <https://www.victoria.ac.nz/lals/about/staff/averil-coxhead>. A series of four books (Coxhead, A.

& Nation, P. (2018). *Reading for the Academic World*. Sachse, Texas: Seed Learning.) can help learners learn the words on the list.

The tests were designed and trialled by Andrea Flavell and revised by Paul Nation. Andrea has kindly agreed to make them freely available for teachers, students and researchers to use. There is no need to seek permission to use the tests for non-commercial purposes.

The Academic Word List has ten sublists, nine lists of 60 words, and one list of 30 words. The tests are based on a sample from each of these sublists.

Answer key

Test A

5analysis 6income 1environment	3variable 6issue 4method	1site 4maintenance 2commission	2culture 6resource 5evaluation	6volume 5sequence 4fund
2alternative 1contribution 3task	6cycle 1regime 2status	1commit 3access 4emerge	3conflict 6objective 5psychology	5equivalent 4mental 1academic
4lecture 3abstract 6fee	4estate 1incentive 3allocation	6voluntary 2definite 3hierarchical	4eliminate 1confirm 2insert	4intensity 6appendix 3schedule
1radical 3contemporary 5simplicit	5attain 4coincide 6distort	3controversy 2team 1accommodation	6reluctant 3odd 5enormous	

Test B

3concept 1labour 5role	6authority 4percent 2export	2complex 1normal 5final	3design 2item 4administration	4outcome 6technique 2consent
2framework 3sex 1coordination	4error 5resolution 3parameter	2output 5project 1size	2enforcement 6capacity 4perspective	6reject 4evolve 3contact
5exceed 3acknowledge 1bond	3margin 2transformation 6recovery	3priority 2mode 5thesis	3comprise 4dispose 1advocate	3appreciation 6deviation 2commodity
3currency 6fluctuation 2accumulation	1incompatible 4rigid 3mutual	5coherence 3trigger 2insight	6conceive 5encounter 2collapse	

Appendix 4: Vocabulary Size Test (VST) with Answers

Vocabulary Size Test¹

Circle the letter a-d with the closest meaning to the key word in the question.

1. SEE: They **saw** it.
 - a. cut
 - b. waited for
 - x c. looked at
 - d. started
2. TIME: They have a lot of **time**.
 - a. money
 - b. food
 - x c. hours
 - d. friends
3. PERIOD: It was a difficult **period**.
 - a. question
 - x b. time
 - c. thing to do
 - d. book
4. FIGURE: Is this the right **figure**?
 - a. answer
 - b. place
 - c. time
 - x d. number
5. POOR: We are **poor**.
 - x a. have no money
 - b. feel happy
 - c. are very interested
 - d. do not like to work hard
6. DRIVE: He **drives** fast.
 - a. swims
 - b. learns
 - c. throws balls
 - x d. uses a car
7. JUMP: She tried to **jump**.
 - a. lie on top of the water
 - x b. get off the ground suddenly
 - c. stop the car at the edge of the road
 - d. move very fast
8. SHOE: Where is your **shoe**?
 - a. the person who looks after you
 - b. the thing you keep your money in
 - c. the thing you use for writing
 - x d. the thing you wear on your foot
9. STANDARD: Her **standards** are very high.
 - a. the bits at the back under her shoes
 - b. the marks she gets in school
 - c. the money she asks for
 - x d. the levels she reaches in everything
10. BASIS: This was used as the **basis**.
 - a. answer
 - b. place to take a rest
 - c. next step

- x d. main part

Second 1000

1. MAINTAIN: Can they **maintain** it?
 - x a. keep it as it is
 - b. make it larger
 - c. get a better one than it
 - d. get it
2. STONE: He sat on a **stone**.
 - x a. hard thing
 - b. kind of chair
 - c. soft thing on the floor
 - d. part of a tree
3. UPSET: I am **upset**.
 - a. tired
 - b. famous
 - c. rich
 - x d. unhappy
4. DRAWER: The **drawer** was empty.
 - x a. sliding box
 - b. place where cars are kept
 - c. cupboard to keep things cold
 - d. animal house
5. PATIENCE: He has no **patience**.
 - x a. will not wait happily
 - b. has no free time
 - c. has no faith
 - d. does not know what is fair
6. NIL: His mark for that question was **nil**.
 - a. very bad
 - x b. nothing
 - c. very good
 - d. in the middle
7. PUB: They went to the **pub**.
 - x a. place where people drink and talk
 - b. place that looks after money
 - c. large building with many shops
 - d. building for swimming
8. CIRCLE: Make a **circle**.
 - a. rough picture
 - b. space with nothing in it
 - x c. round shape
 - d. large hole
9. MICROPONE: Please use the **microphone**.
 - a. machine for making food hot
 - x b. machine that makes sounds louder
 - c. machine that makes things look bigger
 - d. small telephone that can be carried around
10. PRO: He's a **pro**.
 - a. someone who is employed to find out important secrets
 - b. a stupid person
 - c. someone who writes for a newspaper
 - x d. someone who is paid for playing sport etc

¹ The test was created by Paul Nation, Victoria University of Wellington, and can also be found at <http://www.lex tutor.ca/>. This test is freely available and can be used by teachers and researchers without seeking permission.

Third 1000

1. SOLDIER: He is a **soldier**.
 - a. person in a business
 - b. student
 - c. person who uses metal
 - x d. person in the army

2. RESTORE: It has been **restored**.
 - a. said again
 - b. given to a different person
 - c. given a lower price
 - x d. made like new again

3. JUG: He was holding a **jug**.
 - x a. A container for pouring liquids
 - b. an informal discussion
 - c. A soft cap
 - d. A weapon that explodes

4. SCRUB: He is **scrubbing** it.
 - a. cutting shallow lines into it
 - b. repairing it
 - x c. rubbing it hard to clean it
 - d. drawing simple pictures of it

5. DINOSAUR: The children were pretending to be **dinosaurs**.
 - a. robbers who work at sea
 - b. very small creatures with human form but with wings
 - c. large creatures with wings that breathe fire
 - x d. animals that lived a long time ago

6. STRAP: He broke the **strap**.
 - a. promise
 - b. top cover
 - c. shallow dish for food
 - x d. strip of material for holding things together

7. PAVE: It was **paved**.
 - a. prevented from going through
 - b. divided
 - c. given gold edges
 - x d. covered with a hard surface

8. DASH: They **dashed** over it.
 - x a. moved quickly
 - b. moved slowly
 - c. fought
 - d. looked quickly

9. ROVE: He couldn't stop **roving**.
 - a. getting drunk
 - x b. travelling around
 - c. making a musical sound through closed lips
 - d. working hard

10. LONESOME: He felt **lonesome**.
 - a. ungrateful
 - b. very tired
 - x c. lonely
 - d. full of energy

Fourth 1000

1. COMPOUND: They made a new **compound**.
 - a. agreement
 - x b. thing made of two or more parts
 - c. group of people forming a business
 - d. guess based on past experience

2. LATTER: I agree with the **latter**.
 - a. man from the church
 - b. reason given
 - x c. last one
 - d. answer

3. CANDID: Please be **candid**.
 - a. be careful
 - b. show sympathy
 - c. show fairness to both sides
 - x d. say what you really think

4. TUMMY: Look at my **tummy**.
 - a. cloth to cover the head
 - x b. stomach
 - c. small furry animal
 - d. thumb

5. QUIZ: We made a **quiz**.
 - a. thing to hold arrows
 - b. serious mistake
 - x c. set of questions
 - d. box for birds to make nests in

6. INPUT: We need more **input**.
 - x a. information, power, etc. put into something
 - b. workers
 - c. artificial filling for a hole in wood
 - d. money

7. CRAB: Do you like **crabs**?
 - x a. sea creatures that walk sideways
 - b. very thin small cakes
 - c. tight, hard collars
 - d. large black insects that sing at night

8. VOCABULARY: You will need more **vocabulary**.
 - x a. words
 - b. skill
 - c. money
 - d. guns

9. REMEDY: We found a good **remedy**.
 - x a. way to fix a problem
 - b. place to eat in public
 - c. way to prepare food
 - d. rule about numbers

10. ALLEGE: They **alleged** it.
 - x a. claimed it without proof
 - b. stole the ideas for it from someone else
 - c. provided facts to prove it
 - d. argued against the facts that supported it

to a shop

Fifth 1000

1. DEFICIT: The company had a large **deficit**.
 - x a. spent a lot more money than it earned
 - b. went down a lot in value
 - c. had a plan for its spending that used a lot of money
 - d. had a lot of money in the bank
2. WEEP: He **wept**.
 - x a. finished his course
 - b. cried
 - c. died
 - d. worried
3. NUN: We saw a **nun**.
 - a. long thin creature that lives in the earth
 - b. terrible accident
 - x c. woman following a strict religious life
 - d. unexplained bright light in the sky
4. HAUNT: The house is **haunted**.
 - a. full of ornaments
 - b. rented
 - c. empty
 - x d. full of ghosts
5. COMPOST: We need some **compost**.
 - a. strong support
 - b. help to feel better
 - c. hard stuff made of stones and sand stuck together
 - x d. rotted plant material
6. CUBE: I need one more **cube**.
 - x a. sharp thing used for joining things
 - b. solid square block
 - c. tall cup with no saucer
 - d. piece of stiff paper folded in half
7. MINIATURE: It is a **miniature**.
 - x a. a very small thing of its kind
 - b. an instrument to look at small objects
 - c. a very small living creature
 - d. a small line to join letters in handwriting
8. PEEL: Shall I **peel** it?
 - x a. let it sit in water for a long time
 - b. take the skin off it
 - c. make it white
 - d. cut it into thin pieces
9. FRACTURE: They found a **fracture**.
 - x a. break
 - b. small piece
 - c. short coat
 - d. rare jewel
10. BACTERIUM: They didn't find a single **bacterium**.
 - x a. small living thing causing disease
 - b. plant with red or orange flowers
 - c. animal that carries water on its back
 - d. thing that has been stolen and sold

Sixth 1000

1. DEVIOUS: Your plans are **devious**.
 - x a. tricky
 - b. well-developed
 - c. not well thought out
 - d. more expensive than necessary
2. PREMIER: The **premier** spoke for an hour.
 - a. person who works in a law court
 - b. university teacher
 - c. adventurer
 - x d. head of the government
3. BUTLER: They have a **butler**.
 - x a. man servant
 - b. machine for cutting up trees
 - c. private teacher
 - d. cool dark room under the house
4. ACCESSORY: They gave us some **accessories**.
 - a. papers allowing us to enter a country
 - b. official orders
 - c. ideas to choose between
 - x d. extra pieces
5. THRESHOLD: They raised the **threshold**.
 - a. flag
 - x b. point or line where something changes
 - c. roof inside a building
 - d. cost of borrowing money
6. THESIS: She has completed her **thesis**.
 - x a. long written report of study carried out for a university degree
 - b. talk given by a judge at the end of a trial
 - c. first year of employment after becoming a teacher
 - d. extended course of hospital treatment
7. STRANGLE: He **strangled** her.
 - x a. killed her by pressing her throat
 - b. gave her all the things she wanted
 - c. took her away by force
 - d. admired her greatly
8. CAVALIER: He treated her in a **cavalier** manner.
 - x a. without care
 - b. politely
 - c. awkwardly
 - d. as a brother would
9. MALIGN: His **malign** influence is still felt.
 - x a. evil
 - b. good
 - c. very important
 - d. secret
10. VEER: The car **veered**.
 - x a. went suddenly in another direction
 - b. moved shakily
 - c. made a very loud noise
 - d. slid sideways without the wheels turning

Seventh 1000

1. OLIVE: We bought **olives**.
 - x a. oily fruit
 - b. scented pink or red flowers
 - c. men's clothes for swimming
 - d. tools for digging up weeds
2. QUILT: They made a **quilt**.
 - a. statement about who should get their property when they die
 - b. firm agreement
 - x c. thick warm cover for a bed
 - d. feather pen
3. STEALTH: They did it by **stealth**.
 - a. spending a large amount of money
 - b. hurting someone so much that they agreed to their demands
 - x c. moving secretly with extreme care and quietness
 - d. taking no notice of problems they met
4. SHUDDER: The boy **shuddered**.
 - a. spoke with a low voice
 - b. almost fell
 - x c. shook
 - d. called out loudly
5. BRISTLE: The **bristles** are too hard.
 - a. questions
 - x b. short stiff hairs
 - c. folding beds
 - d. bottoms of the shoes
6. BLOC: They have joined this **bloc**.
 - a. musical group
 - b. band of thieves
 - c. small group of soldiers who are sent ahead of others
 - x d. group of countries sharing a purpose
7. DEMOGRAPHY: This book is about **demography**.
 - a. the study of patterns of land use
 - b. the study of the use of pictures to show facts about numbers
 - c. the study of the movement of water
 - x d. the study of population
8. GIMMICK: That's a good **gimmick**.
 - a. thing for standing on to work high above the ground
 - b. small thing with pockets to hold money
 - x c. attention-getting action or thing
 - d. clever plan or trick
9. AZALEA: This **azalea** is very pretty.
 - x a. small tree with many flowers growing in groups
 - b. light material made from natural threads
 - c. long piece of material worn by women in India
 - d. sea shell shaped like a fan
10. YOGHURT: This **yoghurt** is disgusting.
 - a. grey mud found at the bottom of rivers
 - b. unhealthy, open sore
 - x c. thick, soured milk, often with sugar and flavouring

Eighth 1000

1. ERRATIC: He was **erratic**.
 - a. without fault
 - b. very bad
 - c. very polite
 - x d. unsteady
2. PALETTE: He lost his **palette**.
 - a. basket for carrying fish
 - b. wish to eat food
 - c. young female companion
 - x d. artist's board for mixing paints
3. NULL: His influence was **null**.
 - a. had good results
 - b. was unhelpful
 - x c. had no effect
 - d. was long-lasting
4. KINDERGARTEN: This is a good **kindergarten**.
 - a. activity that allows you to forget your worries
 - x b. place of learning for children too young for school
 - c. strong, deep bag carried on the back
 - d. place where you may borrow books
5. ECLIPSE: There was an **eclipse**.
 - a. a strong wind
 - b. a loud noise of something hitting the water
 - c. The killing of a large number of people
 - x d. The sun hidden by a planet
6. MARROW: This is the **marrow**.
 - a. symbol that brings good luck to a team
 - x b. Soft centre of a bone
 - c. control for guiding a plane
 - d. increase in salary
7. LOCUST: There were hundreds of **locusts**.
 - x a. insects with wings
 - b. unpaid helpers
 - c. people who do not eat meat
 - d. brightly coloured wild flowers
8. AUTHENTIC: It is **authentic**.
 - x a. real
 - b. very noisy
 - c. Old
 - d. Like a desert
9. CABARET: We saw the **cabaret**.
 - a. painting covering a whole wall
 - x b. song and dance performance
 - c. small crawling insect
 - d. person who is half fish, half woman
10. MUMBLE: He started to **mumble**.
 - a. think deeply
 - b. shake uncontrollably
 - c. stay further behind the others
 - x d. speak in an unclear way

Ninth 1000

1. HALLMARK: Does it have a **hallmark**?
 - a. stamp to show when to use it by
 - x b. stamp to show the quality
 - c. mark to show it is approved by the royal family
 - d. Mark or stain to prevent copying
2. PURITAN: He is a **puritan**.
 - a. person who likes attention
 - x b. person with strict morals
 - c. person with a moving home
 - d. person who hates spending money
3. MONOLOGUE: Now he has a **monologue**.
 - a. single piece of glass to hold over his eye to help him to see better
 - x b. long turn at talking without being interrupted
 - c. position with all the power
 - d. picture made by joining letters together in interesting ways
4. WEIR: We looked at the **weir**.
 - a. person who behaves strangely
 - b. wet, muddy place with water plants
 - c. old metal musical instrument played by blowing
 - x d. thing built across a river to control the water
5. WHIM: He had lots of **whims**.
 - a. old gold coins
 - b. female horses
 - x c. strange ideas with no motive
 - d. sore red lumps
6. PERTURB: I was **perturbed**.
 - a. made to agree
 - x b. Worried
 - c. very puzzled
 - d. very wet
7. REGENT: They chose a **regent**.
 - a. an irresponsible person
 - b. a person to run a meeting for a time
 - x c. a ruler acting in place of the king
 - d. a person to represent them
8. OCTOPUS: They saw an **octopus**.
 - a. a large bird that hunts at night
 - b. a ship that can go under water
 - c. a machine that flies by means of turning blades
 - x d. a sea creature with eight legs
9. FEN: The story is set in the **fens**.
 - x a. low land partly covered by water
 - b. a piece of high land with few trees
 - c. a block of poor-quality houses in a city
 - d. a time long ago
10. LINTEL: He painted the **lintel**.
 - x a. Beam over the top of a door or window
 - b. small boat used for getting to land from a big boat
 - c. beautiful tree with spreading branches and green fruit

- d. board showing the scene in a theatre

Tenth 1000

1. AWE: They looked at the mountain with **awe**.
 - a. worry
 - b. interest
 - x c. wonder
 - d. respect
2. PEASANTRY: He did a lot for the **peasantry**.
 - a. local people
 - b. place of worship
 - c. businessmen's club
 - x d. poor farmers
3. EGALITARIAN: This organization is **egalitarian**.
 - a. does not provide much information about itself the public
 - b. dislikes change
 - c. frequently asks a court of law for a judgement
 - x d. treats everyone who works for it as if they are equal
4. MYSTIQUE: He has lost his **mystique**.
 - a. his healthy body
 - x b. the secret way he makes other people think he has special power or skill
 - c. the woman who has been his lover while he is married to someone else
 - d. the hair on his top lip
5. UPBEAT: I'm feeling really **upbeat** about it.
 - a. upset
 - x b. good
 - c. hurt
 - d. confused
6. CRANNY: We found it in the **cranny**!
 - a. sale of unwanted objects
 - x b. narrow opening
 - c. space for storing things under the roof of a house
 - d. large wooden box
7. PIGTAIL: Does she have a **pigtail**?
 - x a. a rope of hair made by twisting bits together
 - b. a lot of cloth hanging behind a dress
 - c. a plant with pale pink flowers that hang down in short bunches
 - d. a lover
8. CROWBAR: He used a **crowbar**.
 - x a. heavy iron pole with a curved end
 - b. false name
 - c. sharp tool for making holes in leather
 - d. light metal walking stick
9. RUCK: He got hurt in the **ruck**.
 - a. hollow between the stomach and the top of the leg
 - b. pushing and shoving
 - x c. group of players gathered round the ball in some ball games
 - d. race across a field of snow
10. LECTERN: He stood at the **lectern**.
 - x a. desk to hold a book at a height for reading
 - b. table or block used for church sacrifices
 - c. place where you buy drinks
 - d. very edge

Eleventh 1000

1. EXCRETE: This was **excreted** recently.
x a. pushed or sent out
b. made clear
c. discovered by a science experiment
d. put on a list of illegal things
2. MUSSEL: They bought **mussels**.
x a. small glass balls for playing a game
b. shellfish
c. large purple fruits
d. pieces of soft paper to keep the clothes clean when eating
3. YOGA: She has started **yoga**.
x a. handwork done by knotting thread
b. a form of exercise for body and mind
c. a game where a cork stuck with feathers is hit between two players
d. a type of dance from eastern countries
4. COUNTERCLAIM: They made a **counterclaim**.
x a. a demand made by one side in a law case to match the other side's demand
b. a request for a shop to take back things with faults
c. An agreement between two companies to exchange work
d. a top cover for a bed
5. PUMA: They saw a **puma**.
x a. small house made of mud bricks
b. tree from hot, dry countries
c. very strong wind that sucks up anything in its path
d. large wild cat
6. PALLOR: His **pallor** caused them concern.
x a. his unusually high temperature
b. his lack of interest in anything
c. his group of friends
d. the paleness of his skin
7. APERITIF: She had an **aperitif**.
x a. a long chair for lying on with just one place to rest an arm
b. a private singing teacher
c. a large hat with tall feathers
d. a drink taken before a meal
8. HUTCH: Please clean the **hutch**.
x a. thing with metal bars to keep dirt out of water pipes
b. space in the back of a car for bags
c. metal piece in the middle of a bicycle wheel
d. cage for small animals
9. EMIR: We saw the **emir**.
x a. bird with long curved tail feathers
b. woman who cares for other people's children in Eastern countries
c. Middle Eastern chief with power in his land
d. house made from blocks of ice
10. HESSIAN: She bought some **hessian**.
x a. oily pinkish fish
b. stuff producing a happy state of mind
c. coarse cloth

d. strong-tasting root for flavouring food

Twelfth 1000

1. HAZE: We looked through the **haze**.
x a. small round window in a ship
b. unclear air
c. strips of wood or plastic to cover a window
d. list of names
2. SPLEEN: His **spleen** was damaged.
x a. knee bone
b. organ found near the stomach
c. pipe taking waste water from a house
d. respect for himself
3. SOLILOQUY: That was an excellent **soliloquy!**
x a. song for six people
b. short clever saying with a deep meaning
c. entertainment using lights and music
d. speech in the theatre by a character who is alone
4. REPTILE: She looked at the **reptile**.
x a. old hand-written book
b. animal with cold blood and a hard outside
c. person who sells things by knocking on doors
d. picture made by sticking many small pieces of different colours together
5. ALUM: This contains **alum**.
x a. a poisonous substance from a common plant
b. a soft material made of artificial threads
c. a tobacco powder once put in the nose
d. a chemical compound usually involving aluminium
6. REFECTORY: We met in the **refectory**.
x a. room for eating
b. office where legal papers can be signed
c. room for several people to sleep in
d. room with glass walls for growing plants
7. CAFFEINE: This contains a lot of **caffeine**.
x a. a substance that makes you sleepy
b. threads from very tough leaves
c. ideas that are not correct
d. a substance that makes you excited
8. IMPALE: He nearly got **impaled**.
x a. charged with a serious offence
b. put in prison
c. stuck through with a sharp instrument
d. involved in a dispute
9. COVEN: She is the leader of a **coven**.
x a. a small singing group
b. a business that is owned by the workers
c. a secret society
d. a group of church women who follow a strict religious life
10. TRILL: He practised the **trill**.
x a. ornament in a piece of music
b. type of stringed instrument
c. Way of throwing a ball
d. dance step of turning round very fast

on the toes

Thirteenth 1000

1. UBIQUITOUS: Many weeds are **ubiquitous**.
 - a. are difficult to get rid of
 - b. have long, strong roots
 - x c. are found in most countries
 - d. die away in the winter

2. TALON: Just look at those **talons!**
 - a. high points of mountains
 - x b. sharp hooks on the feet of a hunting bird
 - c. heavy metal coats to protect against weapons
 - d. people who make fools of themselves without realizing it

3. ROUBLE: He had a lot of **roubles**.
 - a. very precious red stones
 - b. distant members of his family
 - x c. Russian money
 - d. moral or other difficulties in the mind

4. JOVIAL: He was very **joyial**.
 - a. low on the social scale
 - b. likely to criticize others
 - x c. full of fun
 - d. friendly

5. COMMUNIQUE: I saw their **communiqué**.
 - a. critical report about an organization
 - b. garden owned by many members of a community
 - c. printed material used for advertising
 - x d. official announcement

6. PLANKTON: We saw a lot of **plankton**.
 - a. poisonous weeds that spread very quickly
 - x b. very small plants or animals found in water
 - c. trees producing hard wood
 - d. grey clay that often causes land to slip

7. SKYLARK: We watched a **skylark**.
 - a. show with aeroplanes flying in patterns
 - b. man-made object going round the earth
 - c. person who does funny tricks
 - x d. small bird that flies high as it sings

8. BEAGLE: He owns two **beagles**.
 - a. fast cars with roofs that fold down
 - b. large guns that can shoot many people quickly
 - x c. small dogs with long ears
 - d. houses built at holiday places

9. ATOLL: The **atoll** was beautiful.
 - x a. low island made of coral round a sea-water lake
 - b. work of art created by weaving pictures from fine thread
 - c. small crown with many precious jewels worn in the evening by women
 - d. place where a river flows through a narrow place full of large rocks

10. DIDACTIC: The story is very **didactic**.
 - x a. tries hard to teach something
 - b. is very difficult to believe
 - c. deals with exciting actions

- d. is written in a way which makes the reader unsure of the meaning

Fourteenth 1000

1. CANONICAL: These are **canonical** examples.
 - a. examples which break the usual rules
 - b. examples taken from a religious book
 - x c. regular and widely accepted examples
 - d. examples discovered very recently

2. ATOP: He was **atop** the hill.
 - a. at the bottom of
 - x b. at the top of
 - c. on this side of
 - d. on the far side of

3. MARSUPIAL: It is a **marsupial**.
 - a. an animal with hard feet
 - b. a plant that grows for several years
 - c. a plant with flowers that turn to face the sun
 - x d. an animal with a pocket for babies

4. AUGUR: It **augured** well.
 - x a. promised good things for the future
 - b. agreed well with what was expected
 - c. had a colour that looked good with something else
 - d. rang with a clear, beautiful sound

5. BAWDY: It was very **bowdy**.
 - a. unpredictable
 - b. enjoyable
 - c. rushed
 - x d. rude

6. GAUCHE: He was **gauche**.
 - a. talkative
 - b. flexible
 - x c. awkward
 - d. determined

7. THESAURUS: She used a **thesaurus**.
 - x a. a kind of dictionary
 - b. a chemical compound
 - c. a special way of speaking
 - d. an injection just under the skin

8. ERYTHROCYTE: It is an **erythrocyte**.
 - x a. a medicine to reduce pain
 - b. a red part of the blood
 - c. a reddish white metal
 - d. a member of the whale family

9. CORDILLERA: They were stopped by the **cordillera**.
 - a. a special law
 - b. an armed ship
 - x c. a line of mountains
 - d. the eldest son of the king

10. LIMPID: He looked into her **limpid** eyes.
 - x a. clear
 - b. tearful
 - c. deep brown
 - d. beautiful

Appendix 5: Teachers' Questionnaire

Dear teachers,

This questionnaire is a part of an academic research at Djilali Liabes University English department. It aims at taking advantage of your expertise in EFL teaching at the university to uncover some of the difficulties that EFL undergraduate students face because of their limited academic vocabulary. It is also designed to help better understand teachers' beliefs about undergraduates' autonomy and vocabulary instruction at the tertiary level. Thank you in advance for your kind cooperation.

A. Identification and Background

Gender : Male Female

Highest qualification: _____

Rank: _____

1. For how long have you been teaching English? _____ years

2. Please indicate the main levels in which you have experienced teaching English.

a. National Education:

- Middle school
- Secondary school

b. University:

- Bachelor level: (L1 L2 + L)
- Master Level:
- Doctoral Level

c. Others
.....

3. Please indicate the main subjects you have taught at the university.

- | | |
|---|---|
| Literature <input type="checkbox"/> | Culture and Civilisation <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Phonetics <input type="checkbox"/> | Linguistics <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Study skills <input type="checkbox"/> | Grammar <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Written expression <input type="checkbox"/> | Others |
| Oral expression <input type="checkbox"/> | |

B. Teachers' beliefs and practices

1. If you have taught EFL undergraduate students, how do you generally evaluate their academic language proficiency?

Weak average satisfactory good

2. Do you think that undergraduate students differentiate between social English and academic English?

Yes, considerably yes, to some extent yes, to a little extent no

- Please, justify your answer.

3. What language component do undergraduate students face more difficulty with in terms of:

- 1) Comprehension 2) participation 3) performance in oral/written exams/tests/essay writing?

Grammar	<input type="checkbox"/>	grammar	<input type="checkbox"/>	grammar	<input type="checkbox"/>
Vocabulary	<input type="checkbox"/>	vocabulary	<input type="checkbox"/>	vocabulary	<input type="checkbox"/>
Pronunciation	<input type="checkbox"/>	pronunciation	<input type="checkbox"/>	pronunciation	<input type="checkbox"/>

4. Do you feel that your students' vocabulary knowledge matches the requirements of the academic language proficiency expected from a university student?

YES, consider ly yes, to some exten yes, to a little exten No

5. Do you think that undergraduate students are familiar with the different types of English vocabulary and with the type of vocabulary needed for academic English and university studies?

Yes, considerably yes, to some extent yes, to a little extent No

6. Do you think that undergraduate students possess sufficient academic vocabulary to understand the content of your teaching subject?

Yes, considerably yes, to some extent yes, to a little extent No

7. Do you think that undergraduate students possess sufficient academic vocabulary to meet the writing requirements of assignments and exams?

Yes, considerably yes, to some extent yes, to a little extent No

8. Do undergraduate students ask you about the meaning of unfamiliar vocabulary during the delivery of the lectures?

Never rarely sometimes often always

➤ **If yes, what type of vocabulary they generally enquire about?**

- High frequency/conversational vocabulary (tier one)
- General academic vocabulary (tier two)
- Technical vocabulary (tier three)
- All of the above

9. Do you deliberately explain vocabulary and/or ask your students if there were any difficult/unfamiliar words that hamper their understanding of the lectures?

Never rarely sometimes often always

10. If yes, do you help them learn the unfamiliar words?

Never rarely sometimes often always

11. Do you help them differentiate between the different types of vocabulary?

Never rarely sometimes often always

12. Please select the statements that best describe you.

Statements	yes	no
I provide them with words' meaning (definition/synonym/antonym)		
I provide them with the word's equivalent in French or/and Arabic		
I provide them with example sentences		
I encourage them to make up sentences with the new words		
I encourage them to keep a vocabulary notebook.		
I review the new words in following lectures.		
I regularly check students' knowledge of the new words in discrete oral/written tests.		
I integrate vocabulary testing within content-based exams.		
I do not have enough time to teach the content and deal with (academic) vocabulary		
I do not know how to integrate academic vocabulary teaching in my module/lectures.		
I do not know which words to teach		
I think students are not interested in studying vocabulary in class		
I ask the students to check the unfamiliar words before class to make them rely on themselves.		
Vocabulary learning is the responsibility of the students not the teachers.		
Students can learn new words implicitly only through exposure to the language without teachers' support		
I prefer to teach them vocabulary learning strategies than teaching them individual words		
Vocabulary teaching is the responsibility of middle/secondary school teachers not university teachers		
Teaching the content of my subject is more important than teaching vocabulary		

13. Based on your experience, how important do you find academic vocabulary in developing EFL learners' academic language proficiency at the university level?

.....

14. What would you consider as a contributing factor to learners' lack of academic vocabulary knowledge?

.....

15. What is your opinion about devoting a teaching subject (module) to vocabulary as a separate skill?

16. Do you feel acquainted with vocabulary teaching principle?

Yes, considerably Yes, to some extent to a little extent No

➤ If yes, what is the source of your knowledge?

Pre-service education	
In-service training	
Own teaching experience and reflection	
Daily exchange with colleagues	
Research-based knowledge	

17. Based on your experience in EFL teaching with undergraduate students, please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

	SD	D	NAND	A	SA
DLED undergraduate students have in general a fair degree of autonomy and maturity					
They are motivated learners					
They use different strategies to learn new vocabulary items					
They often use the already studied words in new situations					
They keep notebooks /records of the new studied words					
They regularly enquire about new words					
They use dictionaries to check words' meaning					
They are always motivated to share their knowledge about new vocabulary					
They try to guess meaning from context					
They achieve extra work (outside class) and ask for teachers' correction					
They always complain about their limited vocabulary knowledge without making the necessary efforts to develop it.					
They rely on the teacher to explain the unfamiliar words					
They always blame others for their poor grades					
They rely most of the time on the teacher to provide them with thecourse handouts					
They rely only on the handouts and expect the teachers to explain everything in the handouts.					
They are absent-minded during lectures					
They believe that homework and outside assignments are not useful.					
They are generally disorganized					
They do not concentrate and they ask about things and words that have already been explained					
They are generally late and forget about homework/assignments					

Thank you very much for your time and cooperation

Appendix 6: Students' Questionnaire

Dear students,

This questionnaire is a part of an academic research at Djilali Liabes University English department. It aims at investigating undergraduate students' general academic vocabulary knowledge and its impact on their academic achievement .Please note that you do not have to write your name and the information will be used only for research purposes. There are no right or wrong answers. We value your honest and detailed responses. Thank you in advance for your kind cooperation.

C. Identification and Background

Gender: Male Female
 Age: _____ years old
 University level: First year Second year Third year
 Secondary school stream: (Tick the appropriate box)

1. Literature and Philosophy Stream	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Foreign Language Stream	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Mathematics Stream	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Technical Mathematics Stream	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Experimental Sciences Stream	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Economy and Management Stream	<input type="checkbox"/>

BAC average mark: _____/20 _____

English mark at the BAC exam: _____/20 _____

1. Is this your first diploma? YES NO

2. Why are you studying English?

1. I like speaking English that is why I enrolled in this course.	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. It is my parents' choice.	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. My BAC marks did not meet the admission requirements of my first choice.	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. I am more likely to find a job with a diploma in English than in other disciplines.	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. I travel a lot and I need English for communication with foreigners.	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. I think people who speak more than one language are smart and very knowledgeable	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. I decided to choose English because it is a global language.	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Studying English is fashionable	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. I was oriented to this course	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. I need English to make research and further my knowledge of my specialty/first diploma as English is the language of publication.	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. I want to pursue advanced studies in my specialty in an English speaking country.	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. I have a lot of free time and I want to benefit from it doing something useful.	<input type="checkbox"/>
Others:	<input type="checkbox"/>
.....	<input type="checkbox"/>

D. Beliefs and Practices

1. How would you evaluate your level in English?

Weak average satisfactory good

2. Do you feel that your current level in English enables you to major in the English course?

Yes To some extent To a limited extent No

3. Do you feel any difference between the English studied at Middle/secondary school and the English you are studying at the university?

Yes To some extent To a limited extent No

➤ If yes what makes the difference?

Grammar Vocabulary Pronunciation

4. Do you face difficulty understanding the content of the different teaching subjects (modules)?

Yes To some extent To a limited extent No

➤ If yes, what language component causes you more difficulty?

Grammar Vocabulary Pronunciation

5. Is the vocabulary used in the different lectures/assignment/exams the same you use when you speak with your classmates/friends in English?

Yes To some extent To a limited extent No

6. There are three types of vocabulary in English; High frequency/ conversational vocabulary (Tier one), General academic vocabulary (Tier two), and Technical Vocabulary (Tier three). Do you know the exact difference between them and when and how to use each type?

Yes To some extent To a limited extent No

7. Where have you first heard about these types of vocabulary?

1. Teachers		2. Library/Books	
3. Classmates		4. Friends	
5. Internet		6. In this survey	

8. What type of vocabulary causes you more difficulty?

Tier one Tier two Tier three

9. How do you generally feel when you do not understand a lecture/assignment/exam because of the difficult/unfamiliar vocabulary?

.....

10. What do you do when you encounter unfamiliar words during lectures? How often?

Vocabulary learning strategies inside classroom	never	rarely	sometimes	often	always
I try to guess meaning from context.					
I ask a classmate.					
I ask the teacher.					
I use a dictionary to check out meaning.					
I take note of the words and check them at home.					
Nothing					

11. Do your teachers explain the unfamiliar words along with content of the teaching subject?

Never rarely sometimes often always

12. Do you like when your teachers explicitly teach the unfamiliar vocabulary along with the content of the teaching subject?

➤ If yes, state why.

English vocabulary is large and I cannot learn it without teachers' support.	
When the teachers explain the unfamiliar words they help me concentrate on the lecture instead of wasting time checking meaning.	
Teachers' explanations are simple, clear, concise and related to the lecture context compared to the dictionary definitions.	
Teaching vocabulary is part of teaching the language and teaching the language is as important as teaching the content.	
Explicitly teaching vocabulary by the teachers helps me better understand and memorize the studied words.	
I am often afraid to ask questions in class, explicit teaching of vocabulary is then in my benefit.	
Others:	
.....	
.....	

➤ If no, state why.

I prefer relying on myself to learn vocabulary.	
Teachers waste time teaching vocabulary instead of teaching the content.	
Teachers do not give all the possible meanings of the word like in the dictionary.	
Teaching vocabulary is not teachers' responsibility but students'.	
Others:	
.....	
.....	

13. Do you think your vocabulary knowledge has improved in terms of quantity and quality after you joined the university?

Yes To some extent To a limited extent No

14. Do you agree with having a teaching subject/module devoted to general academic vocabulary instruction?

Yes To some extent To a limited extent No

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire

Appendix 7: The New General Service List (GSL)

1 the 2 be 3 of 4 and 5 a 6 to 7 in 8 he 9 have 10 it 11 that 12 for 13 they 14 I 15 with 16 as 17 not 18 on 19 she 20 at 21 by 22 this 23 we 24 you 25 do 26 but 27 from 28 or 29 which 30 one 31 would 32 all 33 will 34 there 35 say 36 who 37 make 38 when 39 can 40 more 41 if 42 no 43 man 44 out 45 other 46 so 47 what 48 time 49 up 50 go 51 about 52 than 53 into 54 could 55 state 56 only 57 new 58 year 59 some 60 take 61 come 62 these 63 know 64 see 65 use 66 get 67 like 68 then 69 first 70 any 71 work 72 now 73 may 74 such 75 give 76 over 77 think 78 most 79 even 80 find 81 day 82 also 83 after 84 way 85 many 86 must 87 look 88 before 89 great 90 back 91 through 92 long 93 where 94 much 95 should 96 well 97 people 98 down 99 own 100 just 101 because 102 good 103 each 104 those 105 feel 106 seem 107 how 108 high 109 too 110 place 111 little 112 world 113 very 114 still 115 nation 116 hand 117 old 118 life 119 tell 120 write 121 become 122 here 123 show 124 house 125 both 126 between 127 need 128 mean 129 call 130 develop 131 under 132 last 133 right 134 move 135 thing 136 general 137 school 138 never 139 same 140 another 141 begin 142 while 143 number 144 part 145 turn 146 real 147 leave 148 might 149 want 150 point 151 form 152 off 153 child 154 few 155 small 156 since 157 against 158 ask 159 late 160 home 161 interest 162 large 163 person 164 end 165 open 166 public 167 follow 168 during 169 present 170 without 171 again 172 hold 173 govern 174 around 175 possible 176 head 177 consider 178 word 179 program 180 problem 181 however 182 lead 183 system 184 set 185 order 186 eye 187 plan 188 run 189 keep 190 face 191 fact 192 group 193 play 194 stand 195 increase 196 early 197 course 198 change 199 help 200 line 201 city 202 put 203 close 204 case 205 force 206 meet 207 once 208 water 209 upon 210 war 211 build 212 hear 213 light 214 unite 215 live 216 every 217 country 218 bring 219 center 220 let 221 side 222 try 223 provide 224 continue 225 name 226 certain 227 power 228 pay 229 result 230 question 231 study 232 woman 233 member 234 until 235 far 236 night 237 always 238 service 239 away 240 report

241 something 242 company 243 week 244 church 245 toward 246 start 247 social 248 room 249 figure 250 nature 251 though 252 young 253 less 254 enough 255 almost 256 read 257 include 258 president 259 nothing 260 yet 261 better 262 big 263 boy 264 cost 265 business 266 value 267 second 268 why 269 clear 270 expect 271 family 272 complete 273 act 274 sense 275 mind 276 experience 277 art 278 next 279 near 280 direct 281 car 282 law 283 industry 284 important 285 girl 286 god 287 several 288 matter 289 usual 290 rather 291 per 292 often 293 kind 294 among 295 white 296 reason 297 action 298 return 299 foot 300 care 301 simple 302 within 303 love 304 human 305 along 306 appear 307 doctor 308 believe 309 speak 310 active 311 student 312 month 313 drive 314 concern 315 best 316 door 317 hope 318 example 319 inform 320 body 321 ever 322 least 323 probable 324 understand 325 reach 326 effect 327 different 328 idea 329 whole 330 control 331 condition 332 field 333 pass 334 fall 335 note 336 special 337 talk 338 particular 339 today 340 measure 341 walk 342 teach 343 low 344 hour 345 type 346 carry 347 rate 348 remain 349 full 350 street 351 easy 352 although 353 record 354 sit 355 determine 356 level 357 local 358 sure 359 receive 360 thus 361 moment 362 spirit 363 train 364 college 365 religion 366 perhaps 367 music 368 grow 369 free 370 cause 371 serve 372 age 373 book 374 board 375 recent 376 sound 377 office 378 cut 379 step 380 class 381 TRUE 382 history 383 position 384 above 385 strong 386 friend 387 necessary 388 add 389 court 390 deal 391 tax 392 support 393 party 394 whether 395 either 396 land 397 material 398 happen 399 education 400 death 401 agree 402 arm 403 mother 404 across 405 quite 406 anything 407 town 408 past 409 view 410 society 411 manage 412 answer 413 break 414 organize 415 half 416 fire 417 lose 418 money 419 stop 420 actual 421 already 422 effort 423 wait 424 department 425 able 426 political 427 learn 428 voice 429 air 430 together 431 shall 432 cover 433 common 434 subject 435 draw 436 short 437 wife 438 treat 439 limit 440 road 441 letter 442 color 443 behind 444 produce 445 send 446 term 447 total 448 university 449 rise 450 century 451 success 452 minute 453 remember 454 purpose 455 test 456 fight 457 watch 458 situation 459 south 460 ago 461 difference 462 stage 463 father 464 table 465 rest 466 bear 467 entire 468 market 469 prepare 470 explain 471 offer 472 plant 473 charge 474 ground 475 west 476 picture 477 hard 478 front 479 lie 480 modern

481 dark 482 surface 483 rule 484 regard 485 dance 486 peace 487 observe 488 future 489 wall 490 farm 491 claim 492 firm 493 operation 494 further 495 pressure 496 property 497 morning 498 amount 499 top 500 outside 501 piece 502 sometimes 503 beauty 504 trade 505 fear 506 demand 507 wonder 508 list 509 accept 510 judge 511 paint 512 mile 513 soon 514 responsible 515 allow 516 secretary 517 heart 518 union 519 slow 520 island 521 enter 522 drink 523 story 524 experiment 525 stay 526 paper 527 space 528 apply 529 decide 530 share 531 desire 532 spend 533 sign 534 therefore 535 various 536 visit 537 supply 538 officer 539 doubt 540 private 541 immediate 542 wish 543 contain 544 feed 545 raise 546 describe 547 ready 548 horse 549 son 550 exist 551 north 552 suggest 553 station 554 effective 555 food 556 deep 557 wide 558 alone 559 character 560 english 561 happy 562 critic 563 unit 564 product 565 respect 566 drop 567 nor 568 fill 569 cold 570 represent 571 sudden 572 basic 573 kill 574 fine 575 trouble 576 mark 577 single 578 press 579 heavy 580 attempt 581 origin 582 standard 583 everything 584 committee 585 moral 586 black 587 red 588 bad 589 earth 590 accord 591 else 592 mere 593 die 594 remark 595 basis 596 except 597 equal 598 east 599 event 600 employ 601 defense 602 smile 603 river 604 improve 605 game 606 detail 607 account 608 cent 609 sort 610 reduce 611 club 612 buy 613 attention 614 ship 615 decision 616 wear 617 inside 618 win 619 suppose 620 ride 621 operate 622 realize 623 sale 624 choose 625 park 626 square 627 vote 628 price 629 district 630 dead 631 foreign 632 window 633 beyond 634 direction 635 strike 636 instead 637 trial 638 practice 639 catch 640 opportunity 641 likely 642 recognize 643 permit 644 serious 645 attack 646 floor 647 association 648 spring 649 lot 650 stock 651 lack 652 hair 653 science 654 relation 655 profession 656 pattern 657 quick 658 medical 659 influence 660 occasion 661 machine 662 compare 663 husband 664 blue 665 international 666 fair 667 especially 668 indeed 669 imagine 670 surprise 671 average 672 official 673 temperature 674 difficult 675 sing 676 hit 677 tree 678 race 679 police 680 touch 681 relative 682 throw 683 quality 684 former 685 pull 686 chance 687 prove 688 argue 689 settle 690 growth 691 date 692 heat 693 save 694 performance 695 count 696 production 697 listen 698 main 699 pick 700 size 701 cool 702 army 703 patient 704 combine 705 summer 706 hall 707 slight 708 command 709 enjoy 710 length 711 proper 712 express 713 health 714 chief 715 evening 716 store 717 language 718 degree 719 lay 720 current

721 gun 722 dog 723 hotel 724 strange 725 separate 726 boat 727 fail 728 clean 729 dress 730 anyone 731 gain 732 pain 733 object 734 knowledge 735 depend 736 relate 737 below 738 dollar 739 advance 740 shape 741 arrange 742 population 743 yes 744 sell 745 mention 746 dry 747 check 748 poet 749 sleep 750 join 751 hot 752 bed 753 electric 754 dream 755 due 756 season 757 manner 758 fit 759 left 760 progress 761 neither 762 strength 763 notice 764 finish 765 opinion 766 bill 767 western 768 truth 769 wrong 770 travel 771 suit 772 bank 773 exact 774 honor 775 brother 776 quiet 777 marry 778 corner 779 handle 780 danger 781 hospital 782 pool 783 promise 784 blood 785 shoot 786 scene 787 literature 788 arrive 789 film 790 base 791 freedom 792 bar 793 maybe 794 hang 795 suffer 796 manufacture 797 frequent 798 rock 799 loss 800 burn 801 sun 802 audience 803 essential 804 glass 805 prevent 806 poem 807 poor 808 inch 809 song 810 skill 811 post 812 popular 813 radio 814 animal 815 conscious 816 worth 817 eat 818 election 819 faith 820 wave 821 murder 822 model 823 forget 824 extend 825 edge 826 distance 827 memory 828 recommend 829 division 830 staff 831 leg 832 discussion 833 address 834 fly 835 dependent 836 ball 837 shake 838 frame 839 extreme 840 engineer 841 thick 842 comfort 843 latter 844 camp 845 oil 846 discover 847 examine 848 difficulty 849 tooth 850 middle 851 choice 852 refer 853 enemy 854 practical 855 marriage 856 bridge 857 declare 858 lady 859 cross 860 daily 861 afternoon 862 attend 863 director 864 balance 865 wash 866 capital 867 speed 868 block 869 citizen 870 mouth 871 hill 872 green 873 please 874 motor 875 agency 876 encourage 877 governor 878 worry 879 affair 880 shoulder 881 bright 882 mass 883 sample 884 pretty 885 repeat 886 roll 887 push 888 trip 889 council 890 clothe 891 parent 892 forward 893 sharp 894 straight 895 gas 896 weight 897 discuss 898 fix 899 load 900 master 901 whatever 902 round 903 rapid 904 laugh 905 finger 906 spot 907 propose 908 shop 909 broad 910 replace 911 reply 912 extent 913 lock 914 employee 915 ahead 916 sight 917 spread 918 wind 919 approve 920 destroy 921 none 922 pound 923 fame 924 importance 925 reflect 926 advantage 927 match 928 regular 929 wage 930 refuse 931 existence

932 hardly 933 perform 934 title 935 tend 936 exercise 937 thin 938 coat 939 bit 940 mountain 941 youth 942 behavior 943 newspaper 944 secret 945 ability 946 sea 947 soft 948 justice 949 reasonable 950 circle 951 solid 952 page 953 weapon 954 fast 955 representative 956 search 957 pure 958 escape 959 crowd 960 stick

961 telephone 962 avoid 963 garden 964 favor 965 news 966 unless 967 dinner 968 someone 969 signal 970 yard 971 ideal 972 warm 973 miss 974 shelter 975 soldier 976 article 977 cry 978 captain 979 familiar 980 seat 981 guest 982 weak 983 excite 984 king 985 everyone 986 wine 987 hole 988 duty 989 beat 990 perfect 991 bottom 992 compose 993 battle 994 expense 995 cattle 996 flow 997 kitchen 998 dust 999 bottle 1000 admit 1001 tear 1002 tire 1003 expression 1004 exception 1005 application 1006 belong 1007 rich 1008 failure 1009 struggle 1010 instrument 1011 variety 1012 narrow 1013 theater 1014 collection 1015 rain 1016 review 1017 preserve 1018 leadership 1019 clay 1020 daughter 1021 fellow 1022 swing 1023 thank 1024 library 1025 fat 1026 reserve 1027 tour 1028 nice 1029 warn 1030 ring 1031 bitter 1032 chair 1033 yesterday 1034 scientific 1035 flower 1036 wheel 1037 solution 1038 aim 1039 gather 1040 invite 1041 moreover 1042 fresh 1043 forest 1044 winter 1045 box 1046 belief 1047 ordinary 1048 impossible 1049 print 1050 gray 1051 taste 1052 lip 1053 speech 1054 reference 1055 stain 1056 connection 1057 otherwise 1058 stretch 1059 knife 1060 village 1061 blow 1062 mistake 1063 sweet 1064 shout 1065 divide 1066 guard 1067 worse 1068 exchange 1069 rare 1070 commercial 1071 request 1072 appoint 1073 agent 1074 dependence 1075 bird 1076 wild 1077 motion 1078 guess 1079 neighbor 1080 seed 1081 fashion 1082 loan 1083 correct 1084 plain 1085 mail 1086 retire 1087 opposite 1088 prefer 1089 safe 1090 evil 1091 double 1092 wood 1093 empty 1094 baby 1095 advise 1096 content 1097 sport 1098 lift 1099 literary 1100 curious 1101 tie 1102 flat 1103 message 1104 neck 1105 hate 1106 dirt 1107 delight 1108 trust 1109 nobody 1110 valley 1111 tool 1112 presence 1113 cook 1114 railroad 1115 minister 1116 coffee 1117 brush 1118 beside 1119 collect 1120 guide 1121 luck 1122 profit 1123 lord 1124 everybody 1125 prison 1126 cloud 1127 slave 1128 chairman 1129 soil 1130 distinguish 1131 introduce 1132 urge 1133 blind 1134 arise 1135 upper 1136 curve 1137 membership 1138 key 1139 entertain 1140 soul 1141 neighborhood 1142 friendly 1143 pair 1144 stone 1145 lean 1146 protect 1147 advertise 1148 mystery 1149 welcome 1150 knee 1151 jump 1152 snake 1153 stream 1154 avenue 1155 brown 1156 disease 1157 hat 1158 excellent 1159 formal 1160 snow 1161 sheet 1162 somehow 1163 unity 1164 sky 1165 rough 1166 smooth 1167 weather 1168 steady 1169 threaten 1170 depth 1171 oppose 1172 deliver 1173 ancient 1174 pray 1175 adopt 1176 birth 1177 appearance 1178 universe 1179 busy 1180 hurry 1181 coast 1182 forth 1183 smell 1184 furnish 1185 female 1186 hide 1187 wire 1188 proposal 1189 ought 1190 victory 1191 quarter 1192 engine 1193 customer 1194 waste 1195 fool 1196 intend 1197 intention 1198 desk 1199 politics 1200 passage

1201 lawyer 1202 root 1203 climb 1204 metal 1205 gradual 1206 hunt 1207 protection 1208 satisfy 1209 roof 1210 branch 1211 pleasure 1212 witness 1213 loose 1214 nose 1215 mine 1216 band 1217 aside 1218 risk 1219 tomorrow 1220 remind 1221 ear 1222 fish 1223 shore 1224 operator 1225 civilize 1226 being 1227 silent 1228 screen 1229 bind 1230 earn 1231 pack 1232 colony 1233 besides 1234 slip 1235 cousin 1236 scale 1237 relief 1238 explore 1239 stem 1240 brain 1241 musician 1242 defend 1243 bend 1244 somebody 1245 shadow 1246 mix 1247 smoke 1248 description 1249 fruit 1250 guilt 1251 yield 1252 sensitive 1253 salt 1254 pale 1255 sweep 1256 completion 1257 throat 1258 agriculture 1259 admire 1260 gentle 1261 dozen 1262 particle 1263 pleasant 1264 bay 1265 cup 1266 competition 1267 moon 1268 terrible 1269 strip 1270 mechanic 1271 shock 1272 conversation 1273 angle 1274 tall 1275 plenty 1276 star 1277 yellow 1278 sick 1279 thorough 1280 absolute 1281 succeed 1282 surround 1283 proud 1284 dear 1285 card 1286 lake 1287 breath 1288 afraid 1289 silence 1290 onto 1291 shoe 1292 somewhere 1293 chain 1294 slide 1295 copy 1296 machinery 1297 wake 1298 severe 1299 pocket 1300 bone 1301 honest 1302 freeze 1303 dictionary 1304 calm 1305 swim 1306 ice 1307 male 1308 skin 1309 crack 1310 rush 1311 wet 1312 meat 1313 commerce 1314 joint 1315 gift 1316 host 1317 suspect 1318 path 1319 uncle 1320 afford 1321 instant 1322 satisfactory 1323 height 1324 track 1325 confidence 1326 grass

1327 suggestion 1328 favorite 1329 breakfast 1330 apart 1331 chest 1332 entrance 1333 march
 1334 sink 1335 northern 1336 iron 1337 alive 1338 ill 1339 bag 1340 disturb 1341 native 1342
 bedroom 1343 violent 1344 beneath 1345 pause 1346 tough 1347 substance 1348 threat 1349
 charm 1350 absence 1351 factory 1352 spite 1353 meal 1354 universal 1355 accident 1356 highway
 1357 sentence 1358 liberty 1359 wise 1360 noise 1361 discovery 1362 tube 1363 flash 1364 twist
 1365 fence 1366 childhood 1367 joy 1368 sister 1369 sad 1370 efficiency 1371 disappear 1372
 defeat 1373 extensive 1374 rent 1375 comparison 1376 possess 1377 grace 1378 flesh 1379 liquid
 1380 scientist 1381 ease 1382 heaven 1383 milk 1384 sympathy 1385 rank 1386 restaurant 1387
 frequency 1388 angry 1389 shade 1390 accuse 1391 necessity 1392 knock 1393 loud 1394
 permanent 1395 row 1396 lovely 1397 confuse 1398 gold 1399 frighten 1400 solve 1401 grave 1402
 salary 1403 photograph 1404 advice 1405 abroad 1406 wound 1407 virtue 1408 dare 1409 queen
 1410 extra 1411 attract 1412 numerous 1413 pink 1414 gate 1415 expensive 1416 shut 1417
 chicken 1418 forgive 1419 holy 1420 wooden 1421 prompt 1422 crime 1423 sorry 1424 republic
 1425 anger 1426 visitor 1427 pile 1428 violence 1429 steel 1430 wing 1431 stair 1432 partner 1433
 delay 1434 gentleman 1435 pour 1436 confusion 1437 damage 1438 kick 1439 safety 1440 burst

1441 network 1442 resistance 1443 screw 1444 pride 1445 till 1446 hire 1447 verb 1448 preach
 1449 clerk 1450 everywhere 1451 anyway 1452 fan 1453 connect 1454 egg 1455 efficient 1456
 grain 1457 calculate 1458 drag 1459 opposition 1460 worship 1461 arrest 1462 discipline 1463
 string 1464 harbor 1465 camera 1466 mechanism 1467 cow 1468 grand 1469 funny 1470 insurance
 1471 reduction 1472 strict 1473 lesson 1474 tight 1475 sand 1476 plate 1477 qualify 1478
 elsewhere 1479 mad 1480 interference 1481 pupil 1482 fold 1483 royal 1484 valuable 1485 whisper
 1486 anybody 1487 hurt 1488 excess 1489 quantity 1490 fun 1491 mud 1492 extension 1493
 recognition 1494 kiss 1495 crop 1496 sail 1497 attractive 1498 habit 1499 relieve 1500 wisdom 1501
 persuade 1502 certainty 1503 cloth 1504 eager 1505 deserve 1506 sympathetic 1507 cure 1508 trap
 1509 puzzle 1510 powder 1511 raw 1512 mankind 1513 glad 1514 blame 1515 whenever 1516
 anxiety 1517 bus 1518 tremble 1519 sacred 1520 fortunate 1521 glory 1522 golden 1523 neat 1524
 weekend 1525 treasury 1526 overcome 1527 cat 1528 sacrifice 1529 complain 1530 elect 1531 roar
 1532 sake 1533 temple 1534 self 1535 compete 1536 nurse 1537 stuff 1538 stomach 1539 peculiar
 1540 repair 1541 storm 1542 ton 1543 desert 1544 allowance 1545 servant 1546 hunger 1547
 conscience 1548 bread 1549 crash 1550 tip 1551 strengthen 1552 proof 1553 generous 1554 sir
 1555 tonight 1556 whip 1557 tongue 1558 mill 1559 merchant 1560 coal 1561 ruin 1562
 introduction 1563 courage 1564 actor 1565 belt 1566 stir 1567 package 1568 punish 1569 reflection
 1570 breathe 1571 anywhere 1572 amuse 1573 dull 1574 fate 1575 net 1576 fellowship 1577 fault
 1578 furniture 1579 beam 1580 pencil 1581 border 1582 disappoint 1583 flame 1584 joke 1585
 bless 1586 corn 1587 shell 1588 tempt 1589 supper 1590 destruction 1591 dive 1592 anxious 1593
 shine 1594 cheap 1595 dish 1596 distant 1597 greet 1598 flood 1599 excuse 1600 insect 1601 ocean
 1602 ceremony 1603 decrease 1604 prize 1605 harm 1606 insure 1607 verse 1608 pot 1609 sincere
 1610 cotton 1611 leaf 1612 rub 1613 medicine 1614 stroke 1615 bite 1616 lung 1617 lonely 1618
 admission 1619 stupid 1620 scratch 1621 composition 1622 broadcast 1623 drum 1624 resist 1625
 neglect 1626 absent 1627 passenger 1628 adventure 1629 beg 1630 pipe 1631 beard 1632 bold
 1633 meanwhile 1634 devil 1635 cheer 1636 nut 1637 split 1638 melt 1639 swear 1640 sugar 1641
 bury 1642 wipe 1643 faint 1644 creature 1645 tail 1646 wealth 1647 earnest 1648 translate 1649
 suspicion 1650 noble 1651 inquiry 1652 journey 1653 hesitate 1654 extraordinary 1655 borrow
 1656 owe 1657 funeral 1658 ambition 1659 mixture 1660 slope 1661 criminal 1662 seldom 1663
 map 1664 spin 1665 praise 1666 spare 1667 plow 1668 telegraph 1669 barrel 1670 straighten 1671
 scarce 1672 lunch 1673 slavery 1674 creep 1675 sweat 1676 gay 1677 stiff 1678 brave 1679 seize
 1680 convenient

1681 horizon 1682 moderate 1683 complicate 1684 dig 1685 curse 1686 weigh 1687 priest 1688
 excessive 1689 quarrel 1690 widow 1691 modest 1692 dine 1693 politician 1694 custom 1695
 educate 1696 salesman 1697 nail 1698 tap 1699 eastern 1700 possession 1701 satisfaction 1702
 behave 1703 mercy 1704 scatter 1705 objection 1706 silver 1707 tent 1708 saddle 1709 wrap 1710

nest 1711 grind 1712 spell 1713 plaster 1714 arch 1715 swell 1716 friendship 1717 bath 1718 bundle 1719 grateful 1720 crown 1721 boundary 1722 nowhere 1723 asleep 1724 clock 1725 boil 1726 altogether 1727 lend 1728 holiday 1729 precious 1730 wander 1731 ugly 1732 reputation 1733 ticket 1734 pretend 1735 dismiss 1736 delicate 1737 despair 1738 awake 1739 tea 1740 FALSE 1741 fortune 1742 cap 1743 thread 1744 haste 1745 bare 1746 shirt 1747 bargain 1748 leather 1749 rail 1750 butter 1751 dot 1752 inquire 1753 warmth 1754 decisive 1755 vessel 1756 pity 1757 steam 1758 pin 1759 bound 1760 companion 1761 toe 1762 reward 1763 forbid 1764 wherever 1765 tower 1766 bathe 1767 lodge 1768 swallow 1769 multiply 1770 bow 1771 kingdom 1772 garage 1773 permission 1774 pump 1775 prevention 1776 urgent 1777 aunt 1778 zero 1779 idle 1780 fever 1781 christmas 1782 regret 1783 jaw 1784 soap 1785 pronounce 1786 empire 1787 bowl 1788 outline 1789 organ 1790 imitation 1791 caution 1792 mineral 1793 disagree 1794 blade 1795 trick 1796 treasure 1797 immense 1798 convenience 1799 disapprove 1800 destructive 1801 fork 1802 noon 1803 ownership 1804 tune 1805 polish 1806 poison 1807 shame 1808 loyalty 1809 cottage 1810 astonish 1811 shave 1812 feather 1813 sauce 1814 lid 1815 debt 1816 fade 1817 confess 1818 classification 1819 descend 1820 cape 1821 mild 1822 clever 1823 envelope 1824 invention 1825 sheep 1826 splendid 1827 stamp 1828 float 1829 brick 1830 rice 1831 businessman 1832 backward 1833 qualification 1834 artificial 1835 attraction 1836 lamp 1837 curl 1838 shower 1839 elder 1840 bunch 1841 bell 1842 steer 1843 flavor 1844 spit 1845 rob 1846 cream 1847 interrupt 1848 pen 1849 weave 1850 orange 1851 rescue 1852 crush 1853 humble 1854 fancy 1855 decay 1856 polite 1857 tribe 1858 bleed 1859 coin 1860 fond 1861 autumn 1862 classify 1863 omit 1864 loyal 1865 needle 1866 lessen 1867 complaint 1868 pad 1869 steep 1870 skirt 1871 curtain 1872 calculation 1873 laughter 1874 solemn 1875 grease 1876 interfere 1877 explode 1878 fasten 1879 flag 1880 resign 1881 postpone 1882 patience 1883 boast 1884 rope 1885 envy 1886 airplane 1887 rid 1888 shield 1889 veil 1890 kneel 1891 tray 1892 explosive 1893 brass 1894 taxi 1895 wax 1896 duck 1897 button 1898 invent 1899 remedy 1900 bush 1901 thunder 1902 weaken 1903 poverty 1904 scrape 1905 arrow 1906 tender 1907 cruel 1908 soften 1909 mouse 1910 hay 1911 anyhow 1912 alike 1913 circular 1914 juice 1915 shelf 1916 bake 1917 hatred 1918 cautious 1919 basket 1920 wreck

1921 width 1922 confident 1923 log 1924 heap 1925 suck 1926 ladder 1927 gap 1928 obey 1929 hut 1930 axe 1931 translation 1932 collar 1933 delivery 1934 reproduce 1935 confession 1936 pan 1937 prejudice 1938 voyage 1939 tobacco 1940 simplicity 1941 paste 1942 cake 1943 elephant 1944 ribbon 1945 harvest 1946 ashamed 1947 cave 1948 customary 1949 thief 1950 damp 1951 sew 1952 rust 1953 separation 1954 waiter 1955 pet 1956 straw 1957 upset 1958 towel 1959 refresh 1960 essence 1961 fur 1962 ambitious 1963 defendant 1964 daylight 1965 dip 1966 suspicious 1967 imaginary 1968 ash 1969 carriage 1970 educator 1971 saw 1972 stove 1973 rubber 1974 rug 1975 misery 1976 awkward 1977 rival 1978 roast 1979 deed 1980 preference 1981 explosion 1982 theatrical 1983 cultivate 1984 collector 1985 miserable 1986 wrist 1987 rabbit 1988 accustom 1989 tide 1990 insult 1991 thumb 1992 lump 1993 annoy 1994 toy 1995 heal 1996 shallow 1997 repetition 1998 soup 1999 whistle 2000 scenery 2001 apple 2002 offense 2003 cork 2004 ripe 2005 temper 2006 sore 2007 pinch 2008 diamond 2009 razor 2010 imaginative 2011 hook 2012 copper 2013 landlord 2014 influential 2015 rot 2016 hollow 2017 enclose 2018 harden 2019 wicked 2020 stiffen 2021 silk 2022 upright 2023 selfish 2024 stripe 2025 pig 2026 inward 2027 excellence 2028 rake 2029 purple 2030 hasten 2031 shorten 2032 applause 2033 ache 2034 apology 2035 knot 2036 nephew 2037 cushion 2038 drown 2039 nursery 2040 pint 2041 fierce 2042 imitate 2043 aloud 2044 gaiety 2045 robbery 2046 tighten 2047 perfection 2048 scorn 2049 whoever 2050 trunk 2051 wool 2052 sailor 2053 competitor 2054 moonlight 2055 deer 2056 bean 2057 everyday 2058 drawer 2059 disregard 2060 nowadays 2061 patriotic 2062 tin 2063 penny 2064 cage 2065 pardon 2066 lately 2067 offend 2068 coarse 2069 spoil 2070 horizontal 2071 sting 2072 ditch 2073 librarian 2074 meantime 2075 cough 2076 deaf 2077 sword 2078 messenger 2079 vain 2080 castle 2081 elastic 2082 comb 2083 rod 2084 widen 2085 sorrow 2086 inventor 2087 cliff 2088 umbrella 2089 interruption 2090 merry 2091 gallon 2092 conquest 2093 headache 2094 tailor 2095 bucket 2096 scent 2097 signature 2098 cart 2099 darken 2100 sometime 2101 applaud 2102 underneath 2103

hello 2104 pretense 2105 descent 2106 conquer 2107 framework 2108 confidential 2109 adoption
 2110 disgust 2111 waist 2112 momentary 2113 receipt 2114 pearl 2115 ray 2116 lazy 2117 limb
 2118 grammatical 2119 beast 2120 monkey 2121 jewel 2122 persuasion 2123 obedience 2124 sock
 2125 vowel 2126 hammer 2127 inn 2128 chimney 2129 dissatisfaction 2130 annoyance 2131
 ornament 2132 honesty 2133 outward 2134 sharpen 2135 handkerchief 2136 greed 2137 heavenly
 2138 thirst 2139 niece 2140 spill 2141 loaf 2142 wheat 2143 worm 2144 secrecy 2145 rude 2146
 heighten 2147 flatten 2148 loosen 2149 cheese 2150 rivalry 2151 royalty 2152 discontent 2153
 complication 2154 fright 2155 indoor 2156 flour 2157 actress 2158 congratulation 2159 ounce 2160
 fry

2161 everlasting 2162 goat 2163 ink 2164 disappearance 2165 reproduction 2166 thicken 2167
 avoidance 2168 spoon 2169 strap 2170 deceive 2171 lengthen 2172 revenge 2173 correction 2174
 descendant 2175 hesitation 2176 spade 2177 basin 2178 weed 2179 omission 2180 old-fashioned
 2181 bicycle 2182 breadth 2183 photography 2184 coward 2185 mat 2186 rejoice 2187 cheat 2188
 congratulate 2189 discomfort 2190 enclosure 2191 attentive 2192 paw 2193 overflow 2194
 dissatisfy 2195 multiplication 2196 whichever 2197 tidy 2198 bribe 2199 mend 2200 stocking 2201
 feast 2202 nuisance 2203 thorn 2204 tame 2205 inclusive 2206 homemade 2207 handwriting 2208
 chalk 2209 sour 2210 slippery 2211 procession 2212 ripen 2213 jealous 2214 jealousy 2215 liar 2216
 homecoming 2217 barber 2218 whiten 2219 berry 2220 lighten 2221 pigeon 2222 hinder 2223
 bravery 2224 baggage 2225 noun 2226 amongst 2227 grammar 2228 cultivation 2229
 companionship 2230 rubbish 2231 modesty 2232 woolen 2233 deepen 2234 pastry 2235 cupboard
 2236 quart 2237 canal 2238 notebook 2239 deceit 2240 parcel 2241 brighten 2242 moderation
 2243 punctual 2244 hurrah 2245 lipstick 2246 uppermost 2247 fatten 2248 conqueror 2249
 hindrance 2250 cowardice 2251 obedient 2252 saucer 2253 madden 2254 scold 2255 weekday 2256
 rotten 2257 disrespect 2258 widower 2259 deafen 2260 donkey 2261 businesslike 2262
 motherhood 2263 sadden 2264 handshake 2265 calculator 2266 headdress 2267 scissors 2268
 translator 2269 possessor 2270 shilling 2271 redden 2272 motherly 2273 whose 2274 cultivator
 2275 whom 2276 homework 2277 electrician 2278 oar 2279 bribery 2280 sweeten

Appendix 8: The University Word List (UWL)³²

UWL Level 1

alternative analyze approach arbitrary assess assign assume compensate complex
comply component concept conclude consist constant construct consult contact
context criterion data define definite denote derive devise dimension distinct
element environment equate equivalent establish evaluate evident formulate
guarantee hypothesis identify ignore illustrate impact implicit imply indicate initial
interpret involve magnitude method minimum modify negative obvious potential
presume prime proceed publish pursue random range region require restrict
reverse role similar specify status subsequent suffice sum summary technique
tense ultimate usage valid vary vertical

UWL Level 2

accelerate achieve adjacent affect approximate assert authorize automatic aware
chapter complicate comprehend conceive concentrate consequent contrast
contribute convert create crucial decade demonstrate design devote distort
emphasize empirical ensure entity equilibrium expand expose external feasible
fluctuate focus function generate individual infer inhibit innovation intense
intuitive isolate magnetic major manipulate mathematics mature notion obtain
occur passive period perspective pertinent phase phenomena portion precede
precise principle react respective section segment select sequence series shift
signify simultaneous sophisticated species stable statistic structure technology
theory trace tradition transmit undergo verbal verify

UWL Level 3

abandon accomplish adapt adequate adjust appreciate appropriate area attitude
chemical circumstance classic commune conduct conflict consume convene
coordinate correspond credible critic dedicate deficient deviate discrete disperse
dispose drama dynamic economy estimate exclude exert explicit exploit factor
feature final geography image intellect intelligent issue labor maintain manifest
maximum motive network norm notate occupy orientate physical plot pole
positive preposition prestige previous proprietor rational relevance rely reveal
rotate satellite scheme seek source superficial task transition underlie visual

UWL Level 4

acquire administer aesthetic allege allocate alter analogy appraise assemble assure
atmosphere atom attribute avail axis bomb capable cease constitute contaminate
contradict culture dedicate denominator dense diagram discourse distribute diverse
dominate elaborate eliminate embody emotion energy eventual forgo fragment
goal heredity impress incident incompatible induce integrate internal intervene

³² Available at : <http://jbauman.com/UWL.html>

investigate judicial justify litigate logic military mobile perpendicular persist
philosophy predict project proportion psychology reject release research reservoir
revolt speculate sphere spontaneous stipulate subside subsidize superimpose
symbol tentative text theorem upsurge

UWL Level 5

absorb abstract accurate advocate aid biology category client code compound
confront contract contrary crisis deny dictate diffuse dispute duration edit electron
enlighten err execute expel fraud grant graph gravity homogeneous implement
impose incorporate insist institute instruct intersect interval job kindred label
legitimate objective overlap parenthesis perpetrate preliminary radius respond
restore retain retard rudimentary secure stimulate stress style subtle superior
supplement suppress symptom synthetic tiny trait transfer transform trivial vast
version

UWL Level 6

abnormal academic accompany adjective adult agitate appeal arouse aspect assist
attain awe benefit civic clarify collide comment commit compute conform
conjunction console contemplate contend contingent controversy converse
cooperate cycle decline degenerate doctrine extract fertile found hemisphere
hierarchy identical incline income instinct interact interlock interlude legal locate
medium metabolism microscope minor nerve niche oblige participate planet
propagate propensity prosper protest radical reign reinforce revise sanction scalar
strata subjective sustain tangent terminology tone topic uniform urban virtual
volume voluntary

UWL Level 7

adolescent affiliate affluence alcohol aristocrat astronomy cell collapse colloquial
commodity competence concentric confer configuration congress conserve
continent corporate creditor crystal cumbersome defer degrade democracy depress
dissolve divine domestic ethics finance fraction friction fuse geometry horror
incentive incessant intermediate invade inverse invoke migrate morphology
muscle navy neutral nutrient obsolete odor parliament peasant plead policy
pragmatic precipitate prevail prudence rectangle reform refute repudiate revive
rhythm saint schedule score sibling sketch sociology spectrum stereotype terror
texture thermal tissue transact x-ray

UWL Level 8

adhere aggregate aggression align allude ally bore bureaucracy cater circulate
coincide consent correlate currency deprive detect detriment discern dissipate drug
evolve fallacy finite fraternal frustrate imperial index invest launch legislate lens
liable linguistic locomotion magic metaphor monarch nuclear oscillate oxygen
partisan pendulum pervade postulate premise proclaim provoke rebel reluctance
reproduce rigid secrete sex solar spatial subordinate supreme territory treaty trend
utilize utter

UWL Level 9

acid ambiguity amorphous asset averse carbon complement condense confine
 construe displace diverge drastic efficient enumerate evaporate evoke exhaust
 faction federal frontier fund illuminate indigenous innate integer intrinsic liberate
 margin material matrix molecule momentum odd orbit residue reverberate rural
 stationary subdivide suspend unduly velocity vibrate violate vocabulary

UWL Level 10

access angular anomaly anonymous anthropology append appendix ascribe
 aspiration assent assimilate auspices clinic coefficient cogent comprise compulsion
 converge deflect deliberate dispense elevate elicit eloquent emancipate embrace
 emerge enhance enrich episode equidistant exponent facilitate fluent fossil
 inconsistent inflation ingenious inherent interrelate interview intimacy maternal
 myth null option outcome perpetual priority procure prohibit province purport
 quote recur remove render repress resident rigor saturate skeleton surplus tangible
 tolerate triangle vague

UWL Level 11

accumulate annual apparatus arithmetic attach battery breed bubble bulk calendar
 cancel capture career catalogue challenge channel circuit column communicate
 compel cylinder debate decimal defect diameter digest drain enable equipment
 expert export fare fate fluid fuel fulfill fundamental genuine germ harbor hero
 hostile huge import impulse inferior injure inspect instance irrigate item journal
 laboratory layer lecture leisure luxury mental moist novel pest pollution port
 process ratio resource revolve route shrink site starve survey switch tape team
 telescope temporary theft tire tractor traffic transparent transport tropical undertake
 vein vital volt withdraw

Appendix 9: The Academic Word List (AWL)³³

<p>1. analyze approach area assess assume authority available benefit concept consist context constitute contract data define derive distribute economy environment establish estimate evident factor finance formula function income indicate individual interpret involve issue labor legal legislate major method occur percent period principle proceed process policy require research respond role section sector significant similar source specific structure theory vary</p>
<p>2. achieve acquire administer affect appropriate aspect assist category chapter commission community complex compute conclude conduct consequent construct consume credit culture design distinct equate element evaluate feature final focus impact injure institute invest item journal maintain normal obtain participate perceive positive potential previous primary purchase range region regulate relevant reside resource restrict secure seek select site strategy survey text tradition transfer</p>
<p>3. alternative circumstance comment compensate component consent considerable constant constrain contribute convene coordinate core corporate correspond criteria deduce demonstrate document dominate emphasis ensure exclude fund framework illustrate immigrate imply initial instance interact justify layer link locate maximize minor negate outcome partner philosophy physical proportion publish react register rely remove scheme sequence sex shift specify sufficient task technical technique technology valid volume</p>
<p>4. access adequacy annual apparent approximate attitude attribute civil code commit communicate concentrate confer contrast cycle debate despite dimension domestic emerge error ethnic goal grant hence hypothesis implement implicate impose integrate internal investigate job label mechanism obvious occupy option output overall parallel parameter phase predict prior principal professional project promote regime resolve retain series statistic status stress subsequent sum summary undertake</p>
<p>5. academy adjust alter amend aware capacity challenge clause compound conflict consult contact decline discrete draft enable energy enforce entity equivalent evolve expand expose external facilitate fundamental generate generation image liberal license logic margin mental medical modify monitor network notion objective orient perspective precise prime psychology pursue ratio reject revenue stable style substitute sustain symbol target transit trend version welfare whereas</p>
<p>6. abstract acknowledge accuracy aggregate allocate assign attach author bond brief capable cite cooperate discriminate display diverse domain edit enhance estate exceed expert explicit federal fee flexible furthermore gender ignorance incentive incorporate incidence index inhibit initiate input instruct intelligence interval lecture migrate minimum ministry motive neutral nevertheless overseas precede presume rational recover reveal scope subsidy tape trace transform transport underlie utilize</p>
<p>7. adapt adult advocate aid channel chemical classic comprehensive comprise confirm contrary convert couple decade definite deny differentiate dispose dynamic equip eliminate empirical extract file finite foundation globe gradeguarantee hierarchy identical ideology infer innovate insert intervene isolate media mode paradigm phenomenon priority prohibit publication quote release reverse simulate sole somewhat submit successor survive thesis topic transmit ultimate unique visible voluntary</p>

³³ Available at :

<https://docs.google.com/document/d/19zGpWNemyAph4CjnzD6ficYApmIARkrVeXdP88UOZz8/edit#>

8. abandon accompany accumulate ambiguous appendix appreciate arbitrary automate bias chart clarify commodity complement conform contemporary contradict crucial currency denote detect deviate displace drama eventual exhibit exploit fluctuate guideline highlight implicit induce inevitable infrastructure inspect intense manipulate minimize nuclear offset paragraph plus practitioner predominant prospect radical random reinforce restore revise schedule tense terminate theme thereby uniform vehicle via virtual visual widespread

9. accommodate analogy anticipate assure attain behalf cease coherent coincide commence compatible concurrent confine controversy converse device devote diminish distort duration erode ethic found format inherent insight integral intermediate manual mature mediate medium military minimal mutual norm overlap passive portion preliminary protocol qualitative refine relax restrain revolution rigid route scenario sphere subordinate supplement suspend team temporary trigger unify violate vision

10. adjacent albeit assemble collapse colleague compile conceive convince depress encounter enormous forthcoming incline integrity intrinsic invoke levy likewise nonetheless notwithstanding odd ongoing panel persist pose reluctance so-called straightforward undergo whereby

Appendix 10: Participants' Individual VST and AWLT Scores

PARTICIPANTS	1 LMD			3 LMD		
	VST	AWLT		VST	AWLT	
		Pre-tes	Post-test		Pre-tes	Post-test
1.	9900	370	370	11600	490	490
2.	8600	340	340	7200	180	180
3.	2900	200	200	6000	230	230
4.	6200	190	190	8300	460	460
5.	6300	20	20	11100	480	480
6.	7000	110	110	4200	350	350
7.	7100	170	170	2700	60	150
8.	7000	180	180	9800	500	500
9.	10800	530	530	12100	510	510
10.	4800	30	30	6600	350	350
11.	7100	70	70	8400	530	530
12.	6000	260	260	8500	430	430
13.	7400	490	490	3800	400	400
14.	7800	490	490	5900	100	100
15.	7600	490	490	6700	190	190
16.	7200	460	460	5200	390	390
17.	5100	50	50	5900	360	360
18.	9300	490	490	7100	300	300
19.	9200	310	310	3500	110	110
20.	7700	440	440	3900	230	230
21.	6600	480	480	9000	450	450
22.	11100	530	530	8100	360	360
23.	10500	480	480	6300	370	370
24.	6700	470	470	12000	470	470
25.	9600	550	500	8400	270	270
26.	10300	530	530	6600	490	490
27.	1900	150	150	7400	500	500
28.	3200	230	230	6500	450	450
29.	2300	180	180	4200	480	480
30.	2600	170	170	4000	370	380
Mean score	6993.33	315.33	313.33	7033.33	362	365.33

Appendix 11: Participants' Individual BAC and English Marks

Participants	1 LMD		3 LMD	
	BAC Mark	English Mark	BAC Mark	English Mark
1.	11	17	11	15.5
2.	/	14	13	17
3.	12	18	11	15
4.	10.5	12	10	14
5.	12	15	12.32	14
6.	11	15	12	11
7.	10.37	14	10.55	13.5
8.	11.37	13.5	13.32	13
9.	13	17	11	16
10.	13.54	18	/	14
11.	10.81	17	11.58	13
12.	12.72	14.5	13.93	16
13.	11.46	15	10	19.5
14.	11.5	16	14	14
15.	12.85	13.5	11.58	14
16.	12	15	13	17
17.	10	11	12	15
18.	13.56	14	12	12
19.	11	12	11	16
20.	11.80	15	11	13
21.	12	17	11	13
22.	11	18.5	10.84	17
23.	11.34	11	10	14
24.	11	15	12	19
25.	12	14	12.98	18
26.	13	12	12	15
27.	10	14	12	16
28.	12	14	12.49	15
29.	11.11	15	12	11
30.	12	14	13	15
31.	11	17	11	18
32.	08	15.5	14	18
33.	10	17	14	15.5
34.	/	/	11	17
Mean score	11.12	14.86	11.55	15.12

Appendix 12: Schmitt's Taxonomy of VLS, Complete Version (1997)

Strategies for the discovery of a new word's meaning			
DET	Analyze parts of speech	8.DET	Word lists
2.DET	Analyze affixes and roots	9.DET	Flash cards
3.DET	Check of L1 cognate	10.SOC	Ask teacher for an L1 translation
4.DET	Analyze any available pictures or gestures	11.SOC	Ask teacher for paraphrase or synonym of new word
5.DET	Guess from textual context	12.SOC	Ask teacher for a sentence including the new word
6.DET	Bilingual dictionary	13.SOC	Ask classmates for meaning
7.DET	Monolingual dictionary	14.SOC	Discovery meaning through group work activity
Strategies for consolidating a word once it has been encountered			
15.SOC	Study and practice meaning in a group	37.MEM	Use keyword Method
16.SOC	Teacher checks students' flash cards or word lists for accuracy	38.MEM	Affixes and roots (remembering)
17.SOC	Interact with native-speakers	39.MEM	Parts of speech (remembering)
18.MEM	Study word with a pictorial representation of its meaning	40.MEM	Paraphrase the word's meaning
19.MEM	Image word's meaning	41.MEM	Use cognates in study
20.MEM	Connect word to a personal experience	42.MEM	Learn the words of an idiom together
21.MEM	Associate the word with its coordinates	43.MEM	Use physical action when learning a word
22.MEM	Connect the word to its synonyms and antonyms	44.MEM	Use semantic feature grids
23.MEM	Use semantic maps	45.COG	Verbal repetition
24.MEM	Use „scales“ for	46.COG	Written repetition

	gradable adjectives		
25.MEM	Peg Method	47.COG	Word lists
26.MEM	Loci Method	48.COG	Flash cards
27.MEM	Group words together to study them	49.COG	Take notes
28.MEM	Group words together spatially on a page	50.COG	Use the vocabulary section in your book
29.MEM	Use new word in sentence	51.COG	Listen to tape of word lists
30.MEM	Group words together within a storyline	52.COG	Put English labels on physical objects
31.MEM	Study the spelling of a word	53.COG	Keep a vocabulary notebook
32.MEM	Study the sound of a word	54.MET	Use English language media (songs, movies, newscasts, etc.)
33.MEM	Say new words aloud when studying	55.MET	Testing oneself with word tests
34.MEM	Image word form	56.MET	Use spaced word practice
35.MEM	Underline initial letter of the word	57.MET	Skip or pass new word
36.MEM	Configuration	58.MET	Continue to study word over time

Appendix 13 Teachers' Questionnaire Sample

Dear teachers,

This questionnaire is a part of an academic research at Djillali Liabes University English department. It aims at taking advantage of your expertise in EFL teaching at the university to uncover some of the difficulties that EFL undergraduate students face because of their limited academic vocabulary. It is also designed to help better understand teachers' beliefs about undergraduates' autonomy and vocabulary instruction at the tertiary level. Thank you in advance for your kind cooperation.

A. Identification and Background

Gender : Male Female

Highest qualification: Magister

Rank: MAA

1. For how long have you been teaching English? 12 years

2. Please indicate the main levels in which you have experienced teaching English.

a. National Education:

- Middle school
- Secondary school

b. University:

- Bachelor level: (L1 L2 + L)
- Master Level:
- Doctoral Level

c. Others Business English

3. Please indicate the main subjects you have taught at the university.

- | | |
|--|--|
| Literature <input type="checkbox"/> | Culture and Civilisation <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> |
| Phonetics <input type="checkbox"/> | Linguistics <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> |
| Study skills <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | Grammar <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> |
| Written expression <input type="checkbox"/> | Others <u>Business English</u> |
| Oral expression <input type="checkbox"/> | |

B. Teachers' beliefs and practices

1. If you have taught EFL undergraduate students, how do you generally evaluate their academic language proficiency?

Weak average satisfactory good

2. Do you think that undergraduate students differentiate between social English and academic English?

Yes, considerably yes, to some extent yes, to a little extent No

- Please, justify your answer.

They write in the same way interact;
 using inappropriate vocabulary & abbreviations (slang)

3. What language component do undergraduate students face more difficulty with in terms of:

1) Comprehension 2) participation 3) performance in oral/written exams/tests/essay writing?

Grammar	<input type="checkbox"/>	grammar	<input type="checkbox"/>	grammar	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Vocabulary	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	vocabulary	<input type="checkbox"/>	vocabulary	<input type="checkbox"/>
Pronunciation	<input type="checkbox"/>	pronunciation	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	pronunciation	<input type="checkbox"/>

4. Do you feel that your students' vocabulary knowledge matches the requirements of the academic language proficiency expected from a university student?

YES, considerably yes, to some extent yes, to a little extent No

5. Do you think that undergraduate students are familiar with the different types of English vocabulary and with the type of vocabulary needed for academic English and university studies?

Yes, considerably yes, to some extent yes, to a little extent No

6. Do you think that undergraduate students possess sufficient academic vocabulary to understand the content of your teaching subject?

Yes, considerably yes, to some extent yes, to a little extent No

7. Do you think that undergraduate students possess sufficient academic vocabulary to meet the writing requirements of assignments and exams?

Yes, considerably yes, to some extent yes, to a little extent No

8. Do undergraduate students ask you about the meaning of unfamiliar vocabulary during the delivery of the lectures?

Never rarely sometimes often always

➤ If yes, what type of vocabulary they generally enquire about?

- High frequency/conversational vocabulary (tier one)
- General academic vocabulary (tier two)
- Technical vocabulary (tier three)
- All of the above

9. Do you deliberately explain vocabulary and/or ask your students if there were any difficult/unfamiliar words that hamper their understanding of the lectures?

Never rarely sometimes often always

10. If yes, do you help them learn the unfamiliar words?

Never rarely sometimes often always

11. Do you help them differentiate between the different types of vocabulary?

Never rarely sometimes often always

12. Please select the statements that best describe you.

Statements	yes	no
I provide them with words' meaning (definition/synonym/antonym)	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I provide them with the word's equivalent in French or/and Arabic	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I provide them with example sentences	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
I encourage them to make up sentences with the new words	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
I encourage them to keep a vocabulary notebook.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
I review the new words in following lectures.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
I regularly check students' knowledge of the new words in discrete oral/written tests.	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I integrate vocabulary testing within content-based exams.	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I do not have enough time to teach the content and deal with (academic) vocabulary	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
I do not know how to integrate academic vocabulary teaching in my module/lectures.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
I do not know which words to teach	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
I think students are not interested in studying vocabulary in class	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
I ask the students to check the unfamiliar words before class to make them rely on themselves.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Vocabulary learning is the responsibility of the students not the teachers.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Students can learn new words implicitly only through exposure to the language without teachers' support	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
I prefer to teach them vocabulary learning strategies than teaching them individual words	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Vocabulary teaching is the responsibility of middle/secondary school teachers not university teachers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Teaching the content of my subject is more important than teaching vocabulary	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

13. Based on your experience, how important do you find academic vocabulary in developing EFL learners' academic language proficiency at the university level?

Very important. Otherwise they'll face difficulties to convince, write or to express (convey) thought & feeling in A.E.

14. What would you consider as a contributing factor to learners' lack of academic vocabulary knowledge?

Lack of reading & writing. They're not exposed to authentic materials (Videos / Audio / Native Speakers.)

15. What is your opinion about devoting a teaching subject (module) to vocabulary as a separate skill?

It's not conventional, but it's part of an ESP objective

16. Do you feel acquainted with vocabulary teaching principle?

Yes, considerably yes, to some extent yes, to a little extent No

➤ If yes, what is the source of your knowledge?

Pre-service education	
In-service training	
Own teaching experience and reflection	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Daily exchange with colleagues	
Research-based knowledge	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

17. Based on your experience in EFL teaching with undergraduate students, please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

	SD	D	NAND	A	SA
DLED undergraduate students have in general a fair degree of autonomy and maturity				<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
They are motivated learners		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>			
They use different strategies to learn new vocabulary items			<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>		
They often use the already studied words in new situations				<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
They keep notebooks /records of the new studied words	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>				
They regularly enquire about new words	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>				
They use dictionaries to check words' meaning				<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
They are always motivated to share their knowledge about new vocabulary				<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
They try to guess meaning from context				<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
They achieve extra work (outside class) and ask for teachers' correction				<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
They always complain about their limited vocabulary knowledge without making the necessary efforts to develop it.				<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
They rely on the teacher to explain the unfamiliar words				<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
They always blame others for their poor grades			<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>		
They rely most of the time on the teacher to provide them with the course handouts					<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
They rely only on the handouts and expect the teachers to explain everything in the handouts.					<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
They are absent-minded during lectures				<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
They believe that homework and outside assignments are not useful.			<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>		
They are generally disorganized			<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>		
They do not concentrate and they ask about things and words that have already been explained				<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
They are generally late and forget about homework/assignments				<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	

Thank you very much for your time and cooperation

Appendix 14 First Year Students' Questionnaire Sample

Students' Questionnaire

Dear students,

This questionnaire is a part of an academic research at Djillali Liabes University English department. It aims at investigating undergraduate students' general academic vocabulary knowledge and its impact on their academic achievement .Please note that you do not have to write your name and the information will be used only for research purposes. There is no right or wrong answer. We value your honest and detailed responses. Thank you in advance for your kind cooperation.

A. Identification and Background

Gender: Male Female
 Age: 18 years old
 University level: First year Second year Third year
 Secondary school stream: (Tick the appropriate box)

1. Literature and Philosophy Stream	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Foreign Language Stream	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
3. Mathematics Stream	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Technical Mathematics Stream	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Experimental Sciences Stream	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Economy and Management Stream	<input type="checkbox"/>

BAC average mark: 10,37/20

English mark at the BAC exam: 14/20

1. Is this your first diploma? YES NO

2. Why are you studying English? (Choose the statements that best describe you.)

1. I like speaking English that is why I enrolled in this course.	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
2. It is my parents' choice.	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. My BAC marks did not meet the admission requirements of my first choice.	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. I am more likely to find a job with a diploma in English than in other disciplines.	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. I travel a lot and I need English for communication with foreigners.	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. I think people who speak more than one language are smart and very knowledgeable	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. I decided to choose English because it is a global language.	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Studying English is fashionable	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. I was oriented to this course	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. I need English to make research and further my knowledge of my specialty/first diploma as English is the language of publication.	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. I want to pursue advanced studies in my specialty in an English speaking country.	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. I have a lot of free time and I want to benefit from it doing something useful.	<input type="checkbox"/>
Others:	<input type="checkbox"/>
.....	<input type="checkbox"/>

B. Beliefs and Practices

1. How would you evaluate your level in English?

Weak average satisfactory good

2. Do you feel that your current level in English enables you to major in the English course?

Yes To some extent To a limited extent No

3. Do you feel any difference between the English studied at Middle/secondary school and the English you are studying at the university?

Yes To some extent To a limited extent No

➤ If yes what makes the difference?

Grammar Vocabulary Pronunciation

4. Do you face difficulty understanding the content of the different teaching subjects (modules)?

Yes To some extent To a limited extent No

➤ If yes, what language component causes you more difficulty?

Grammar Vocabulary Pronunciation

5. Is the vocabulary used in the different lectures/assignment/exams the same you use when you speak with your classmates/friends in English?

Yes To some extent To a limited extent No

6. There are three types of vocabulary in English; High frequency/ conversational vocabulary (Tier one), General academic vocabulary (Tier two), and Technical Vocabulary (Tier three). Do you know the exact difference between them and when and how to use each type?

Yes To some extent To a limited extent No

7. Where have you first heard about these types of vocabulary?

1. Teachers	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	2. Library/Books	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Classmates	<input type="checkbox"/>	4. Friends	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
5. Internet	<input type="checkbox"/>	6. In this survey	<input type="checkbox"/>

8. What type of vocabulary causes you more difficulty?

Tier one Tier two Tier three

9. How do you generally feel when you do not understand a lecture/assignment/exam because of the difficult/unfamiliar vocabulary?

I feel disappointed of myself and I am weak

10. What do you do when you encounter unfamiliar words during lectures? How often?

Vocabulary learning strategies inside classroom	never	rarely	sometimes	often	always
I try to guess meaning from context.					
I ask a classmate.			✓		
I ask the teacher.		✓			
I use a dictionary to check out meaning.	✓				
I take note of the words and check them at home.	✓				
Nothing					✓

11. What do you do to develop your academic vocabulary knowledge?

Vocabulary learning strategies outside classroom	never	rarely	sometimes	always
1. I keep a vocabulary notebook.			✓	
2. I review the new words regularly.				✓
3. I use the new words immediately after I learn them.				✓
4. I read a lot.		✓		✓
5. I play vocabulary games.				✓
6. I use bilingual dictionary.	✓			
7. I use monolingual dictionary.		✓		
8. I study and practise vocabulary in a group.	✓			
9. I do verbal repetition.			✓	
10. I do written repetition.	✓			
11. I analyze affixes and roots.				✓
12. I analyze parts of speech.	✓			
13. I test myself with word tests.			✓	
14. I use flash cards/word lists.				✓
15. I interact with native-speakers.			✓	
16. Nothing		✓		
Others :	✓			

12. Do your teachers explain the unfamiliar words along with content of the teaching subject?

Never rarely sometimes often always

13. Do you like when your teachers explicitly teach the unfamiliar vocabulary along with the content of the teaching subject?

Yes No

➤ If yes, state why. *of course it's easy to*

English vocabulary is large and I cannot learn it without teachers' support.	
When the teachers explain the unfamiliar words they help me concentrate on the lecture instead of wasting time checking meaning.	<i>yes</i>
Teachers' explanations are simple, clear, concise and related to the lecture context compared to the dictionary definitions.	
Teaching vocabulary is part of teaching the language and teaching the language is as important as teaching the content.	<i>yes</i>
Explicitly teaching vocabulary by the teachers helps me better understand and memorize the studied words.	
I am often afraid to ask questions in class, explicit teaching of vocabulary is then in my benefit.	<i>yes</i>
Others:	
.....	
.....	

➤ If no, state why.

I prefer relying on myself to learn vocabulary.	
Teachers waste time teaching vocabulary instead of teaching the content.	
Teachers do not give all the possible meanings of the word like in the dictionary.	
Teaching vocabulary is not teachers' responsibility but students'.	
Others:	
.....	
.....	

14. Do you think your vocabulary knowledge has improved in terms of quantity and quality after you joined the university?

Yes To some extent To a limited extent No

15. Do you agree with having a teaching subject/module devoted to general academic vocabulary instruction?

Yes To some extent To a limited extent No

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire

Welcome

Appendix 15 Third Year Students' Questionnaire Sample

Students' Questionnaire

Dear students,

This questionnaire is a part of an academic research at Djillali Liabes University English department. It aims at investigating undergraduate students' general academic vocabulary knowledge and its impact on their academic achievement .Please note that you do not have to write your name and the information will be used only for research purposes. There is no right or wrong answer. We value your honest and detailed responses. Thank you in advance for your kind cooperation.

A. Identification and Background

Gender: Male Female
 Age: 21 years old
 University level: First year Second year Third year
 Secondary school stream: (Tick the appropriate box)

1. Literature and Philosophy Stream	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
2. Foreign Language Stream	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Mathematics Stream	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Technical Mathematics Stream	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Experimental Sciences Stream	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Economy and Management Stream	<input type="checkbox"/>

BAC average mark: 11 /20

English mark at the BAC exam: 13 /20

1. Is this your first diploma? YES NO

2. Why are you studying English? (Choose the statements that best describe you.)

1. I like speaking English that is why I enrolled in this course.	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
2. It is my parents' choice.	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. My BAC marks did not meet the admission requirements of my first choice.	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. I am more likely to find a job with a diploma in English than in other disciplines.	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. I travel a lot and I need English for communication with foreigners.	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. I think people who speak more than one language are smart and very knowledgeable	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. I decided to choose English because it is a global language.	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Studying English is fashionable	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. I was oriented to this course	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. I need English to make research and further my knowledge of my specialty/first diploma as English is the language of publication.	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. I want to pursue advanced studies in my specialty in an English speaking country.	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. I have a lot of free time and I want to benefit from it doing something useful.	<input type="checkbox"/>
Others:	<input type="checkbox"/>
.....	<input type="checkbox"/>

B. Beliefs and Practices

1. How would you evaluate your level in English?

Weak average satisfactory good

2. Do you feel that your current level in English enables you to major in the English course?

Yes To some extent To a limited extent No

3. Do you feel any difference between the English studied at Middle/secondary school and the English you are studying at the university?

Yes To some extent To a limited extent No

➤ If yes what makes the difference?

Grammar Vocabulary Pronunciation

4. Do you face difficulty understanding the content of the different teaching subjects (modules)?

Yes To some extent To a limited extent No

➤ If yes, what language component causes you more difficulty?

Grammar Vocabulary Pronunciation

5. Is the vocabulary used in the different lectures/assignment/exams the same you use when you speak with your classmates/friends in English?

Yes To some extent To a limited extent No

6. There are three types of vocabulary in English; High frequency/ conversational vocabulary (Tier one), General academic vocabulary (Tier two), and Technical Vocabulary (Tier three). Do you know the exact difference between them and when and how to use each type?

Yes To some extent To a limited extent No

7. Where have you first heard about these types of vocabulary?

1. Teachers	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	2. Library/Books	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Classmates	<input type="checkbox"/>	4. Friends	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Internet	<input type="checkbox"/>	6. In this survey	<input type="checkbox"/>

8. What type of vocabulary causes you more difficulty?

Tier one Tier two Tier three

9. How do you generally feel when you do not understand a lecture/assignment/exam because of the difficult/unfamiliar vocabulary?

I feel myself lost and I can't follow the rest of the course.

10. What do you do when you encounter unfamiliar words during lectures? How often?

Vocabulary learning strategies inside classroom	never	rarely	sometimes	often	always
I try to guess meaning from context.				X	
I ask a classmate.					X
I ask the teacher.	X				
I use a dictionary to check out meaning.					X
I take note of the words and check them at home.	X				X
Nothing					

11. What do you do to develop your academic vocabulary knowledge?

Vocabulary learning strategies outside classroom	never	rarely	sometimes	always
1. I keep a vocabulary notebook.	X			
2. I review the new words regularly.		X		
3. I use the new words immediately after I learn them.	X			
4. I read a lot.	X			
5. I play vocabulary games.	X			
6. I use bilingual dictionary.			X	
7. I use monolingual dictionary.			X	
8. I study and practise vocabulary in a group.				
9. I do verbal repetition.	X			
10. I do written repetition.		X		
11. I analyze affixes and roots.	X			
12. I analyze parts of speech.	X			
13. I test myself with word tests.	X			
14. I use flash cards/word lists.	X		X	
15. I interact with native-speakers.				
16. Nothing				
Others :				

12. Do your teachers explain the unfamiliar words along with content of the teaching subject?

Never rarely sometimes often always

13. Do you like when your teachers explicitly teach the unfamiliar vocabulary along with the content of the teaching subject?

Yes No

➤ If yes, state why.

English vocabulary is large and I cannot learn it without teachers' support.	
When the teachers explain the unfamiliar words they help me concentrate on the lecture instead of wasting time checking meaning.	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Teachers' explanations are simple, clear, concise and related to the lecture context compared to the dictionary definitions.	
Teaching vocabulary is part of teaching the language and teaching the language is as important as teaching the content.	
Explicitly teaching vocabulary by the teachers helps me better understand and memorize the studied words.	
I am often afraid to ask questions in class, explicit teaching of vocabulary is then in my benefit.	
Others:	
.....	
.....	

➤ If no, state why.

I prefer relying on myself to learn vocabulary.	
Teachers waste time teaching vocabulary instead of teaching the content.	
Teachers do not give all the possible meanings of the word like in the dictionary.	
Teaching vocabulary is not teachers' responsibility but students'.	
Others:	
.....	
.....	

14. Do you think your vocabulary knowledge has improved in terms of quantity and quality after you joined the university?

Yes To some extent To a limited extent No

15. Do you agree with having a teaching subject/module devoted to general academic vocabulary instruction?

Yes To some extent To a limited extent No

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire