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**Designing a Lexical Syllabus for the Oral
Expression Course and Assessing its Impact on
First-Year Students' Fluency (TEFL)**

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in Candidacy for a PhD Degree in Applied Linguistics*

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Dedications

To my beloved ones especially my mother, my late father, sister and
brother.

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Abstract

The present research aims at exploring the efficiency of a lexically-based syllabus designed exclusively for the teaching of the oral expression class with Relizane's University Centre first-year students as its main target. As it has been empirically proved that formulaic sequences in general contribute tremendously to language fluency, we are convinced that an undue training on lexical collocations, at an initial stage, can make a difference with regard to students' ability to express themselves. Hence, we hypothesize that the implementation of a language syllabus founded upon some of the main principles of the Lexical Approach cannot only bring students' attention to the formulaicity of both oral and written discourse. The main source of the collected data was 39 English first-year students from the University Centre of Relizane. This six-month study was conducted during the academic year 2016-2017. The sample of the study consisted of an experimental group with whom the lexical syllabus was implemented and a control group. Prior to the implementation of the program, a questionnaire was administered to students so as to test their familiarity with lexical collocations as a concept. Moreover, a semi-structured interview was carried out with seven English practitioners in order to evaluate their basic knowledge concerning collocations. In addition, we set a pre- and a post-oral test with the intent to: assess students' ability to use words and their collocants and check whether or not the implemented syllabus maximizes or impairs students' efficiency to use the language fluently. The calculation of the correlation coefficient (r) reveals that the study variables correlate positively. We suggest that EFL teachers must ensure that their students get exposed to sufficient language collocations not necessarily through exposure to a special syllabus, but at least through classroom-based activities.

Key words: Lexical Approach, Lexical Collocations, Formulaicity, L2 Fluency

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1. General Introduction

By contrast to many other modules such as written expression, the oral expression class has always been neglected for some reason or another. It has long been academically marginalized as it requires no specific program for its teaching. Most teachers would employ basic techniques, most notably memorizing dialogues and practicing patterns to sharpen student's oral skills without relying on personal endeavors. Yet, "of all the four skills listening, reading and writing, speaking seems intuitively the most important: people who know a language are referred to as 'speakers' of the language, as if speaking included all other kinds of knowing." Ur (2000: 12)

It is worth noting that despite the fact that the recent teaching context 'somehow excuses teachers and learners from a consideration of how to develop high levels of accuracy in the use of grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary'¹, which is highly recommendable for the development of a normal level of speech continuity, rate and effort², many students including those with advanced levels still struggle to express themselves fluently. This only implies that an utter disregard of accuracy is not enough for enhancing learners' communicative skills. Such an approach should also be assisted with some teaching practices where vocabulary is emphasized too, for most "lexical problems frequently interfere with communication" Allen (1983, p.5). Besides, moving up the proficiency level entails an expansion of one's vocabulary stock Krashen (1989, p.440). But if this is so, what kind of vocabulary should be highlighted?

This question has been addressed by Michael Lewis who advocated a lexical approach (1993, 1997, 2000) to foreign language learning. This latter laid emphasis on 'common word combination' including collocations, idioms, phrasal verbs, fixed and semi-fixed phrases as they are identified as an important aspect of fluent speech³. In support to Lewis's views, we believe that developing students' collocational competence can have a tremendous impact on their oral skills. Moreover, we concentrate on bringing students' attention to the recurrent appearance of

¹Hedge, T (2000:60), *Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom*, Oxford University Press.

²Hughes, A (2002), *Testing for Language Teachers*, Cambridge University Press.

³Lewis, M. (2000:127). *Teaching Collocation: Further Developments in the Lexical Approach*. Hove, England: Language Teaching Publications.

collocations in both spoken and written scripts so as to hone their collocational awareness since language is organized into chunks having the form of multi-word items rather than individual words Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992). For this purpose, a lexical syllabus has been designed to assess the efficacy of an explicit instruction of collocations on students' fluency level.

2. Review of Literature

Because they are an essential prerequisite to sound like a native speaker (Ellis, 2001), collocations have received assiduous attention. Their importance in SLA and TEFL has been stressed by several researchers who approached them from different angles. Undertaken studies with regard to their teaching and learning fall within three lines of research. The first category focuses mainly on foreign language learners' miscollocations. The second concentrates on the classification and use of collocations by establishing a comparison between native and non-native speakers in addition to corpora analysis. The third investigates the potential effect of collocation-based-instruction on overall proficiency including the speaking and writing skills along with listening and reading too.

In 1995 Farghal and Obiedat conducted a research that assessed both teachers' and students' ability to use collocations. A fill-in-the blanks test was used for the retrieval of data. Subjects included language instructors, senior and junior English majors at Yarmouk University in Jordan. The study's final results revealed a shocking fact as both students and teachers encountered considerable difficulties in using and understanding collocations. Tokyoite researchers, Hongquan and Nishina Kikuko (2007) from the Institute of Technology, have also explored the burning issue of collocation errors. Their empirical study was based on a survey questionnaire that covered errors of Japanese adjectival collocations. After carrying out an in-depth analysis of the findings, they could classify collocational errors and construct 'an error database'. A similar investigation was carried out by Kuo (2009) in which he analyzed the writing samples of 49 Taiwanese intermediate college students with a view of detecting any errors related to collocation use. To ensure an accurate analysis, the British National corpus and a collocation checker were used as the main analytical tools in addition to the contribution of two English native speakers. A thorough examination of the results led Kuo to conclude that the use of

synonyms (31%), negative transfer (20%), and approximation (49%) were the root causes of students' miscollocations.

Likewise, and in a bid to shed light on the types and sources of verb-noun collocational errors, Hong, Rahim, Hua and Salehuddin (2012) analyzed 130 written essays that constituted the study corpus and that were the product of Malay students attending different school districts. Interestingly, the preposition-related collocations were found to be an area of weakness for most subjects, whose errors stemmed mainly from their dependence on synonymy, overgeneralization along with intralingual transfer. This latter was identified as the most noticeable among students' errors. Shortly afterwards, Abdellah (2015) designed a programme based on the Lexical approach principles to identify the collocations that caused most trouble to senior English majors at Quena University, Egypt. Prior to the implementation of the syllabus, he administered a pretest that revealed that subjects were unable to make confident choices about the appropriate collocants that could combine with one another in seven subtypes of lexical collocations. He later found out that the program contributed greatly to raising students' awareness about the right collocates.

The second trend of research involves Siyanova and Schmitt's study (2008) in which both native and nonnative speakers' capacity to recognize and use collocations has been compared. Their corpus of analysis comprised written samples that were provided by Russian EFL learners. Findings indicated that nonnative speakers could keep pace with native speakers in their use of appropriate collocations. However, NNSs were not as fast as natives in processing collocations. Other researchers explored ESL and EFL settings for more reliable data. Alsakran (2011) established a comparison between 38 Saudi EFL and 30 Arab ESL learners to assess their faculty in collocation use. The research tools included three guided tests that were rendered more accessible by providing the initial letter of the collocant and the meaning of the phrasal verbs. The data analysis showed that the EFL learners surpassed those belonging to the ESL setting in all three tests. As a result, it was suggested that the development of learners' receptive and productive knowledge of L2 collocations was highly dependent on the learning environment.

It should be noted that a considerable number of researchers explored how collocations could be developed while others scrutinized the possible correlation

between collocation achievement and language skills including both productive and receptive types. In 2005, Fan carried out a study that aimed at investigating the impact of distinctive levels of attention on acquiring verb collocations. She highlighted four levels of attention: semantic processing (embedded collocations), memorization for recall (for a later recall test), rule given (a study of the target collocation rules), and rule given plus negative evidence (impossible collocates). Four groups were created out of the 94 Mandarin University students, who served as subjects for the research study. Each group received a well-defined type of attention practice. The analysis of the study results demonstrated that the semantic processing group was outperformed by learners in the rule-oriented groups (the third and fourth contexts) in learning L2 collocations. Fahim and Vaezi (2011) proceeded similarly by assessing the effect of visual/textual input-based enhancement on learning verb-noun collocations. 96 Iranian intermediate students in total took part in the experiment. They were divided into three groups: two experimental and one control group. Two different methods of instruction were used with the two former groups. Targeted collocations were either bolded, capitalized or displayed visually in reading passages. Subjects from the control group had no collocation instruction in their reading passages. By the end of the training, it was revealed that students who were instructed with the aid of visually enhanced collocations could perform better than their counterparts from the remaining two groups.

The importance of explicit collocations teaching has also been brought to the fore by Seesink (2007), who delved into whether a blended learning program could contribute to the improvement of six EFL learners writing. Means for data collection included a questionnaire, students' journals and sample writings. The final results indicated that enormous benefit could be gained from explicit collocations teaching to enhance students' writing. Amer (2010) for his part relied on a mobile learning application to evaluate the extent to which idioms and collocations use could be developed by 45 EFL learners. The efficacy of the application was validated during the data analysis process as most students could score an average of 70% on most collocation quizzes. Two years later, Falahi and Moinzadeh (2012) pored over the impact of receptive vs. productive tasks on the acquisition of some collocation subtypes namely the verb-noun and noun-noun with Iranian students. The division of

the study sample involved two experimental groups and one control group. The first of the two experimental groups carried out receptive tasks while the second had to get on with productive task types. The control group, however, underwent no collocation training whatsoever. Based on the study findings, it was revealed that the two experimental groups improved significantly in their knowledge of collocations.

With regard to whether there could be a strong correlation between collocation acquisition and language skills. The first experiment having addressed this issue was conducted by Zhang (1993) who put forward that collocations were the main parameter by which students writing quality could be distinguished. This complies with Haswell (1991) statement that the frequent use of active and passive collocations signals sophistication in writing whereas their lack or absence is typical of beginner writers. Decades later, more recent studies have been carried out. Hsu (2005) investigated whether exposure to word combinability training could have any observable effect on EFL learners listening ability. Participants of this empirical research involved thirty-four Taiwanese university students, all of whom received three different types of collocation practice that were followed by a listening test. A questionnaire was administered too. The treatment of data revealed that the listening skill could be enhanced with the aid of explicit collocation teaching. Five years later, Hsu (2010) replicated the same experiment to detect if students' reading comprehension along with vocabulary knowledge could be influenced by collocation instruction. Similar proceedings were adopted with the study sample. It was concluded that unlike reading comprehension upon which no visible impact was exerted, vocabulary acquisition and teaching collocations strongly correlated.

A longitudinal approach of investigation was adopted by Lin (2009), who devised a teaching syllabus that was founded upon the principles of Lewis' (2000) lexical approach to measure the efficiency of word combinability instruction on the evolution of reading proficiency. The programme was carried out with 40 Taiwanese EFL learners over a six months period. It was revealed in the long run that subjects, having received collocation instruction, achieved substantial progress in their reading skills by contrast to those who did not. In 2015, Heidar and Achouri designed an experiment in which 84 Iranian Intermediate EFL learners received corpus-based collocation instruction so as to assess its impact on their writing

ability. A pretest and posttest method was employed for data collection and scrutiny. Reported results indicated that the participants' writing proficiency correlated significantly with their use of lexical collocations. Previously, Sung (2003) attempted to verify whether a positive correlation existed between speaking proficiency and knowledge and use of lexical collocations. Subjects of the study were 72 international students attending Pittsburg University. These latter sat for two tests. While the first of them was meant to measure subjects' knowledge of lexical collocations; the second aimed at assessing lexical collocations use and its correlation to their oral fluency. By analyzing data, it was reported that speech delivery was positively affected by familiarity with lexical collocations.

Hsu and Chiu (2008) have also explored whether word combinability knowledge and use could impact speaking proficiency. To collect data, they had recourse to three tests that were administered to 56 Taiwanese university students. One of those tests was on word combinability; the two others were mere speaking tests. Reported results showed that there was a strong correlation between the subjects' knowledge of collocations and their ability to speak, but no correlation was observed between use and familiarity with collocations. Later, in 2013 Attar and Alami addressed the same research theme with 40 Iranian EFL students, who were evenly assigned to an experimental and a control group. They noticed huge signs of improvement from the study sample that underwent explicit collocation instruction. More recently, Wu (2015) investigated the impact of a collocational training on EFL learners' reading and speaking proficiency. He found out that word combinability instruction impacted positively on the study participants' language proficiency. Because no quasi-experimental investigations have been attempted to explore the potential impact of a lexical syllabus on Algerian EFL learners' speaking fluency, our research work approaches the problem of oral disfluency by applying the lexical approach to the oral expression class with an undue focus on collocations.

3. Statement of the problem

Scant attention was devoted to the development of oral fluency within the Algerian EFL classroom; much consideration was given to the writing skill due to the exam-oriented implemented system. As a result, most EFL undergraduate students struggle to express themselves orally. A systematic training where students

are made aware of the importance of lexical chunks could be very advantageous for moving up the speaking proficiency ladder especially at an intermediate level. As fully stated by Hill (2000) ‘collocations should play an important part in our teaching from lesson one’ (p: 60), because they are an important aspect of native like speech where ‘vocabulary is not stored only as individual words, but also as parts of phrases and larger chunks, which can be retrieved from memory as a whole and reducing processing difficulties.’ (Willis & Willis, 2006) However, despite their great relevance to EFL learning, lexical collocations have always been an underestimated facet of productive vocabulary (Wei, 1999).

Several studies point at the fact that most EFL learners do not use lexical collocations as frequently as native speakers (e.g. Hasselgren 1994; Howarth 1996; Kaszubski 2000; Granger 1998; Lorenz 1999). Instead, they overuse a small number of the most common ones in addition to relying on synonyms or paraphrasing (Kasuzbki, 2000). According to Lewis (2000), learners’ lack for a collocational competence is one of the reasons why they form longer utterances to convey their ideas, which is quite compatible with Bahns and Eldaw (1993) study in which they found out that English learners’ general vocabulary level outpaced their knowledge of collocations. Moreover, Lennon (1996) work with a group of German advanced EFL learners demonstrated that they were unable to use high frequency verbs properly, implying that they had a deficient collocational competence. It is for this reason that proficient methods should be employed to bring students’ awareness to the full combinatory potential of words (Channell, 1981; Granger 1998). One way of doing so is by applying a lexical approach.

Though many language learners similize language proficiency to the acquisition of the speaking skill as they maintain that a high level of oral fluency enables them to function better in different social settings and under varied circumstances (Ganji, 2012), few training syllabi have been designed for its teaching in the Arab world (Farghal and Obiedat, 1995). Our research attempts to add some newer insights with regard to the speaking proficiency development by implementing a lexical syllabus to the oral expression class in an Algerian context, where lexical collocations are the foundation on which it rests. Being a university teacher allowed us to get a hands-on experience of some of the most common difficulties encountered

by English students within the oral expression class. To obtain a clearer picture of those difficulties, we conducted some informal and formal interviews with both students and teachers in the English department of the University Centre of Relizane. We have also analyzed some recorded stretches of spontaneous speech.

The analysis of the data revealed that most teachers adopted conventional techniques for the teaching of the oral expression class including interactional activities, where students are supposed to prepare drafts for class discussion of some specific topics. Furthermore, we found out that many students lacked adequate knowledge of vocabulary items and hence had a very limited vocabulary repertoire, but also no knowledge of the combinatory possibilities of the words they already know, the reason why we took the initiative to incorporate the teaching of the right associations of words within the oral expression class so that they can gain more ‘naturalness’ as claimed by McCarthy and O’Dell (2005) ‘lexical collocations give you the most natural way to say something : smoking is strictly forbidden is more natural than smoking is strongly forbidden.’

4. Aims of the study

The present study has been conducted with the aim of:

1. Assessing the impact of a lexical syllabus on first-year students’ oral fluency level.
2. Refocusing students’ attention to lexical collocations rather than individual words through consciousness-raising techniques.

5. Hypothesis

Our seven years of teaching experience at a university level led us to observe that most intermediate English students (especially first-year classes) struggle to combine the words they acquired during their previous learning experiences with their correct collocates, which increases risks for reluctance and indifference to the speaking act. Their inability to maintain a smooth flow of longer turns in normal conversations might be attributed to their weak collocational competence. Therefore, we hypothesize that:

The implementation of a program that is founded upon the principles of the lexical approach might contribute to the enhancement of students’ speaking performances in

class. We also hypothesize that attracting students' attention to the go-togetherness of words might create more autonomy on their part, which will enable them to learn many other collocations other than those already incorporated in the suggested syllabus.

Thus, we will attempt to remedy to students' dysfluency problems by targeting their collocational competence. We will help them acquire a huge number of lexical collocations within a relatively short time through explicit teaching techniques and visual aids.

6. Research Methodology and Design

Means of the Research

Both qualitative and quantitative methods have been opted for to test the validity of the research hypothesis. A questionnaire has been filled out by first year LMD students with a view to checking their familiarity with lexical collocations in addition to a teachers' interview. Furthermore, the study sample has been divided into a control and an experimental group. Both divisions have been pretested orally. Moreover, a training course has been designed and used with the experimental group for a six-month period with an undue focus on different subtypes of collocations. The control group, on the other hand, has been taught conventionally. Finally, a post-test has been administered to both groups so as to establish a comparison and evaluate the efficacy of the syllabus and its impact on subjects' oral fluency.

Procedure

As we are investigating whether the implementation of a lexical syllabus would yield any significant results with regard to first year students' oral fluency level, we have settled on a mixed method based on both the qualitative and quantitative approaches. The descriptive statistical method is used for the analysis of the questionnaire which has been viewed as the appropriate tool to elicit data about students' familiarity with lexical collocations. The subjects' responses would also provide ample evidence about their proficiency level, frequency of collocation use, class teaching practices and level of awareness on the importance of collocations. Prior to the implementation of the training course, both the control and experimental

groups under study sat for a pre-oral test to assess their fluency level. While the experimental group attended a succession of lessons to introduce its members to lexical collocations, the control group was instructed with interactional tasks. After the training period, both groups sat again for a post-oral test to assess the efficacy of the syllabus.

Population of the study

The study sample consists of 60 first-year English students, all attending at the university centre of Relizane, who were divided and assigned to a control and experimental group randomly and equally. Each group consists of 30 subjects, whose native language is Arabic, all aged between 17 and 23 year-old. During the six-month period of the experiment, the experimental group underwent a basic training on collocations with the aid of a personalized syllabus, designed by the researcher herself. The control group did not receive any kind of treatment.

Significance of the study

Due to the dearth of research studies exploring the effect of using a lexical approach for the teaching of the oral expression class, we felt prompted to conduct such an experiment ourselves. Besides, most college and school teachers complain about their students' fluency problems. In fact, despite having been taught English for seven years, many EFL learners find it difficult to express themselves orally. This could be a clear-cut evidence of faulty teaching practices also suggesting that there has to be a remedy to this deplorable state of affairs. Hence, this research work will contribute to:

- ✓ Provide a preliminary program that can help students broaden their collocational knowledge so that they can use appropriate collocations in various contexts.
- ✓ Introduce learners to the utility of learning lexical collocations so as to attain a high level of speaking fluency.
- ✓ Heighten teachers' awareness about the importance of incorporating explicit collocation teaching into the oral expression class.

7. Structure of the Dissertation

The dissertation comprises four chapters; two of them are theoretical and the remaining ones are practical. The first chapter under the name of the Lexical approach introduces how this latter evolved and begun to see the daylight thanks to its godfather: Michael Lewis. It also emphasizes its key principles and how it rose into prominence in addition to methods of implementation along with the classroom activities associated with it. The second places the limelight on lexical collocations, which are defined according to different approaches. Their different subtypes or classifications are also highlighted. Furthermore, special emphasis is laid on the role they serve in the EFL classroom in addition to exploring the difference between language and collocational knowledge, along with collocational and communicative competence. Then, the chapter closes with an investigation of oral fluency and its correlation to lexical chunks. Fluency as a concept is described from different perspectives. Pedagogical approaches to its teaching are also focused on. Moreover, Fillmore's four dimensions of fluency are analyzed. Finally, a list of measurement strategies is provided.

The third chapter involves a description and an analysis of the research questionnaire and interview. We proceed first by the students' questionnaire then the teachers'. Collected data from both research tools are thoroughly discussed. The fourth and last chapter for its part is devoted to the experimental field investigation. It serves the purpose of measuring the efficacy of the lexical syllabus and its impact on the subjects' oral fluency level. Proceedings of the experiment are explained in detail starting from the first phase during which subjects went through a pretest, moving to the implementation of the training course with the experimental group. Quantitative data gathered from both the pre and post oral tests are compared and interpreted so that final conclusions can be drawn. The final phase will include the general conclusion with some pedagogical implications.

Chapter One: The Lexical Approach

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Introduction

This chapter stresses mainly on the Lexical Approach, which can also be referred to as the Lexical input processing approach. It outlines the theoretical background of this approach highlighting its rise into prominence and the main tenets it is founded upon as stated by its founder Michael Lewis (1993). It also provides an outline of the different categories into which lexical chunks fall namely those of Pawley and Syder (1983), also Nattinger & Decarrico (1992), Moon (1997), Benson and Ilson (1986b) and Lewis (1997). In addition, it presents a general review about the format and design of Structural and Functional Syllabi with an undue focus on the Lexical syllabus. Besides, it provides a critical overview of Willis (1990) Level1 course book which has been analyzed by Parana (1998). Moreover, it brings to the fore the pedagogical importance of LA and its relevance to language teaching and learning. And finally it scrutinizes its limitations.

Introduction to the Lexical Approach

Ever since the teaching community has gained interest into foreign language instruction, there has always been an undue focus on grammar. Most linguists pertained that language proficiency was based on a good mastery of grammatical structures excluding vocabulary and belittling its importance. In fact, Richard-Amato (2003) indicated that the classical Grammar-and-Translation Approach also referred to as the Structural Approach was the most predominant teaching approach in the twentieth century. Foreign language learning consisted at automatizing language structures through understanding, translating and deconstructing syntactical structures so as to produce grammatically possible utterances. In sum, its curriculum revolved exclusively around grammar. With the advent of the communicative approach, language was viewed differently. It was no longer considered as a means of understanding works of art and literature, but rather as a means to transmit and receive meaning i.e. to communicate. Thus, by contrast to the GTA, the communicative approach stresses fluency over accuracy. However, most of its syllabi were communicative in name only as the main objective of the instructional units was to practice grammatical sequences. Thus, despite the fact that “ there have been changing trends – from grammar translation to direct method to the communicative approach – none of these has emphasized the importance of the learner's lexical competence over structural grammatical competence.” Carter and McCarthy (1988:111)

Fortunately enough, the early 1990s have witnessed new developments in linguistics and a collection of corpus based studies set out to examine how language functions, and whose findings led to a total redefinition of language, but also to the adoption of a new teaching approach where vocabulary was no longer peripheral to grammar. According to Stubbs (2001), Corpus Linguistics contributed to the creation of databases that comprised vast corpora of authentic language; these latter provided concordance information including word frequency and usage. Jones and Sinclair 1961 were the first to provide a corpus of oral utterances that tracked lexical instead of grammatical structures. Corpus-based studies also revealed that lexical chunks were a substantial part of nativized speech. It was found out that the mental lexicon did not only consist of individual words, but also of thousands of formulaic

expressions ready for retrieval whenever the need arises. This argument can be furthered by Skehan's (1992) claim that language is memory-based and idiomatic. He reckons that first language acquisition goes through three different stages: lexicalization, syntacticalization, and relexicalization. The first of these processes namely lexicalization is the process by which language is acquired as undivided chunks that are gradually deconstructed into their lexical segments during the syntacticalization process becoming syntactic. Finally, the gradual development of the language system becomes bound to the relexicalization process where language learners learn how to cope with time-consuming syntactic patterns during real-time language processing.

Moreover, the vocabulary-grammar dichotomy began to be widely debated as many linguists (Nattinger and De Carriico 1992) deduced that individual words had their own rules and that the majority of them had a limited meaning. However, when incorporated within the context of shorter phrases, their signification became highly varied. In the meantime, many figures from the linguistic circles expressed their opposition to the Chomskyan theory which dictates that native speakers rely entirely on their creative ability to produce newer sentences, by putting forward a new theory which advances that "The building blocks of language learning and communication are not grammar, function, notions, or some other unit of planning and teaching but lexis, that is, word and word combinations." Richards and Rodgers (2014:132)

Obviously, this was a signal of departure from grammar-oriented approaches to a new teaching approach where word combinations are at the centre of the learning process. According to Lewis (1993: 95) "an important part of language acquisition is the ability to comprehend and produce lexical phrases as unanalyzed wholes, or chunks and that these chunks become raw data by which the learner begins to perceive patterns, morphology, and those other features of language traditionally thought of as grammar." Thus, the lexical approach can be regarded as a shift from grammar to vocabulary teaching where formulaic sequences in general are pulled to the forefront of the EFL classroom as they are the key to fluency whose acquisition is based on "a large store of fixed and semi-fixed prefabricated items, which are available as the foundation for any linguistic novelty or creativity" (Lewis 1997:15).

It should not go unnoticed that the Lexical Approach facilitates the daunting task of vocabulary learning. Most L2 Learners are supposed to learn more than 40000 words in addition to a nice big stock of lexical chunks so as to be able to make their messages come across through speaking or writing. To that end, Lewis suggests that vocabulary should be “exploited and recorded in principled ways” (1993:118) through a number of activities that bring lexis into focus. These latter include exercises where authentic materials are used for the identification of collocations along with listening tasks by which lexical information is recorded. Cloze procedures and lexical phrase drills are the most heavily used. Several studies were conducted with a view to assessing the impact of applying the principles of the Lexical approach to the acquisition of various language skills. Many of them came out with findings indicating that such an approach to language teaching can be very beneficial. The very first trial is attributed to Zhang (1993) who indicated that mastery of word combinations rendered non-native College Freshmen written communication more fluent. He also put forward that the more diversified and accurate collocations were used in students’ scripts, the more sophisticated their writing became implying that there is a strong correlation between collocational knowledge and the quality of written communication.

In her four- month period longitudinal study, Liu (2000) attempted to investigate the effect of explicit collocation instruction on her college students’ writing. She relied on pre and post- test techniques to attain accuracy in collecting data. When comparing students’ essays, she eventually found out that those who were taught lexically got a tremendous boost in terms of collocation use unlike those who did not. In another study, the Lexical approach was implemented to teach Russian grammar through instructional sequences that balanced both lexicon and grammar. The researcher’s results confirmed the efficacy of LA in achieving a high level of accuracy and fluency in using newly acquired grammatical structures Gettys (1998). Kavaliauskiene and Janulevieiene (2001) for their part explored the feasibility of treating ESP lexical phrases as ready-made retrievable chunks. Their findings revealed that such a treatment was very beneficial for learners especially as most of the word combinations learnt in ESP classes are context-bound and of a high-frequency use which facilitates their memorization and accessibility. They also

highlighted the indispensability of applying learning language in chunks as it could be considered as a substantial change in L2 vocabulary acquisition. Lexical-field instruction has also been proved to be very efficient in Verspoor and Winitz (1997) experiment, in which it was indicated that such a teaching procedure could have positive results with regard to the acquisition of general language knowledge.

Zhang (2009) carried out a survey on 15 college students to explore the relationship between word combinability and L2 learners' oral English fluency. Results revealed that the employment of chunks rendered students oral English more authentic and more communicative. Thus, it had a considerable impact on the development of speaking proficiency. Likewise, Sung (2003) investigated the effect of collocational knowledge on the oral proficiency of Pittsburgh's university students. The experiment involved 72 non-native English speakers and 24 native English speakers. Her findings showed that the subjects' oral fluency correlated significantly with their knowledge of lexical collocations. Other researchers such as Koosh and Jafarpour (2006) examined the role of a new teaching approach namely the Data-Driven Learning (DDL) in acquiring prepositional collocations through concordance materials. They found out that the reason behind learners' inability to produce fluent spoken and written products lies not in the fact of lacking grammatical or lexical knowledge but to their lack of knowledge of appropriate collocations. Years later, Rahimi and Momeni (2012) studied whether language proficiency could be impacted by teaching vocabulary through collocation and concordance techniques. Their findings showed that language proficiency could be improved through traditional vocabulary teaching methods including translation, explanation and definition or new trends of collocation teaching. In (2015), Wu investigated the impact of a collocational training on EFL learners' reading and speaking proficiency. He observed that there has been a very positive response from the participants and concluded that word combinability instruction had a remarkable impact on their language proficiency.

The main tenets of the Lexical Approach

Since its emergence, the Lexical Approach has officially evolved as a new teaching approach that opposes grammar-based approaches. Its key principle is that

“language consists of grammaticalized lexis, not lexicalized grammar” (Lewis, 1993:34). According to Thornbury:

Lewis challenges the traditional view that language competence consists of having a foundation of grammatical structures into which we slot individual words. Instead, we store a huge assortment of memorized words, phrases and collocations, along with their associated ‘grammar’. The approach concentrates on developing learner’s proficiency with lexis, or words and word combinations.

(2002:14)

Thus, LA is founded upon the view that grammar and lexis are undividable. For Lewis, language consists of chunks of words also referred to as “lexico-grammatical units” Nattinger and Decarrico (1992:36) that have their own grammar, which makes them ready-for use. It is for this reason that he suggests that teachers should concentrate more on getting those lexical phrases into learners’ long-term memory rather than drawing a distinction between grammar and vocabulary. He also rejects the superiority of grammar over lexis. Most of his partisans adhere to the principle that “language is primarily lexical and grammar is largely an illusion created by different models of language” (Rani 2009:162).

The second tenet is that of ‘Consciousness Raising’ the process by which learners are made aware of how the target language works through noticing and deconstructing the form and function of a lexical item. It is worth noting that the notion of consciousness-raising dates back since the early 1980s. It was coined by Sharwood Smith (1983) as a way to express his opposition to Krashen’s (1982) Acquisition and Learning theory, where the significance of explicit instruction on language learning was trivialized. Though advocating form-focused instruction, Sharwood’s theory does not determine what teaching techniques should be adopted to achieve successful noticing. Lewis (1993), however, was more specific by attaching most importance to input-centred activities by which students are led to observe the structure of lexical phrases and construct a hypothesis about the rules that govern them. These latter contribute to noticing (Schmidt, 1990) linguistic/grammatical patterns that results in the conversion of input into intake. In

addition, Lewis advocates that raising learners' awareness of chunks is of a paramount importance to language acquisition. He also insists on the idea that learners should be able to chunk language by themselves as "the central idea to efficient acquisition and effective communication is chunking. Unless you chunk a text correctly, it is almost impossible to read with understanding, and unless you speak appropriate chunks, you place serious a barrier to understanding between yourself and your listeners" (Lewis 1997:58).

The third tenet emphasizes the centrality of collocations, which are conventional combinations of words, such as rancid+butter or suspicious+of. Because they are an integral part of both spoken and written language, Lewis highlights their importance and indispensability to the language learning process. Hill (2000) advocates that there has to be an undue focus on word combinations as these latter minimize the frequency of errors in speaking and writing. According to the Oxford Collocations Dictionary (2009: V):

No piece of natural spoken or written English is totally free of collocation. For the student, choosing the right collocation will make his speech and writing sound much more natural more native speaker-like, even when basic intelligibility does not seem to be at issue. A student who talks about 'strong rain 'may make himself understood, but possibly not without provoking a smile or a correction which may or may not matter. He will certainly be marked down for it in an exam.

Hence, building collocational competence can be regarded as a shortcut to a language proficiency that is error-free and almost approximating that of a native speaker. Another important aspect of the lexical approach is the priority it gives to the speaking skill over writing that is regarded as a secondary encodement with a distinguishable grammar that is completely distinct from that of spoken language. By contrast to the structuralist view in which writing takes priority over speaking, Lewis believes that learners should acquire speaking fluency first before developing their writing skill. It is for this reason that he prioritizes successful communication over the production of accurate language. According to him the learning process should

not be impeded by laying too much emphasis on learners' grammatical mistakes as they are bound to happen especially at the early stages of language acquisition.

Unlike traditional approaches which are based on the Present-Practice-Produce paradigm that is usually associated to the grammar translation method, the lexical approach favors the Observe-Hypothesize-Experiment cycle. While the PPP teaching framework falls within the scope of the deductive approach, OHE is classified among the inductive type. However, it should not go unnoticed that though PPP is regarded as a deductive approach Ellis (1992) and Gabrielatos (1994), language structures can also be presented inductively by providing learners with examples from which rules can be deduced. This latter involves three main stages where language items are presented relying on contextual clues to draw up their underlying rules. This phase is followed by the practice of the structures in focus through controlled activities such as drilling (Byrne, 1986). What ensues is the production stage within which the newly-presented structures are used by students with an undue focus on meaning rather than form. Role plays and writing tasks are the main activities students engage in to guarantee the integration of those items into their interlanguage.

According to Lewis the founding base of the PPP paradigm is behaviourism where skill development is achieved through intensive practice i.e constant repetition. Likewise, Skehan (1996) also relates PPP to the behaviorist theory because of the utilization of drills in the practice stage. Both researchers disapprove of this teaching framework as it does not allow the learner to deconstruct the targeted language items through conscious analysis. However, other researchers such as Ranta and Lyster (2007, p149) posit that PPP should be linked to the cognitive learning theory rather than behaviorism. The argument they put forward in justification for their claim is founded upon the similarities between PPP and Anderson's (1982) three phase skill building model which in turn includes three stages namely the declarative stage where there is a conscious involvement of learners in the learning process so as to attain understanding of the language forms in focus and their meaning, also knowledge compilation at which the presented items are fostered through practice and finally the procedural stage where automatic production is achieved.

With regard to the Observation-Hypothesis-Experiment cycle, Lewis explains that unlike the PPP which is a teacher-centered approach, the OHE is learner-centered. It involves a complete engrossment of the learner in the learning process without much interference or guidance from the teacher. The starting point of this paradigm is the Observe stage along with the Hypothesis and Experiment stages as route points. In the former phase, spoken or written input is provided to the learners so that they can proceed to its chunking by probing into the language data and drawing conclusions about its targeted patterns. Then, learners are expected to construct hypotheses about the rules that govern the already observed language patterns in focus to be later tested in the third and last stage namely the Experiment stage where learners get the chance to validate their predictions in communicative language tasks. Hence, the OHE paradigm reflects how Lewis views language acquisition which in his opinion should combine consciousness raising along with an abundant flow of salient authentic input. The last tenet is recycling, the process by which the language forms in focus are to be automatized. According to Lewis (1997) learners should be given the opportunity to review and recycle the previously learnt items through reinforcement activities that will eventually lead to enhancing their fluency level. However, he specifies that “recycling should be done in an interesting and refreshing way, so that learners’ interest is still engaged” (1997:45).

Lexical Chunks’ Divisions

Several scholars placed a limelight on the categorization of lexical chunks. Thus, numerous classifications can be identified. Pawley and Syder (1983) were first to classify lexical chunks into memorized sentences and lexical stems. While the former category is not expandable, the latter category can be expanded. For example: ‘May I come in?’ is an instance of a memorized sentence that is used with no possible expansion whatsoever. The lexicalized item ‘Give advice’, however, can be easily expanded into a longer sentence by adding other types of parts of speech. For Nattinger & Decarrico, there are four categories within which lexical chunks fall: Polywords, institutionalized phrases, phrasal constraints and sentence builders. The first division includes short phrases that act as one entity e.g. in conclusion, in a nutshell etc... Institutionalized phrases, on the other hand, are as long as any meaningful sentence and can be used without being combined to other lexical frame

works e.g. How are you doing? (1992:39). The third division namely Phrasal Constraints comprises short and medium-length phrases that are linked to different functions e.g. See you..... (1992:41). Sentence builders, the fourth and last category, establish the basic frame work for whole sentences e.g. My point is that (1992:42).

Moon (1997) classifies lexical chunks into five categories: Compounds, Phrasal verbs, Idioms, Fixed Phrases and Prefabs. The two first divisions are an amalgam of two words or a verb plus particle combined together e.g. Car park, Bring about. Idioms for their part are a combination of multiple items which have holistic meanings that cannot be guessed by analyzing their constituent words individually. With regard to fixed phrases and prefabs, Moon defines the former category as grammatical and discourse items e.g. at least, by far etc... Prefabs, on the other hand, are “semi-fixed strings which are tied to discoursal functions and which form structuring devices” (1997:47). With an almost similar classification to that of Nattinger and Moon in number, Lewis (1997:8) divides multi-word combinations into four classes: words, polywords, collocations and fixed and semi-fixed expressions. According to him, the first division which mainly consists of words commonly known as vocabulary should be regarded as lexical items as long as they can stand alone to infer meaning. Polywords are defined as adverbial phrases of a short-length not exceeding two or three words and which are irreversible. Regarding collocations, he identifies them as “common combinations of words” (2000:127) that recurrently co-occur together. Years ago, Bahnas and Eldaw (1993) specified that these word combinations lied between free expressions and idioms. For Sinclair, in order to analyze collocations: “We may use the term node to refer to an item whose collocations we are studying, and we may define a span as the number of lexical items on each side of a node that we consider relevant to that node. Items in the environment set by the span we will call collocates” (1991:415).

Hence, the main part of any collocation should be referred to as the node whereas its margins should be technically called collocates. Like polywords, collocations cannot be reversed. This means that we are not allowed to use near-synonyms interchangeably. For instance, it would be inadequate to use the verb to do instead of make in combination with the word mistake despite their reciprocity in

meaning. There are a variety of ways for describing collocations. 'Fixedness' is the most commonly relied upon criterion for their description. By this, we mean the degree to which the node and collocate are associated with each other. Fixed collocations, for instance, are not based on the structure they take but rather on the particular meaning they convey e.g. Kick the bucket is an idiom which means to die. Other word combinations, the less fixed ones, are more structural and contribute to the framing of a sentence without carrying some specific meaning by themselves. Let's + verb+ preposition+ noun is an instance of a structural pattern whose base form is not impacted by lexical diversity e.g. Let's go to the movies/ Let's listen to some music etc... It is important for learners to be made aware of the degree of fixedness of collocations in general so that they can distinguish those with a holistic meaning that can be learnt as one item from those which are pattern-bound.

Another way for describing collocations was suggested by Benson and Ilson (1986b). Two major categories were identified: lexical and grammatical word combinations. Eight types can be associated with grammatical collocations, while only seven can be linked to the lexical ones. Grammatical collocations include phrases that contain a dominant word such as a noun, verb, adjective or a preposition. The lexical category for its part is marked with its inclusion of verb+ noun, adjective+ noun, noun+ verb, adverb+ adjective or verb +adverb patterns. When it comes to fixed and semi-fixed expressions, Lewis (1997) groups all of social greetings, politeness phrases, phrase book language and idioms under the category of fixed expressions. Because they are stored as indivisible units, he posits that they should not be analyzed internally and should be taught as chunks. Semi-fixed expressions, however, vary between almost fixed and very free. They are divided into five categories, namely: almost fixed expressions, spoken sentences with a simple slot, expressions with a particular slot-filler, sentence heads and finally more extended frames.

The first category allows for a certain degree of lexical variation, but it remains minimal e.g. It's/ That's not my fault. Despite the fact that they adhere to some specific rules on word organization and composition, the second and third categories are lexically variable at certain positions, as it is the case in: Could you pass.....please? / I haven't seen you + time expressions with for or since.

Sentence heads are more subject to the speaker's creativity and can be lengthened in a variety of ways. For instance, what was really interesting/ surprising/annoying was...etc. The last category can be found in formal letters or opening paragraphs of academic papers. Ex: There are broadly speaking two views of....The more traditional, usually associated with...etc (Lewis, 1997:11).

Syllabus Design

A Theoretical Overview on Syllabus Design

Before we can proceed to a thorough analysis of the format and design of the lexical syllabus, we shall first provide a clear and plausible explanation of the term 'syllabus'. Research in the field of syllabus design is marked by controversy. Meanwhile, it is still possible to determine its significance. According to Nunan (1988:5), there are two approaches to syllabus design namely, the narrower and most traditional view and the broader and more contemporary one. Under the narrower view, syllabus and methodology are two distinct entities and should, thus, be treated disparately. While the former focuses mainly on the selection and grading system of content, the latter centers upon how to select learning tasks and activities. The broader approach for its part does not establish any kind of distinction between syllabus and methodology. Its advocates undermine the use of such separation contending that with the arrival of CLT, it became unsustainable to distinguish content and learning tasks. As a result, Nunan (1988:5) identifies two types of syllabi: the product and the process-oriented type.

In his analysis, Nunan (1988) distinguishes first the terms product and process by putting forward that: "what we mean when we refer to 'process' is a series of actions directed toward some end. The 'product' is the end itself. [...] A list of grammatical structures is a product. Classroom drilling undertaken by learners in order to learn the structures is a process. The interaction of two speakers as they communicate with each other is a process. A tape recording of their conversation is a product" (p: 27). It should be noted that both of the structural/gramatical syllabus along with the notional (or functional-notional) syllabus are the resulting product of adopting a traditional view towards syllabus design and are, thus, product-oriented syllabuses. One particular characteristic of these syllabi is that they lay emphasis on

“the knowledge and skills which learners should gain as a result of instruction’ (Nunan 1988:27), which implies that the prime target in this case is ‘the end products or results of the teaching/learning process” (p: 40).

With regard to the planning of product-oriented syllabi, Nunan relied on Wilkins’ analysis to distinguish the analytic and synthetic strategies. According to him: “a synthetic language teaching strategy is one in which the different parts of language are taught separately and step-by-step, so that acquisition is a process of gradual accumulation of the parts until the whole structure of the language has been built up” (1976:2). And so, the format of any syllabus that embraces this approach would look like a backlog of grammatical structures and a limited list of lexical items. In the analytic approach, however: “there is no attempt at this careful linguistic control of the learning environment. Components of language are not seen as building blocks which have to be progressively accumulate” (1976:2). In this case, they: “are organized in terms of the purposes for which people are learning language and the kinds of language performance that are necessary to meet those purposes” (1976:13).

However, when it comes to process-oriented syllabi, things differ in a way that there is a shift of emphasis towards “the outcomes of instruction, i.e., the knowledge and skills to be gained by the learner, to the processes through which knowledge and skills might be gained” (Nunan 1988:40). This approach of syllabus design is usually found in procedural and task-based syllabuses. Unlike product-oriented syllabi, these latter do not consist “... of a list of items determined through some form of linguistic analysis, nor of a description of what learners will be able to do at the end of a course of study, but of the specification of the tasks and activities that learners will engage in class.” In terms of methodology, Richards and Rodgers (1986:21) note that: “the term syllabus is less frequently used in process-based methods, in which considerations of language content are often secondary.” As an example, they took Counseling-Learning, an approach where it is impossible to determine the content of the syllabus if lessons are not recorded, because they are chosen by the learners themselves during class.

Before discussing the lexical syllabus, an undue discussion of the structural and notional syllabi is an absolute must. They have been chosen as a parameter of

comparison due to their popularity in the field of syllabus design, but also because they are still in current use.

The Structural Syllabus

According to Nunan (1988) the structural syllabus is a selection of grammatical items which are organized according to their degree of complexity. It is the resulting product of Charles Fries (1945) structuralist and behaviourist view about language learning:

The most efficient materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner. These results must be organized into a satisfactory system for teaching and implemented with adequate specific practice materials through which the learner may master the sound system, the structure, and the most useful lexical materials of the foreign language.

(Fries, 1945:9)

Keith Johnson (1982:8), a British linguist and a supporter of structuralism and behaviorism, explains that “if the students are to become proficient in the language, they must master the mechanisms by which the language works. They must learn the language system.” This view of language learning is also commensurate with the principles of behaviorism which provided the rationale for the structural syllabus. Behaviorists such as Skinner: “believed that only externally observable behavior was psychologically relevant for study and that internal mechanisms responsible for that behavior could not be investigated scientifically. A basic unit of behavior for this school was the habit [emphasis added], which was the result of externally determined conditions” (Beebe, 1988:25). This only means that language is a set of externally conditioned habits which could be learnt individually.

This conception about language was adopted by several linguists so as to be implemented in the EFL classroom. Brown (1980:148) argued that “behaviorism contributed to the notion that human behavior is the sum of its smallest parts and

components, and therefore that language learning could be described as the acquisition of all of these discrete units.” This implies that behaviorism and structuralism were theoretically consistent and compatible. Hence, learning a second language could be interpreted as: “overcoming a habit formed when the first language was acquired and replacing it, or at least overcoming its influence, when learning the second language” (Beebe, 1988:25). As pointed out by Fries (1945:5) “in learning English one must attempt to imitate exactly the forms, the structures, and the mode of utterance of the native speakers of the particular kind of English he wishes to learn.” It is for this reason that: “the contrastive analysis hypothesis was important to this view of language learning, since if trouble spots in the target language could be anticipated, errors might be prevented or at least held to a minimum, in this way, the formation of bad habits could be avoided” (Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991:55).

In sum, language structures should be learnt in a linear fashion and be completely mastered by the learners before moving to new items (Nunan, 2001). Once mastered, it is the learners’ “task to put these isolated and supposedly mastered items next to one another and re-synthesise the language that has been presented to them in a broken fashion” (Wilkins, 1976). If this happens successfully, full mastery of the target language could be confirmed. It is worthy to note that most grammatical syllabi are described as “an inventory of grammatical structures” disregarding lexical items (Wilkins 1976:2). They are also characterized by the fact that “what has to be learned is identified as a form and rarely as a set of meanings. It is very rare for grammatical meanings to be specified.” (Wilkins 1976:8). It is for this reason that it has been widely criticized but also replaced by the notional syllabus which gives more importance to the language functions that it completely dismisses.

The Notional Syllabus

The notional syllabus evolved during the seventies. It was meant to replace the structural syllabus. It is based on the idea that forming grammatically correct sentences is not enough to achieve successful communication. Indeed, many of the studies carried out up to then on children’s language acquisition came out with the conclusion that these latter could use their mother tongue in a very creative and unique way. They were able to produce utterances without prior exposure. This view did not only disconfirm the underlying assumption upon which behaviorism rests,

and which is that language is the result of habit formation, but it also led to the adoption of a new approach to language teaching. According to Brumfit and Finocchiaro (1983:10), the new approach “arose primarily out of work commissioned by the Council of Europe, a body which was founded in 1949” which, “convened a team of experts whose brief was to consider the feasibility of developing a language teaching system suitable for teaching all the languages used in the Council's member countries” Johnson (1982:34). Interestingly, “one member of that team, D. A. Wilkins, had the particular task of developing a system of categories by means of which it would be possible to specify the communicative needs of the adult learner working within a European context” (p34).

The categories developed by Wilkins 1973 were: “the communicative function and the semantico-grammatical categories”⁴. While the former category is a set of “items of use such as requests, denials, or offers,” the latter “provides a means of 'itemising signification' [concepts such as time, frequency, quantity]” Johnson (1982:38). Likewise, Jan Van Ek was also a member of the Council of Europe. In 1975 he presented a study where he defines a model for the definition of language-learning objectives based on the notional-functional approach. He identified the components below:

1. The situations in which the foreign language will be used, including the topics which will be dealt with.
2. The language activities in which the learner will engage.
3. The language functions which the learner will fulfil.
4. What the learner will be able to do with respect to each topic.
5. the general notions which the learner will be able to handle;
6. The specific (topic-related) notions which the learner will be able to handle
7. The language forms which the learner will be able to use
8. The degree of skill with which the learner will be able to perform.

(Jan Van Ek, 1975:9)

Table1.1. The Main Components of a Notional-Functional Syllabus

Thus, it could be stated that it is thanks to Wilkins and Jan Van Ek pieces of work that a shift towards a new approach to language teaching has been triggered. It is

⁴For more details about the communicative function and semantic grammatical categories, see Wilkins’ article entitled 'The linguistic and situational content of the common core in a unit/credit system' of 1973.

worth noting that the leading reason for the adoption of a notional syllabus lies in the fact that: “language was much more appropriately classified in terms of what people wanted to do with the language (functions) or in terms of what meanings people wanted to convey (notions) than in terms of the grammatical items as in traditional language teaching models” (Brumfit and Finocchiaro 1983:12).

By attempting to identify the language functions to be incorporated in the notional syllabus, the British linguist Michael Halliday (1975:18) recommended a set “which would serve for the interpretation of the language of a very young child [learning his first language]; that is, as an initial hypothesis for some kind of functional or socio-linguistic approach to early language development.” He grouped these functions into seven categories namely:

Function	Use	Example
1.Instrumental	Satisfying the child's material needs	'I want'
2.Regulatory	Controlling the behaviour of others	'do as I tell you'
3.Interactional	Interacting with others	'me and you'
4.Personal	Expressing the child's own uniqueness	'here I come'
5.Heuristic	Exploring the environment	'tell me why'
6.Imaginative	Creating a personal environment	'let's pretend'
7.Informative	Communicating information to someone who does not already possess that information.	'I've got something to tell you'

(Halliday 1975:37)

Table1.2 Language functions according to Michael Halliday

In addition to his classification, Halliday (1975) also defines language as a 'semantic potential'. For him “a child who is learning his first language is learning how to mean; ... the linguistic system is to be seen as a semantic potential. It is a range of possible meanings; together with the means whereby these meanings are realized, or expressed” (1975:9). In this case, language should be perceived as “a vehicle for the expression of functional meaning” (Richards and Rodgers 1986:17). In other words, language is seen as communication that:

Maybe regarded as a combination of acts, a series of elements with purpose and intent. Communication is not merely an event, something that happens; it is functional, purposive, and designed to bring about some effect - some change, however subtle or unobservable - on the environment of hearers and speakers.

(Douglas Brown 1980:193)

It has to be stated that the notional syllabus brings to the fore the communicative aspect within language. It aims mainly at the attainment of 'communicative competence'. According to Hymes (as cited in: Brumfit and Johnson 1979:19) "competence is dependent upon both (tacit) knowledge [Chomsky's linguistic competence] and (ability for) use." Interestingly, it is this comprehensive view of language where this latter is no longer fragmented but rather regarded as a whole that led to a shift of focus which was of a tremendous importance to the field of language teaching. Regarding the theory of language learning, Halliday (1975:9) puts forward that "learning of language is essentially the learning of a semantic system." To put this in other words: "Learning language is learning how to mean" (Halliday 1973:24). Apprehensive of the structural approach, Nunan (1988:30) asserts that most of the evidence provided by SLA research point at the fact that learning cannot be achieved according to the structural view, but rather according to Richards and Rodgers (1986:72),

Little has been written about learning theory, although some elements of an underlying learning theory can be discerned. These are the communication principle: Activities that involve real communication promote learning. A second element is the task principle: Activities in which language is used for carrying out meaning tasks promote learning. A third element is the meaningfulness principle: Language that is meaningful to the learner supports the learning process. Learning activities are consequently selected according to how well they engage the

learner in meaning and authentic language use (rather than merely mechanical practice of language patterns).

Nunan (1988:30)

Despite its lack of clarity, by contrast to the structural view, the theory of language learning in the case of the notional syllabus does not only berate previously posited assumptions, but also provides the possibility for adopting new ways to learn a foreign language. Meanwhile, Widdowson⁵ admits that both of the structural and notional syllabi have missed their main target which is to achieve ability to communicate. He argues that:

Both types of syllabus recognize that the learner's goal should be the ability to communicate. They differ in the assumption of what needs to be actually taught for this ability to be acquired. In both cases there is a gap between what is taught and what is learnt, both leave something for the learner to find out for himself. They differ again in their awareness of this fact.

(Widdowson, 1979:248)

For him, the notional syllabus did not live up to the expectations of the teaching community. It just replaced an inventory of structures by another inventory of functions and notions. He goes on stating that, despite it all, “what the work on notional syllabuses has done, is to sharpen our perception of what is required of a syllabus if it is to develop communicative competence in learners” (1979:249). He also recognizes that the notional syllabuses “are the first serious consideration on what is involved in incorporating communicative properties in a syllabus” (Ibid: 250). However, he maintains that better results would have been attained if the notional syllabus was used as “a means of developing the structural syllabus rather than replacing it” (Ibid: 250).

The Lexical Syllabus

In comparison with the product/structural and process/notional oriented approaches in which grammatical structures and language functions are at the core of the syllabus, the lexical type prioritizes vocabulary as clearly stated by Lewis:

⁵ Widdowson, H.G. (1979) Explorations in Applied Linguistics. Oxford University Press, Oxford.

The Lexical Approach places communication of meaning at the heart of language and language learning. This leads to emphasis on the main carrier of meaning, vocabulary. The concept of a large vocabulary is extended from words to lexis, but the essential idea is that fluency is based on the acquisition of a large store of fixed and semi-fixed prefabricated items, which are available as the foundation for any linguistic novelty or creativity. Grammatical knowledge permits the creative recombination of lexis in novel and imaginative ways, but it cannot begin to be useful in that role until the learner has a sufficiently large mental lexicon to which grammatical knowledge can be applied.”

(1997:15)

As vocabulary is the foundation upon which the lexical approach rests, we saw that it would be inadequate to talk about the lexical syllabus without providing insights into the role played by vocabulary throughout the history of second language acquisition, and how it was managed according to the different schools of thoughts. Vocabulary teaching has caught scholars' interest since 1690. During that period it was believed that the description of concrete words through pictures was more efficient than common strategies such as paraphrasing and providing definitions⁶. Two centuries later other techniques were found to be more useful. The Frenchman François Gouin developed “a new system for the learning of vocabulary, that consisted of arranging words into sets corresponding to typical sequences of actions and processes” (Carter and McCarthy 1988:39). Later, other attempts were made to define a basic or core vocabulary. The 30s have witnessed what came to be known as the 'vocabulary control movement' which aimed at controlling vocabulary through developing organized arrangements of words and phrases that describe a specific domain. According to Carter and McCarthy (Ibid:1) two pieces of work belonging to this movement deserve focus of attention namely: “the work on Basic English of C.K. Ogden and I.A. Richards; and the work on definition vocabulary which led to the production by Michael West of A General Service List (1953).”

⁶Carter, R.A. and McCarthy, M.J. (1988:39) Vocabulary and Language Teaching. Longman, London.

Ogden and Richards's prime objective was to compile a list that includes a basic minimum vocabulary to learn English which does not exceed 850 (Ibid: 2). To select the vocabulary, two main criteria were taken into consideration coverage and ease of learning (Nation (1990:21). West's list, however, “consists of 2,000 words with semantic and frequency information drawn from a corpus of two to five million words. It is claimed that knowing these words gives access to about 80 percent of the words in any written text” (Op.cit:7). Indeed, his compilation includes 2000 headwords. In addition to the frequency of the main headword, it also provides the relative frequency of its meanings:

<p>[e.g.] OWN 3244e own, adj. (showing possession)</p> <p style="padding-left: 40px;">This is my own house; I don't rent it Use this pen. Thanks, I'd rather use my own of your own Why do you use my pen? Haven't you got a pen (one) of your own (1.3%) 89% [= for myself Cooked my own dinner as the servant was ill, 0.2%]</p> <p>own, v. He owns a lot of land round here 9% [own that, own up to = confess, 1.5%] owner, n. 314e; ownership, n., 52e (GSL, p. 347)</p> <p>[Another characteristic of West's list is that,] [u]nlike most other frequency counts, the GSL includes forms under the same headword. So the entry for own includes own, owns, owned, owning, and includes owner and ownership.</p> <p style="text-align: right;">(Nation 1990:22)</p>

Table 1.3 Examples of West’s Compilation of Words

Despite of all the advantages that the Ogden and Richard's and West's lists provide for learning vocabulary, “the period 1945-1970 was a limbo for vocabulary as an aspect of language teaching in its own right” (Carter and McCarthy 1988:41). As a matter of fact that era has witnessed a complete neglect of vocabulary teaching due to the influence of structuralism and behaviorism which were the most dominant paradigms at that time. Grammar was the centre of interest based on the premise that: "a person has 'learned' a foreign language when he has thus first, within a limited vocabulary mastered the sound system (that is, when he can understand the stream of speech and achieve an understandable production of it) and has, second, made the structural devices (that is, the basic arrangements of utterances) matters of automatic habit" (Fries 1945:3). Hence, it is only after having acquired phonetic and grammatical accuracy that “a student is ready to devote his chief attention to

expanding his vocabulary” (1945:3). Obviously, such an approach does not give so much attention to vocabulary acquisition.

In addition to the predominance of the structural and behavioral views, contrastive analysis has also played an important role during that period as there was a shared belief that L1 interference was the reason behind the learning difficulties that learners encountered in acquiring a new language. As a result, the idea of habit formation was reinforced leading to a multitude of choices such as the introduction of 'cognates' that could be easily remembered and produced “if introduced in the contexts of their frequent parallel uses” (Fries 1945:50-51). Moreover, the inclination towards the view of limiting the use of vocabulary had a psychological explanation as well. Fries (1945:54) puts forward that “thorough control and the feeling of confidence in the use of a limited number of items makes for more progress than an uncertain acquaintance with a large number of words”. Sinclair and Renouf (as cited in: Carter and McCarthy 1988:141) provide a concise and clear description of the prevailing language theory of that period by stating that “language consists of a set of rules for the combination of words into well-formed and meaningful sentences where a small number of frequent words are used to indicate the structural frameworks and these have no independent content. The frameworks provide places for the selection of content words chosen from a large lexicon.” In this context the role of vocabulary was limited to the exemplification and practice of the syntactical rules of the language.

Nonetheless, the 1970s witnessed a redefinition and a re-discussion of the role of vocabulary teaching in the EFL classroom. Among the many scholars who were in favor of attaching more importance to vocabulary teaching, there was Wilkins (1972:111) who claimed that “while without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed.” He admits that communication becomes possible only when one has enough appropriate vocabulary to communicate with, and that without it language interchange is hindered (1972:111). Krashen and Terrell (1983:155) were also of the same opinion by claiming that “if our students know the morphology and the syntax of an utterance addressed to them, but do not know the meaning of key lexical items, they will be unable to participate in the communication.”

As a result, this new shift in language teaching led to the launching of a new wave of graded/guided readers by publishers, such as Heinemann in 1977 and William Collins and Son in 1979. Book designers started to make use of pre-established lists of words to introduce learners to the most basic vocabulary of the language. For instance, the Longman Structural Readers were designed, according to West's GSL (General Service List) of 1953 (Carter and McCarthy 1988:7). In this regard, McCarthy argues that:

The idea that there might be a core or basic vocabulary of words at the heart of any language is quite an appealing one to language educators, for if we could isolate that vocabulary then we could equip learners with a survival kit of core words that they could use in virtually any situation, whether spoken or written, formal or informal, or in any situation where an absolutely precise term, the mot juste, might be elusive and where a core word would do

(McCarthy, 1990:49)

Despite its indispensability, it has to be stated that “ the teaching and learning of vocabulary has never aroused the same degree of interest within language teaching as have such issues as grammatical competence, contrastive analysis, reading, or writing” (Jack Richards, 1985: 176). Fortunately enough and thanks to Wilkins' suggestions vocabulary teaching was no longer disvalued as it used to be, and gained more attention than it ever did before. Concrete evidence of such transition lies in the number of teaching approaches that have been developed to facilitate its acquisition and storage during the following years as the application of semantic fields and componential analysis that Rudzka et al. adopted in their books *The Words You Need* (1981) and *More Words You Need* (1985). Also the incorporation of word field diagrams and practice activities devised to exploit words and their parallels, opposites, idiomatic expressions, collocations etc...which Gairns and Redman used in their book *Working with words* (1986), in addition to McCarthy's and Nations' pieces of works namely *Vocabulary* (1990) and *Teaching and learning vocabulary* (1990).

Unfortunately, the statements acknowledging the relevance and usefulness of vocabulary teaching added to the several attempts made to promote its acquisition were not enough sufficient to make it stand on a steady theoretical foundation. And this is partly due to the fact that the approach to vocabulary teaching at that time was not systematic in terms of selection and coverage as most of the lexical items meant to be taught were selected intuitively and based on observation. In fact, several deficiencies were found in Ogden and Richards's Basic English Word List and West's GSL, as put forward by Nation (qtd in Carter and McCarthy, 1988:3) who through his analysis of Ogden and Richards's list concluded that there was a disbalance between the 850 word forms and the number of meanings that they could generate and which exceeded 12,425. Regarding West's list, Meara (1993:15) argues that: "what actually happens is that with a vocabulary of 2000 words, you can understand everything you see or hear a lot of the time, but other times you won't understand anything at all."

But things started to change during the 80s, especially with the advent of some newer studies that encouraged the use of computers, which by contrast to traditional approaches, could analyze large amounts of actual language systematically and hence more objectively. Interestingly, several approaches to vocabulary teaching took interest in the insights presented by those studies. Consequently, a new trend in language teaching emerged putting vocabulary at the centre of the learning process. This shift of focus can be easily perceived in the work of James Nattinger and Jeanette DeCarrico (1992:1) who got considerably influenced by the results of computational analysis which "lends considerable support to the significance and pervasiveness of lexical phrases in language use" (1992:20). Together they examined the utility of 'lexical phrases' to fluency development. In this regard, they state that:

It is our ability to use lexical phrases, in other words, that helps us speak with fluency. This prefabricated speech has both the advantage of more efficient retrieval and of permitting speakers (and hearers) to direct their attention to the larger structure of the discourse, rather than keeping it focused narrowly on individual words as they are produced. All this, of course, fits

very neatly with results of computational and language acquisition research.

(1992:32)

The early nineties witnessed the emergence of a new language learning approach namely the Lexical Approach. Its founder Michael Lewis (1993) describes it as a comprehensive approach that does not obey to the standard view about language where grammar and vocabulary are separated. Instead, it is founded upon the premise that language comprises a set of chunks that can be easily combined to guarantee smoothness and continuity (1997:7). It is for this reason he recommends that lexical chunks including collocations, fixed expressions and semi-fixed expressions should be incorporated into the EFL classroom. According to him:

The Lexical Approach places communication of meaning at the heart of language and language learning. This leads to emphasis on the main carrier of meaning, vocabulary. The concept of a large vocabulary is extended from words to lexis, but the essential idea is that fluency is based on the acquisition of a large store of fixed and semi-fixed prefabricated items, which are available as the foundation for any linguistic novelty or creativity. Grammatical knowledge permits the creative recombination of lexis in novel and imaginative ways, but it cannot begin to be useful in that role until the learner has a sufficiently large mental lexicon to which grammatical knowledge can be applied.

(Lewis 1997:15)

Just as James Nattinger and Jeanette DeCarrico (1992:1), Michael Lewis recognizes the enormous contribution of computational analysis to the field of language teaching in general and to the development of the Lexical Approach in particular. In this regard, he argues that the Cobuild (Collins-Birmingham University International Language Database) project provides detailed information about natural language use (1993:45). He also adds that no dictionary other than the Cobuild, first published in 1987 “acknowledges explicitly, within the defining style, the statistical

nature of linguistic data” (Lewis 1993:62), which in his view serves a crucial role “both theoretically and for practical classroom activities” (Lewis, 1993:62). Moreover, computational analysis has refocused attention on how language is organized through the selection of the most typical in it namely chunks, which are an amalgam of word meaning and grammar. This huge advance did not only storm the barricade traditionally put between lexis and grammar, but it has also contributed to placing more importance on vocabulary when it comes to syllabus design⁷.

In fact, due to the important number of language corpora analyzed (around 20 million words), John Sinclair (1991), suggested that the linguistic data collected should be used in devising a lexical syllabus. The development of the very first lexical syllabus was stimulated by Sinclair’s analysis of language components. In his book *Corpus, concordance, collocation*, Sinclair maintains that:

It is folly to decouple lexis and syntax, or either of those and semantics. By far the majority of text is made of the occurrence of common words in common patterns, or in slight variants of those common patterns. Most everyday words do not have an independent meaning, or meanings, but are components of a rich repertoire of multiword patterns that make up text.

(1991:108)

Adhering to the principle of a lexicalized grammar and with the help of Antoinette Renouf, Sinclair devised a lexical syllabus that was founded upon the data collected from the computational analysis of English, which was initially used as the data base for producing dictionaries. Both researchers maintained that it was high time for the language teaching/learning community to benefit from the advances of computational analysis. The vision they had was that 'for any learner of English, the main focus of study should be on: a) the commonest word forms in the language; b) their central patterns of usage; c) the combinations which they typically form' (qtd from: Carter and McCarthy 1988:148). This deviation from the traditional view,

⁷ John Sinclair (1991:37), *Corpus Concordance Collocation*, Oxford University Press: Oxford.

where grammar is placed in the limelight, can be justified by the fact that 'if the analysis of the words and phrases has been done correctly, then all the relevant grammar, etc. should appear in a proper proportion. Verb tenses, for example, which are often the main organizing feature of a course, are combinations of some of the commonest words in the language' (1988:155). Yet, Sinclair and Renouf oppose the idea of piling words without taking into consideration the criterion of selectivity. This is clearly expressed when they say:

A simple list of words is not nearly explicit enough to constitute a syllabus. In order to construct an adequate syllabus, it is necessary to decide, in addition to which words we want to include in our syllabus, such things as what it is about a word that we want to teach, and what counts as a word.

(1988:146)

And so with this conception in mind, Sinclair and Renouf (1988:150) devised a lexical syllabus based upon three different aspects: lexical collocations and some lower frequency, utility words and word forms which:

can be subsumed under their base form or full form in a teaching list, and that can be identified according to their frequency; central patterns of usage such as the ones provided by delexical verbs which are transitive verbs that carry particular nouns or adjectives which can in most cases themselves be transitive verbs showing that in general, the more frequent a word is, the less independent meaning it has, because it is likely to be acting in conjunction with other words, making useful structures or contributing to familiar idiomatic phrases.

(Sinclair and Renouf qtd in: Carter and McCarthy 1988:153)

As it was targeted toward the beginner level, Sinclair and Renouf attempted to balance “natural usage and utility” and highlight “the common uses of the common words” (1988:154). The total number of words used in the lexical syllabus was about 700, almost a quarter of it was classified within the category of utility words, which were incorporated due to the fact that “... English makes excessive use, e.g. through phrasal verbs, of its most frequent words, and so they are well worth learning' (1988:

155). While attempting to describe their lexical syllabus, they argue that it is “an independent syllabus, unrelated by any principles to any methodology.” In other words, it was a comprehensive syllabus that could be distinguished by its specification of “the exact nature of the content, the sequence of events and the pattern of coverage” (Sinclair and Renouf 1987: 145). With regard to how to construct a balanced and comprehensive course, they say that:

The designer will no doubt keep a tally of structures, notions and functions, as well as vocabulary. But in the presentation of materials based on a lexical syllabus, it is not strictly necessary to draw attention to these check lists. If the analysis of the words and phrases has been done correctly, then all the relevant grammar, etc. should appear in a proper proportion.

(As cited in: Carter and McCarthy 1988:155)

They also add that “one big advantage of a lexical syllabus is that it only offers to the learner things worth learning. So instead of building up phrases, the learner will be gradually breaking them down, sensing the variability” (1988:155-156). Furthermore, they put forward that “the emphasis shifts from constructing messages to delivering them, and delivering them to maximum effect, and to achieving communicative goals’ (1988:156). Hence, the lexical syllabus could be regarded as a huge step towards innovation in the field of syllabus design, as it allowed for a change in terms of content by focusing on vocabulary, but also use as it covers the most useful expressions in the language.

Classification of the Lexical Syllabus

As its “content is stated in terms of the outcomes of instruction [, i.e., it focuses on] the things that learners should know or be able to do as a result of instruction” (Nunan,1988:11), the lexical syllabus falls within the category of the product-oriented syllabi. It is also analytic due to the fact that “learners are presented with chunks of language which may include structures of varying degrees of difficulty. The starting point is not the grammatical system of the language, but the communicative purposes for which language is used” (1988:28). Interestingly, this implies that both the lexical and notional syllabus have something in common, as the

two of them are analytic in nature and aim at achieving communicative goals by equipping learners with the commonest and most useful language patterns. The structural syllabus, on the other hand, has nothing in common with the lexical syllabus. It provides learners with a list of grammatical items organized from the easiest to the most difficult and which are presented in an isolated fashion so as to be synthesized later. That is why it has been classified under the banner of the synthetic type.

It should not go unnoticed that despite being classified within the same category, all of the lexical and notional syllabi including the structural type diverge in terms of theory of language and language learning. The Lexical syllabus for instance has derived substantial benefit from computational analysis, which provided a proper understanding and a clearer description of language in terms of use and how it works. This understanding could have never been reached without having analyzed the open-choice principle and the idiom principle. By contrast to the open-choice principle also known under the name of the “slot and filler” model and which advances the idea that each slot in a sentence can be filled in with multiple choices, the idiom principle encourages the use of multi-word composites “prefabs”. Bolinger was first to oppose the exclusive reliance on the open-choice principle. For him “Speakers do at least as much remembering as they do putting together” (1976: 2) thanks to their brain memory capacity.

Sinclair for his part argues that “we would not produce normal text simply by operating the open-choice principle” (1991:110), given that it has been statistically proven that the number of possible choices to fill a sentence slot was restricted by some restraints that only the idiom principle can account for. He also adds that the computational analysis’ findings are in line with the presumption that “words combine, or collocate, with each other in certain characteristic ways” (Sinclair and Renouf as cited in: Carter and McCarthy 1988:154), which leaves no room for randomness and emphasizes the “non-random nature of language”. According to him “The principle of idiom is that a language user has available to him or her a large number of semi-preconstructed phrases that constitute single choices, even though they might appear to be analyzable into segments” (1991:110). This principle has a number of characteristics that Sinclair describes as follows:

a. Many phrases have indeterminate extent. As an example consider set eyes on. This seems to attract a pronoun, subject, and either never or a temporal conjunction like the moment, the first time and the word has as an auxiliary to set [...]

e. Many uses of words and phrases attract other words in strong collocation, for example, hard work, hard luck, hard facts, hard evidence [...]

g. Many uses of words and phrases show a tendency to occur in a certain semantic environment. For example, the verb happen is associated with unpleasant things- accidents and the like.

(Sinclair qtd in Dirk Siepmann 2005: 46)

Table 1.4 The Characteristics of the Idiom Principle according to Sinclair (2005:46)

Concerning their degree of pervasiveness, Erman and Warren (2000) statistical study revealed that about 45% of all authentic text is associated with the open-choice model, while the 55% left goes to the idiom principle. This implies that despite their differences, the two principles work hand in hand. It is for this reason that Sinclair insists on the fact that “in order to explain the way in which meaning arises from language text, we have to advance two different principles of interpretation. One is not enough. The two principles are” (1991:109).

It is impossible to deny the fact that the lexical syllabus has contributed tremendously to the evolution of language theory. However, this does not apply to language learning theory. The structural and notional syllabuses, on the other hand, made a dual contribution to both language theory and language learning theory. The structural syllabus, for instance, stifled the idea that language consists of “a system of structurally related elements for the coding of meaning.” (Richards and Rodgers 2001:20). This system of structures is taught and acquired through habit formation, which is reminiscent of the behaviorist theory of learning (stimulus, response, reinforcement). Thus, we can say that the structural syllabus has a well-defined mode for language acquisition as opposed to the notional syllabus. In fact, the notional syllabus has adopted a more integrated and holistic approach where several aspects of language were taken into consideration. Unlike the structural syllabus in which grammatical structures form the central organizing feature, the notional type treats

language as a whole and regards it as “a vehicle for the expression of functional meaning” (Richards and Rodgers 2001:20). Obviously, this functional view of language came about as a reaction to the structural view, but also as a result of the communicative revolution which broke out during the 1970’s. Interestingly, this reactionary movement urged educators to go beyond the structural analysis of language and attach more importance to “communicative ability” (Hedge 2000:246).

Despite the fact that the Lexical approach does not contain a detailed learning theory, the lexical syllabus can be classified as product-oriented and analytic. This classification was made on the basis of the partial resemblance it has with the notional syllabus in terms of language learning theory. Willis (1990:129) admits that “we were able to follow through the work of Wilkins and his colleagues in their attempt to specify a notional syllabus.” Points of similarity can be found in their treatment of language and their prioritization of its communicative aspect. Indeed, the notional and lexical syllabuses overlap and parallel to some extent as both types treat language as a whole. They also prioritize the communicative aspect of language by stressing on its extensive use “to achieve real outcomes” that will lead to effective communication (Willis (1990:1). As Dave Willis was the very first author having designed a lexical syllabus based on Sinclair and Renouf’s proposal, his piece of work received assiduous attention by Amos Paran (1993), who has reviewed Willis's book by establishing a list of principles that one can use to scrutiny how Willis conceives language learning. The first principle is: “the commitment to an analytic approach (Wilkins, 1976) which is meaning-based: learners encounter language in use, and it is up to them to examine it and analyse its components.” The second is relative to the importance of grammar which is emphasized “through exercises highlighting grammar points by means of awareness-raising exercises. These exercises are in turn supported by the third principle, one of the clear innovations of the approach: the learner's corpus.”

Regarding the last principle, Willis explains that a learner can easily “arrive at a working description of the language” in the same way as a lexicographer “who arrives at a description of the language through close, repeated examination of a corpus...etc” The fourth principle that ensues has to do with the kind of language resources presented to the learners which are usually limited at a lexical level and

unauthentic, the reason why “it is vital that learners be exposed to authentic language” (Paran 1993:364). Thus, based on Paran’s analysis, we can say that commitment to an analytic meaning-based approach, added to consciousness raising activities to practice grammar, also the learners’ corpus through which language is described in context, and finally exposure to authentic materials provide basis for Willis’ lexical syllabus and foster learning, in his view. Interestingly, these learning principles are also found in notional syllabi where learners are committed to the analysis of language while in use too. Furthermore, they get the chance to deconstruct and analyze grammatical structures through noticing. Another common aspect is the overuse of authentic materials which are the corpus that learners use for getting a close analysis of language.

In brief, our analysis has revealed that the lexical syllabus oscillates between the product-oriented and analytic types. It incorporates both types of syllabi as an amalgam. When it comes to language theory the lexical syllabus introduces the idiom principle (Sinclair 1991), which provides a very logical explanation of how language works and which diverges tremendously from the theoretical proposals of the structural and notional syllabi. Regarding language learning theory, some principles have been put forward by Willis (1990). However, they seem to be not enough to compensate for a well-defined rationale for language learning.

Content and Methodology

Content

One of the most distinguishing features of the lexical syllabus in terms of content is that it is not only word-based but also multi-word patterns and structure-based. It emphasizes words and their meaning in addition to the common phrases in which they are used via corpora Lewis (1993). It is founded upon the assumption that:

for a great deal of the time anyway, language production consists of piecing together the ready-made units appropriate for a particular situation and that comprehension relies on knowing which of these patterns to predict in these situations. Our teaching, therefore, would center on these patterns and the

ways they can be pieced together, along with the ways they vary and the situations in which they occur.

(Nattinger,1980:341.qtd in Richards and Rodgers,2001:134-135)

Thus, it prioritizes the use of lexical chunks which were found “to speed language processing in both comprehension and production” (Aston 1995). These latter are organized according to a functional schema. Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992: 185) put forward that “Distinguishing lexical phrases as social interactions, necessary topics and discourse devices seems to us the most effective distinction for pedagogical purposes, but that is not to say that a more effective way of grouping might not be necessary in the wake of further research.”

Despite the fact that the lexical component is more preeminent than grammatical structures within the lexical syllabus, it has to be stated that this latter “ensures that essential grammatical and other structures and functions will be learned automatically by choosing the most frequent words and word combinations for teaching. Core grammatical words such as the, of, I, that, was, and and make up nearly 20 percent of a typical English text and in a frequency-based lexical syllabus, the main grammatical forms should automatically occur in the correct proportions” (Carter, 2001:46). In this sense, formal descriptions of grammatical rules are avoided. According to Lewis (1996:13) “many traditional classroom activities and attitudes are counter-productive and should be abandoned, or at least greatly de-emphasized.” Instead, he suggests that “acquisition is based not on the application of formal rules but on an accumulation of examples from which learners make provisional generalizations.” He goes on stating that “language production is the product of previously met examples, not formal rules” (1996:14). This implies that the teaching of grammar should be looked at “from a lexical point of view” not from the traditional one where a discrete-item based teaching is emphasized.

As a matter of fact, unlike the structural and notional syllabi, the lexical syllabus provides new ways for presenting and practicing grammatical structures. The passive voice and conditionals, for instance, “do not need to be presented as 'structures', since they can readily be created by learners for themselves, provided they have an understanding of word meaning" (Willis 1990:22). Willis further

explains that “rather than pick out the passive for special treatment, an economical teaching strategy will allow the past participle to be treated adjectivally. One of the consequences of this is that the collocation of be with -ed forms is noted but not given undue prominence” (1990:17). When it comes to other structures such as the reported speech, he notes that “differences in person and in phrases of time and place occur because we are taking a different standpoint from the original writer or speaker. It would be stupid to refer to something as happening today if I am. well aware that it happened several days ago.” In sum, be it the passive voice, the conditional, reported speech or any other structural pattern, Willis relegates the strategy of teaching these structures explicitly to a secondary role. Instead, he proposes that “highlighting word meanings is a much more productive strategy” (1990:19). The adoption of an awareness raising strategy allows for the achievement of such goal. It does not only highlight word meaning, but also offers “learners the potential to create structures for themselves” (Willis 1990: 23).

Because it is a multi-strands-based syllabus that covers “all aspects of language, differing from conventional syllabuses only in that the central concept of organization is lexis”⁸, the lexical syllabus devotes considerable space to language functions. Unlike functional syllabi which “concentrate on micro rather macro-functions and nice rather than nasty events including expressing irritation, expressing disbelief, distancing the speaker from the content of what is said ... which may be at least as important as accepting and refusing invitations politely”⁹, the lexical syllabus incorporates both. According to Willis (1990:120) the content of Level 1 of the Cobuild Collins English Course “lists among other things the 'Social Language' covered. This incorporates most of the functions covered in courses which take language functions as a basic element in syllabus planning." Some of those functions are listed between units 6 and 10 and which are as follows:

⁸ Hall. D and Hewings. A (2001:54): *Innovation in English Language Teaching: A Reader*, Routledge, London.

⁹ Hunston. S (2002: 189): *Corpora in Applied Linguistics*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

1. Asking where people are
2. Telephoning: getting through
3. Agreeing and disagreeing
4. Asking people to wait
5. Informal inviting, accepting, refusing and giving reasons
6. Shopping for clothes: asking for other things
7. Making queries; asking about what people do
8. Making and responding to more formal invitations
9. Classroom questions, instructions and queries
10. Asking for and giving directions
11. Making suggestions, offers, requests
12. Asking about someone else's education
13. Comparing experiences to find something or someone in common.

Table 1.5. Language Functions in Level 1 of the Cobuild Collins English Course

Interestingly, many of the previously mentioned functions “are highlighted when the modals are dealt with” (Willis: 120). This usually occurs during the presentation of certain modal verbs such as can and could which are used for making suggestions, offers and requests. Willis also draws attention to the fact that the native speaker recordings that accompany level 1 include additional language functions such as “reaching agreement” that he views as being “socially and linguistically complex, and is not simply a matter of saying “Yes, I agree with you”. Much more important is experience of the way such functions actually are negotiated and agreed in authentic discourse.” (1990:122). It appears that Willis syllabus does not lay emphasis on a list of “idealized realizations of target functions” but rather on “the negotiation of language functions.”

Methodology

Willis’s (1990) lexical syllabus has been taken as a sample for a close analysis with the aim of determining which methodology could be associated with the lexical syllabus. In his piece of work, he puts into practice Sinclair’s and Renouf’s idea about distinguishing syllabus from methodology. By doing so, he devised a syllabus that does not “encourage the piecemeal acquisition of a large vocabulary, especially initially. Instead, it concentrates on making full use of the words that the learner already has at any particular stage” due to the fact that “there is far more general utility in the recombination of known elements than in the

addition of less easily usable items. The more delicate discrimination of meanings which is accessible to someone who commands a large vocabulary is postponed – at least from the business of the first few years of English” (Sinclair and Renouf 1988: 142,3). Hence, Willis lexical syllabus combines accessibility, utility and avoids excessiveness. He has opted for “a task-based methodology firmly based in language use” (1990:15). The fact that it is an “independent syllabus, unrelated by any principles to any methodology” has facilitated the task of adopting such approach. The reason behind this leaning lies in the fact that it fosters language use in the classroom to achieve meaning exchange, but also offers a focus on language form, which contradicts with conventional methodologies that prioritize language form at the expense of language use (1990:14).

By adopting a task-based approach, Willis aimed at developing a truly communicative methodology where there is a complete disregard of citation or simulation activities and an undue focus on replication. It is worth noting that by contrast to citation and simulation activities where emphasis falls on form, the replication type emphasizes outcome (1990:58-59). Games, problem solving and information gathering are a vivid example of this type of activities where learners 'are required to use language to achieve real outcomes' (Willis 1990:59). However, Willis specifies that in addition to these tasks, learners “must also be given exposure to language relevant to the task they have performed or are about to perform, and in particular they must be given the opportunity to see how competent speakers and writers use the target language to achieve similar outcomes.” The distribution method of the replication tasks learners engage in can be described as very elaborate as it “ involves a pre-task: introduction to a topic, and exposure to texts; a task cycle where a task is planned, drafted and rehearsed, and a final language focus where learners consciously focus on forms used during the task” (Long and Doughty, 2011).

Willis Organization of the Lexical Syllabus

Had it not been for the contribution of computational analysis which has analyzed more than 20 million words of spoken and written English, Dave Willis would have never been able to devise his lexical syllabus that he entitled the Collins Cobuild English Course (CCEC), having basic students of English as targets. An effective implementation of the syllabus depended on a careful selection of the vocabulary to be incorporated, the reason for which he relied on the resultant analysis of the Cobuild Project. His course comprised three levels that were adapted to the following criteria: frequency and usefulness. He explains that: “The 700 most frequent words of English account for around 70% of all English text. That is to say around 70% of the English we speak and hear, read and write is made up of the 700 commonest words in the language. The most frequent 1,500 words account for around 76% of text and the most frequent 2,500 for 80%.” That is why he opted for word frequency to be a determinate criterion for the contents of his course. He goes on specifying that “Level 1 would aim to cover the most frequent 700 words together with their common patterns and uses. Level 2 would recycle these words and go on to cover the next 800 to bring us up to the 1,500 level, and Level 3 would recycle those 1,500 and add a further 1,000.” He also draws attention to the fact that his course “would inevitably cover many other words in the texts to which students were exposed, but we would highlight first the most frequent 700, then 1,500 and finally 2,500 words in the language” (Willis, 1990:6).

Authenticity was another important selection criterion that Willis relied on to choose the texts that would illustrate the vocabulary to be taught. He argues that “by authentic texts we meant those produced by language users in the course of their everyday lives for some communicative purpose external to language teaching and not simply produced to illustrate some generalization about the language” (1990: 74). In addition to the authentic texts, Willis made use of spontaneously produced texts that were unscripted and unrehearsed and that were not produced in the course of everyday life, but rather at his request and in artificial circumstances. In an attempt to describe his Collins Cobuild English Course 1, Willis (1990:7) explains that the material he used to design his syllabus is distinguishable from that of other course books in a way that it contextualizes “the 700 most frequent words of English and

their meanings and uses.” which are clearly highlighted so as to “provide learners with valuable exposure and experience.” He also adds that it exemplifies the authentic language “from which the learner must construct his, her own linguistic generalizations based on the examination of large corpora of language samples taken from real life” (qtd in Richards and Rodgers 2001:136).

It is worth noting that the list of 700 words Willis used for devising his Level 1 course comprises “the most frequent words of English which account for around 70% of all English text” and is completely adapted from the Cobuild list. Interestingly, Willis could construct three different lists out of the 700 words. The two first lists were allocated to the students in the students’ book namely “Important words to remember” and “Wordlist”. The third list known as “Lexical Objectives”, however, was exclusively made available to the teachers. The first list “Important words to remember” highlights the words that students deal with by the end of each unit. This process goes on till the very last unit where students would have reached up the seven hundred words. This list in particular consists of a number of “lemmas” which are a direct result of lemmatization which is “the process of gathering word forms and arranging them into lemmas or lemmata. So the word- forms give, gives, gave, given, giving and probably to give, will conventionally be lemmatized into the lemma give. Any occurrence of any of the six forms will be regarded as an occurrence of the lemma” (Sinclair, 1991:173). This occurs with some words such as the verb “to be” that is accompanied with some of its word forms including was, been etc... It is obvious that by “word form” Sinclair refers to the inflexions that define the form of a verb or noun whether it is a past participle or the simple past form, a gerund or the plural form of a noun. However, it has to be stated that Willis does not make any direct reference to the multiple uses and meanings that words might take. This results in the inability of learners to make an easy distinction between a verb and its noun or to have a good grip of multiple-meaning words.

The 'Wordlist' is found by the end of the student's book. Rather than including only 700 words, it ironically comprises 707 items in addition to 128 word inflections amounting to a total of 835 items. If we compare the list of items from 'Important words to remember' and the 'Wordlist', we will find out that there is a mismatch between some of the words that feature in the first list and those of the second. This

occurs with words such as 'details', 'number' and 'section' which are part of the first list and can be found nowhere in the second. Likewise, words such as 'compare', 'detail', 'dialogue', 'licence', 'numbers', 'practise', 'ready' and 'sentence' do not show-up in “Important words to remember”, however, they do appear in the ‘Wordlist’ that students use as a reference list. Regarding its use, Willis (1988:111), explains that ‘figures that appear after the words refer to sections where good examples of the words are given in context, either in the Student's Book or in the transcripts where marked with an asterisk. Figures in bold type refer to sections where explanations are given. (T) after a reference means your teacher will give you the word to help you with this section.’”

Nevertheless, in addition to exceeding the prescribed word count which is about 700, there is another striking feature about the “Wordlist”. Willis instructions conflict with the way he directs students and teachers. In the sense that on one hand he instructs teachers to provide students with words that do not appear in context so that they can complete the empty sections, but on the other hand he explains to the students that most of the words are presented in context which is quite misleading for both teachers and students. In fact, Willis gives guidance to the teachers explaining that “(T) after a reference means students may need to be given the word to complete the section as it does not actually appear in the text” (1990: 3). However, according to the evidence submitted by Paraná (1998) research, some of the de-contextualized words cannot be identified by the "T" reference as put forward by Willis. The table below illustrates some of those words.

Wordlist	Page	(T) reference
begin, begun, began	109,150	/
Birth	81	/
body, bodies	48	(T)
Cent	104	/
century, centuries	179	/
city, cities	123	/
Degree	175	(T)
Detail	185	/

drink, drank, drunk	68	/
drive, drove, driven	155	/
Eye	37	/
fifty, fifties	79	/
Foot	38	(T)
forty, forties	79	/
glass, glasses	42	/
hold, held	38	/
Itself	144	(T)
learn, learnt/learned	14	/
lie, lay, lain	161	/
listen, listened	20	/
love, loved	233	/
Parent	19*	/
Shape	35	/
Shoe	33	/
show, showed, shown	38	/
suppose, supposed	170	/
tend, tended	108	/
twenty, twenties	78	/
understand, understood	17	(T)
vary, varied	109	/
wife, wives	18	/

Table 1.6 Words out of context in CCEC Level 1

As shown in the table above, only five words are highlighted with the (T) reference symbol while the remaining twenty five are not. The reason behind the adoption of such a misleading approach needs clarification. However, according to Parana (1998:58), Willis did not take the trouble to provide a plausible explanation for having used words out of their context of use while the initial proposal he made supports the idea of exploiting words in context so that learners get the chance to analyze them and make their own generalizations. For that reason alone, the implementation of Willis lexical syllabus in class could present a serious problem for

both students and teachers. As a matter of fact, Willis (1990:69) insists on the relevance of exposing students to the items in focus repeatedly and extensively by stating that “there is no way of knowing for sure what language items will be assimilated by the learner at a given stage of his or her language development. We are therefore obliged to recycle the typical patterns of the language so that learners will be exposed to them time and time again.” But if this so, then, learners will never acquire learning of the words listed previously not only because of low-level exposure, but also because those items have been put out of their context of use.

Regarding the third and last list namely that of “Lexical Objectives”. Only teachers have access to this list which is divided into sections, each of which is spread out over the number of units that make up Willis syllabus. It provides the teacher with a detailed explanation of words’ meanings and uses in addition to some of their word forms and related phrases that Willis (1988:9) defines as “a group of words which commonly occur together, e.g. do you know, the name of etc. In more general terms it can be used to refer to any group of words, usually smaller than a sentence.” The total number of the words amounts 680 added to their word forms and phrases totaling 850. Like ‘important words to remember’ and the ‘Wordlist’, the ‘Lexical Objectives’ list bears a number of discrepancies. First, the number of words it covers does not match with the number of items that feature in the students’ lists. Indeed, only 680 words appear in the teachers’ list while normally there should be 707 items in addition to their word forms and some of their related phrases (Parana 1998:60). Besides, some words do not feature in the teachers’ list, but can be found in the students’ lists and vice versa. As it is the case with the words ‘compare’, ‘dialogue’, ‘licence’, ‘numbers’, ‘practise’, ‘ready’ and ‘sentence’, that form part of the ‘Wordlist’ and not of the ‘Important words to remember’, and the ‘Lexical Objectives’ lists. Also, some other words such as ‘number’ and ‘section’, are found in the ‘Lexical Objectives’ and in the ‘Important words to remember’ lists, and do not feature in the ‘Wordlist’ (1998:61). The same problem was identified with word forms such as ‘fifty, fifties’, ‘fire’, ‘forty, forties’, ‘fourteen’, ‘furniture’, ‘garden’, ‘hall’, ‘secretary, secretaries’, ‘sport’, ‘Sunday’, ‘telephone’, ‘thirty, thirties’, ‘twenty, and twenties’, which are part of the students’ lists and not of the teachers’.

What is more intriguing about the 'Lexical Objectives' list is the presentation of the meanings of words which takes the form of 'letter 2 letters of the alphabet': first, the word, the category number, and then the meaning. In his explanation of how the 'Lexical Objectives' list can be exploited by teachers, Willis (1988:10) states that "the very common words in English have, on average, three quite different categories of meaning and use. Category 1 is usually the commonest or most basic meaning." It is obvious from Willis statement that he concentrates mainly on the first three main categories of meanings of the 700 items that make up his syllabus. However, some of the words he covers were presented with additional meaning categories. For instance: the words 'so', 'on' and 'from' were supplemented with three extra meaning categories (Parana 1998: 65). This implies that it is impossible not to take into consideration less common meanings when designing a course material. Furthermore, by delving deeper, a far more organizational anomaly could be associated with the "Lexical objectives" list (Parana 1998:66). When presenting the word "call", for instance, Willis had the intention of focusing on its meaning as a verb. However, the list of examples he provides, comprises an instance where he uses the noun instead of the verb: "Call 2 Meaning: to telephone. Examples: a phone call, when shall I call you?" (Willis 1988:38).

Moreover, some word entries are a bit misleading as they present two different subcategories as one. As it is the case with the word: Rain 1 noun and verb' (1988:76), which should normally be distinguished from each other. Because the former refers to the "water that falls from the clouds in small drops, ex: you can't go home in all this rain... The rain had been pouring all night... A light rain had begun to fall." And the latter to the act of raining where "water falls from the clouds in drops as rain, ex: It had started to rain... Is it raining?... It was raining hard every day now" (CCED, 1987:1185). Even the word entries which are of tremendous importance for the presentation of newer vocabularies could not be spared of discrepancies. Some of them, for instance, do not provide the category number, the explanation and the examples related to the words in focus. As a matter of fact Parana's analysis (1998: 68) revealed that almost one hundred words have discrepant entries. Words such as "doctor, newspaper, song, examination, exam, fashionable, music, college, forest, political, politician" are presented without a category number or an explanation.

Most of the problems detected in the “Lexical Objectives” list are an irrefutable proof for its inconsistency in presenting items. Besides, Willis does not provide any justifiable explanations for the occurrence of such discrepancies. As a result, an undue reliance on it would be problematic for both teachers and students.

With regard to the learners’ corpus without which it is impossible for the learner to construct his own linguistic generalizations, Willis (1990:65) puts forward that the corpora of spoken or written language samples he used are an instance of pure comprehensible input. For instance, instead of using scripted and rehearsed spoken materials, he favored the use of spontaneous speech which in his words contains “many linguistic features normally idealized out of language teaching material” (1990:7). He argues that his prime target was the creation of a corpus that contextualizes the most common 700 words in English in addition to their significations and different uses. The final product was a small language corpus that provides learners “with a microcosm of the 20 million COBUILD corpus” (1990:7). This latter is meant to be examined by the students who act as discourse analysts so as to gain learning of the inherent language structures. This leads us to conclude that the learners’ corpus has a threefold purpose. It is not only meant to provide learners with plenty of authentic materials so that they get sufficient exposure to the kind of input needed for language acquisition, but it also creates opportunities for analyzing lexical items in their context of use, in addition to serving as a raw material for the learners.

As a matter of fact, Willis (1990) explains that the lexical approach is founded upon the principle of authenticity. He argues that the Collins COBUILD English Course provides a unique description of language in the sense that it is more accurate than those provided by other course books as it stems from instances of real language. He states that “up to now no other course book at the elementary level offers predominantly authentic language” (1990:124). Despite the fact that there had been other attempts for using authentic materials, none of them fostered the use of spontaneous spoken interaction at the elementary level (1990:131). However, when it comes to contextualization, there might be some reservations in this regard as there is substantial evidence for de-contextualized instances where some of the selected words have been used out of context (Parana, 1998).

The third objective of the learner's corpus, Willis attempted to make learners analyze and describe the language materials by themselves in order that they reach their own generalizations through a thorough and an individualized analysis that assimilates that of a lexicographer. But, that might not be so true, because learners do not act individually as claimed by Willis himself, who admits that “in the Collins COBUILD English Course we, as materials writers, acted as intermediaries between learners and corpus, taking decisions as to what was worth highlighting and when” (1990:131). This implies that learners were not granted full freedom to experience what it is like to be a “lexicographer” as they could not act without their teachers’ intervention. Still, it has to be stated that the idea of creating a learner's corpus that could be exploited for worthwhile educational ends was an innovation (Willis, 1990:131).

The organization of language structures and functions in Willis course book abides by some organizational rules that he set for himself due to his adoption of a lexical approach. Some grammatical features have been treated differently in his syllabus. In this regard, he explains that the verb phrase has been approached by adopting a double approach namely the formal and the pedagogical types. While the formal approach “describes the verb phrase under four headings, namely tense, aspect, mood and voice,” the pedagogical type “classifies the verb phrase as present simple, present continuous, future, future continuous, past simple, past continuous etc...” (1990:93). Modal verbs, for instance, have been dealt with lexically as it was the case with “can and could” that were found to commonly occur followed by the auxiliary verb ‘to be’ (1990:105). This applies to other modal verbs such as will which has been presented as a lexical item too, in which case no longer denotes the future tense, nor does it depend on the “If” conjunction (1990:96).

Interestingly, “the present and past continuous” have also been treated lexically rather than being de-constructed. The present participle that makes up progressive tenses has been used as an adjective from which the passive voice could be derived (1990: 93). Because the use of the “ing” suffix is not only restricted to the formation of the present participle, it was easy to present it as an indicator of the progressive aspect in English (1990:101). The treatment of the verb to do could also be distinguished by the fact that it has a dual presentation one as an auxiliary and the

other as a de-lexical verb which is usually meaningless by itself unless it is followed by a noun, in which case it takes its meaning, for example: “I usually do the cooking and cleaning in the morning” (1990:95). This provides evidence for the fact that Willis has taken the phenomenon of de-lexicality into consideration as it is an important feature of language, but also of great use for teaching vocabulary (Aisenstadt, 1981).

It is worth noting that Willis approach to grammatical features is but a reflection of his critical attitude towards conventional methods for grammar teaching. He justifies his position on the grounds that it is to the benefit of the learner to work with contextualized samples of language if the ability to select language forms appropriately is to be acquired (1990:108). He even expresses his deep disagreement with a contrastive methodology, in which grammatical structures are contrasted as he finds it unproductive and time consuming. However, according to Parana (1998), Willis's material contains some examples of contrastive teaching as it is the case with the present and past tenses or present and future tenses, for which he makes use of awareness raising activities to make learners aware of the key differences. In addition, Willis outlines that the presentation of pre-established tenses should be based on the assumption that they form an unyielding collocation, stressing on the fact that they should be treated lexically. His idea was successfully applicable to progressive tenses such as the present continuous, but this could not be possible with the present perfect, which received a traditional treatment despite Willis presumptions of the opposite.

Nevertheless, Willis (1990:81) admits that the organization of grammar in the CCEL1 was approximately lexical in its entirety, drawing attention to the fact that not all grammatical structures could be treated lexically. Moreover, he highlights the contribution of his unconventional approach to grammar by emphasizing the benefits that derive from adopting a lexical perspective to teaching progressive tenses as adjectival and modal verbs as lexical items. He maintains that such an approach provides an “economical coverage of the language” (1990:81) in the sense that it enables learners to construct their own generalizations through analyzing the learner's corpus, which will trigger a proper understanding of the language. Just like the verbal type, noun phrases have also been approached lexically. Rather than

focusing on the easiest type, Willis preferred to lay emphasis on the most complex phrases. He argues that “It is difficult to see how anyone could become a competent speaker or writer of English without recourse to the kind of complex phrase structure which is too often overlooked in course design” (1990:115). The complexity of noun phrases lied in his treatment of verb+ing present participle forms as adjectival in addition to his detailed presentation of how to use preposition in the generation of more complex phrases. Most prepositions in Willis course book are presented as follows:

A Basic Summary for Using “for”:

1 How long

Time: *He paused for a moment.*
They are out for the afternoon.
Distance: *We walked for three miles.*

2. Why?

What’s it for?

3. Who wants or needs:

Can you spell your name for me?
I’ll carry your bags for you.
After good/bad; easy/difficult.
Fruit is very good for you.
He was late. It was very annoying for everybody.

4. Buying and selling:

I bought it for a few pounds.
We got it for almost nothing.
It’s on sale for £500.

(Adapted from Collins Cobuild English Course, Level 1, 1988)

As for functions, Willis introduces them under the name of “Social Language”. The list of incorporated functions could be viewed as too extensive because it covers a huge number of functional uses even those normally expected to be found in beginners’ course books such as 'apologizing', 'talking about likes', 'agreeing and disagreeing' etc... (Parana, 1998). Willis maintains that most language functions in his material were covered properly. This could be attributed to his “reliance on authentic or spontaneous material.” which led him to “look at the negotiation of language functions, rather than simply to list idealised realisations of

target functions” (1990:123). It should be stated that Willis is very insistent about using authentic samples of language especially those available in spontaneous native speaker recordings, as they provide a good illustration of language functions. He exemplifies his point by stating that only native speakers’ scripts can demonstrate that "a function like 'reaching agreement' can be socially and linguistically complex, and is not simply a matter of saying 'Yes, I agree with you'" (Willis 1990:122). He explains that language functions are “much more complex than functionally based syllabuses normally acknowledge.” the reason for his insistence on emphasizing authentic discourse that derives from “spontaneously produced spoken language” (1990:124).

It should be noted that the description of language functions in Willis course book is not fully conform to the requirements of a lexical syllabus. Instead, most functions have been covered through a task-based model as it was impossible to present them lexically (1990:124). Only a few functions received a lexical treatment as it was the case with modal verbs such as can and could, which are generally used to make suggestions, offers, requests or ask for permission. In sum, we can say that Willis approach to language functions is a bit contradictory as it is not fully based on the principles of a lexical syllabus. Meanwhile, it brings to light the number of advantages that could be gained from using authentic discourse in teaching functions.

The Pedagogical Importance of the Lexical Approach

Like most teaching approaches, the lexical approach could not be spared from strident criticism. First, it was widely criticized for not containing a detailed learning theory the reason for which it has been denied the title of approach. According to Thornbury (1998:12) the lexical approach should not be regarded as an approach as it lacks coherence in its learning theory. In addition, he argues that its language theory is not sufficiently detailed to favor the implementation of a syllabus. The second shortcoming has to do with syllabus design under the cloak of the lexical approach. Despite the fact that Lewis has a clear theoretical framework about language and how it operates, he does not provide any specifications about the kind of syllabus to put his approach into practice. Besides, his recommendations for using text and discourse-based language materials are not furthered with the criteria for selecting and organizing those materials. This also applies to the gradation of lexical chunks

too. Third, Lewis' (2000) disregard of formal instruction in favor of mere noticing so as to broaden the learners' lexicon contradicts with the teaching ideas he brings to the fore.

Meanwhile, and in spite of the raft of criticism, Schmitt (2000) could polish the image of the lexical approach, at least in terms of learning theory, by bringing to light the fact that formulaic language is stored and processed holistically, which can grant native-like fluency. Moreover, laying emphasis on computational studies has contributed tremendously to the design of a corpus-based syllabus which fosters the use of authentic materials. Indeed, it is quite the contrary of the non-corpus-based type which makes use of "a kind of English that does not seem to exist outside the foreign language classroom" (Mindt, 1996: 232). As put forward by Willis (1990:126): "...simplification is a natural phenomenon. We simplify our language when we are speaking to children and also when we are speaking to language learners. There is therefore no reason why writers should not simplify their language in this way when they are writing material for an EFL course book." However, he specifies that the undertaking of such an initiative requires from course designers to check whether "the language produced in this way is in fact typical of the target language, and that the words and phrases which their students are likely to meet outside the classroom are indeed covered by the simplified language they are offering. It may be that what they are offering is not simplified, but simply restricted" (1990:126).

Conclusion

In this first theoretical chapter we have seen that the lexical approach came about as a new way for approaching vocabulary teaching, but also as a reactionary movement to grammar-based teaching which has reigned over for more than two decades without any visible and satisfying results in terms of language instruction and acquisition. The novelty in this approach lies in the fact that it prioritizes lexis while maintaining grammar into focus without having recourse to formal instruction as it is the case with former teaching approaches. Its pedagogical slogan is that “language consists of grammaticalised lexis, not lexicalized grammar” (Lewis, 1997) indicating the importance that is attached to lexis at the expense of grammar. Its founder Michael Lewis laid emphasis on prefabricated expressions including collocations and idioms that were empirically proven to enhance fluency. Thanks to the findings of computational studies, course designers could access an endless number of those lexical chunks to devise teaching syllabi. Dave Willis (1990) was first to translate Lewis’ approach into a syllabus, which was received with considerable reluctance for having merged the lexical and the task-based syllabi altogether, which was incompatible with his initial intention. There is a kernel of truth that the Lexical approach came under fierce criticism for not presenting a clearly distinguished learning theory; meanwhile, it remains the very first approach for having put forward the utility of lexical chunks. These latter will be the centre of our attention in the chapter that follows.

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Introduction

Though the learning of a foreign language in an Algerian context exceeds seven years starting from middle to high school added to the three or five years at the university, this duration seems to be not enough to acquire a satisfactory level of speaking fluency even for the most advanced students. In fact, many teachers admit that most of their students have some serious problems with making their messages come across properly except for the most gifted ones. They speak in fragments and have some serious problem with both accuracy and pronunciation. In addition, they make so many collocational mistakes due to their very deficient competence in terms of lexical collocations, which are not only an intrinsic part of English native-speech but also of a tremendous importance to attaining a fluent speech delivery. For this reason, this chapter sheds light on the interrelation between L2 fluency and formulaic sequences more particularly collocations. First, it begins with a general overview of their origin, definitions and different classifications. It also explores the different teaching approaches that emphasize their incorporation into the EFL classroom. Then, it establishes their relevance to L2 fluency development by drawing attention to the importance of collocational competence. As a complementary part, it addresses a set of quantitative and qualitative significations attributed to L2 fluency. And finally, it looks at how L2 fluency can be developed.

The Origin of Collocations and their Development

Collocations also known as prefabricated units, prefabs, phraseological units, lexical chunks, multi-word units or formulaic sequences have always been marginalized because of the pervasive influence of generative grammar. It is only recently that their utility to language processing and use has been recognized. The term collocation originates from the Latin verb “collocate” denoting the act of setting something in order/ to arrange (Yvonne Muller,2008:1). It has been used for the very first time by Palmer (1938), one of the early pioneers in the field of collocations, who made use of it in his dictionary ‘A grammar of English Words’. According to him, collocations are a combination of a group of two or more words that should be acquired as “an integral whole and not pieced together from its component parts”(qtd in Kennedy, Graeme, 2003:468). Despite being first to introduce the term collocation, it is widely recognized that the coining of the term collocation goes to Firth (1957) and not Palmer. This latter views collocations as “statements of the habitual or customary places of that word order but not in other contextual order and emphatically not in any grammatical order. The collocation of a word or a piece is not to be regarded as mere juxtaposition, it is an order of mutual expectancy” (1957:181). He even puts forward that collocates of a word contribute to our understanding of its meaning. He uses the example of dark night to support the view he endorses, where he explains that one of the meanings of night is its likelihood to collocate with dark and the same thing applies to dark (1957:196).

In 1966, Lyons opposed Firth’s theory of meaning. He argued that our understanding of a collocation does not fully depend on the constituent parts of the expression within which it appears. And so he rejects the idea of collocability. However years later, Lyon came to terms with Firth’s premise that a “word’s collocations are of its meaning.” It has to be stated that several corpus linguists pledged their support to Firth’s statistical approach to collocations. The list of Neo-Firthians, the fervent advocates of Firth, includes Halliday (1966), Bolinger (1972), Hakuta (1974), Fillmore (1976), Peters (1977), Nattinger (1980), Syder (1983), Sinclair (1991), Stubbs (1995), and Hunston (2002) all of whom firmly believed in the exactitude of Firth’s argument about collocability. Halliday (1966), for instance, has come out with the notion of set that he defines as “the grouping of members with

like privilege of occurrence in collocation” (p153), and which is but an extra dimension for words’ collocability. Sinclair (1991) for his part advanced some newer concepts mainly the “idiom and the open-choice principles” that govern speakers’ and writers’ choice of words. Whereas the idiom principle generates collocations, the open-choice principle involves “a wide range of possible and acceptable words” (qtd in Andreou and Galantomos, 2008:1).

In Hoey’s work (2004) the principle of predictability is not only restricted to the lexical organization of texts and sentences, but also to their textual and grammatical structure. He introduces the notion of priming which provides a plausible explanation for the collocability of certain words or clusters of words with some specific semantic constructions and not with others. According to him, collocations should not only be perceived for their pervasiveness, but also for their subversion. This characteristic is to be found at a more sub-conscious psychological level which is responsible for the reinforcement of occurrence patterns through frequent repetition and use. Thus, the repeat-use concept primes one’s mind to make automatic connections where a listener is capable of recognizing words’ collocates by linking them back to their lexical field. For instance, one might hear the word bread which will automatically trigger the recognition of corresponding lexical items related to it such as baker, butter, flour etc...In an attempt to bring to the fore the pedagogical implications that arise from his priming theory, Hoey states that “ (...) priming is the result of a speaker encountering evidence and generalizing from it. Primings come from single focused and generalizing encounters. Language teaching materials and language teachers can provide essential shortcuts to primings” (2005, 185f). However, he also specifies that the applicability of his lexical priming theory should be flexible in the sense that:

Priming need not be a permanent feature of the word or word sequence; in principle, indeed, it never is. Every time we use a word, and every time we encounter it anew, the experience either reinforces the priming by confirming an existing association between the word and its co-texts and contexts, or it weakens the priming, if the encounter introduces the word in an

unfamiliar context or co-text or if we have chosen in our own use of it to override its current priming.

(Hoey, 2005:9)

Like most evolving language theories, Hoey's could not be spared from criticism. Herbest (1996) has expressed his opposition to the statistical approach to collocations by providing evidence drawn from Berry Rogghe's 72000- Word Corpus, demonstrating that grammatical words are placed high on the list of the most frequent occurrence patterns as it is the case with the word house whose most associated collocates are determiners the and this in addition to the verb sell. Meanwhile, he admits that such a phenomenon does not impact the core importance that collocations hold. It should be noted that several approaches were adopted in a bid to define collocations. These latter will be the centre of our attention in the section that follows.

Definition of collocations

A wide variety of definitions have been attributed to the term 'collocation' in Linguistics and the field of language teaching resulting in a sort of vagueness in terms of meaning. It seems that the only common denominator between most interpretations for 'collocations' is their reference to the syntagmatic relation of words. Of all the many uses of the term, two main views or approaches could be discerned namely the Statistical/ Frequency-based/ Phraseological Approach (Nesselhauf, N. 2005:12) and the Traditional Approach. In the Statistically- oriented Approach, which is another appellation coined by Herbs (1996), collocations are perceived as "the co-occurrence of words at a certain distance" (Nasselehauf, 2005:12). This approach originates from the Phraseological Approach and goes back to J.R. Firth. It is usually endorsed by corpus-linguists specialized in the analysis of syntagmatic relations. Its most renowned representatives are Sinclair, Cowie, Melcuk and Hausmann (2005:12).

According to Sinclair, collocations are "the occurrence of two or more words within a short space of each other in a text" (1991:170). What he intends by a short space is "a distance of around four words to the right and left of the word under investigation, which is also called the node" (1991:170). He identifies two types of

collocations namely the significant and casual types. The former category refers to those co-occurrences which “co-occur more often than their respective frequencies and the length of text in which they appear” (1991: 21). The casual category, however, are “non-significant collocations” (Sinclair, 2004), and so they do not co-occur more frequently as they obey to the statistical criterion (qtd in Gelbukh and Kolesnikova, 2013). Likewise, Cowie (1994) views collocations as word combinations; nevertheless, he demarcates them from idioms and free combinations and divides them into two main categories. The first category under the name of formulae groups collocations that have a primarily pragmatic function as it is the case with “how are you?” for instance. The second category, on the other hand, namely that of composites has got a primarily syntactic function.

When it comes to the Traditional Approach, collocations are treated differently in a way that the statistical criterion is of no use and replaced by the lexical one. However, it should not go unnoticed that the Statistical Approach has been of a great help to the Traditional one as it has drawn on from its results. Under this approach, researchers came out with diverse interpretations to define collocations. Kjellmer (1984), for instance, argues that collocations are lexically determined and grammatically restricted sequences of words. Nevertheless, not all collocations should be regarded as such, only those having co-occurrence significance and well-formed grammar. Thornbury (2002:7) for his part specifies that words in general pair up forming compounds and multi-word units in the process. Collocations are the result of a looser kind of association. He defines them as “two words are collocates if they occur together with more than chance frequency, such that, when we see, we can make a fairly safe bet that the other is in the neighborhood... collocation is not as frozen a relationship as that of compounds or multi-word units.” Of all definitions attributed to the term collocation, Hsu and Chu-yao’s (2008:182) is the easiest to digest, according to him “a collocation consists of two words which are linked together in the memory of native speakers and occur together with some frequency in both written and oral discourse.” Accordingly, Mahmoud (2005:118) regards collocations as “two words belonging to different grammatical categories to exclude binomials where the two words are from the same category and are connected implicitly or explicitly by a conjunction (e.g. and, or) or a preposition such as “in” or

“by” (e.g. push and shove, sick and tired, here and there, in and out, life and death, hand in hand, dead or alive).” Furthermore, in Benson’s definition, multi-word combinations are treated as recurrent, fixed identifiable non-idiomatic phrases and constructions (2009:XIX).

We can deduce from the already cited definitions that there is no one definition to the term collocation. Meanwhile, there is a perceivable common feature between most linguists’ interpretations, and which is that collocations are a combination of two or more words with a high degree of frequent co-occurrence. Another commonality would be the delimitation of collocations’ use where it is impossible to replace one collocate by another due to their restricted semantic relation. Finally, there is a common agreement upon the fact that unlike idioms which have meaning transfer, collocations do not have any. It is worth noting that in-depth and multi-faceted explorations to the different aspects of collocations have been carried out. Three main approaches could be identified: the lexical, semantic and structural approaches.

Exploring Approaches to Collocations’ Study

2.3.1 The Lexical Approach

The main characteristic of the lexical approach is its emphasis on lexis to help develop learners’ writing and speaking competence in particular. Michael Lewis (1993), its founder, found inspiration in Willis (1990) and Nattinger and DeCarrico’s (1992) pieces of work to lay down its basic principles. This approach highlights the idea that a word’s meaning is influenced by the collocate it couples up with. It also embodies the very essence of Firth’s (1957) research from which he could come up with evidence that words gain their meanings from the words they co-occur with too. Its emergence relegated grammar to a secondary role. It was therefore no longer a question of promoting the acquisition of grammatical structures but rather lexis which mainly consists of words, word combinations and formulaic sequences. In this regard, Lewis (1997:3) puts forward that traditional grammar and vocabulary are not the only essential components of language, prefabricated chunks including collocations are also an integral part of it. In addition, he brings to the fore the fact that unlike individual words, collocations’ function goes beyond the realm of merely

naming things. They also have some additional characteristic namely the pragmatic element which increases learners' capacity to use the language.

The Semantic Approach

This approach explores collocations from a semantic perspective without particular focus on grammar. It investigates the reasons behind the co-occurrence of certain words with one another. Lyons (1996), one of its most prominent figures, argues against the lexical approach due to its inability to find a plausible explanation for the phenomenon of co-occurrence patterns. As a semanticist, he along with other advocates, propose that the semantic properties of a given word determine which words should collocate with it. Meanwhile, this view came under severe criticism as a wide variety of collocations are arbitrarily restricted, in the sense that there are no concrete suggestions in the meaning of the word 'drinker' to allow for its collocability with 'heavy' and not with 'strong or powerful' (Lehrer, 1974:7-17).

The Structural Approach

Unlike its predecessors, the structural approach gives major priority to grammar in the analysis of collocations. It also suggests that there is a complementary relationship between lexis and grammar and thus, they should never be viewed disparately (Mitchell,1971;Gitsaki,1996). According to Mitchell (1971), collocations are lexico-grammatical implying that their exploration should always take place within a grammatical matrix. He even goes further by his treatment of collocations as roots rather than words that can possibly co-relate with other roots as it is the case with the words smoke and heavy by which several possible collocations can be formed: smoke heavily or heavy smoking. Nevertheless, Mitchel's proposals were rejected by several linguists of opposing viewpoints due to the fact that they could not account for all types of collocations. For instance, the English collocation *faint praise* is quite possible while *praise faintly* is not. Yet, Greenbaum (1974) set the record straight by putting forward that the notion of collocations is vacuous without syntactic rules. He illustrates such dependence with the verb to prefer and the quantifier much, which when combined together, they obey to some specific syntactic rules where 'much' has to be used in pre-verb rather than a post-verb position: "I much prefer a dry wine" and not "I prefer a dry wine much". This only

leads us to the conclusion that grammar is not peripheral to the analysis of collocations as stated by the previously cited approaches, but rather a central part of it along with lexis (Gitaski, 1996). Therefore, an integrated approach bringing both lexis and grammar together should be applied when dealing with collocations. Interestingly, these insights led to the division of collocations into lexical and grammatical patterns. However, these categories are not the only ones. These latter will be dealt with in the section that follows.

Types of Collocations

On the basis of a variety of dimensions, some renowned scholars established different classifications of collocations. There were those who emphasized their strength, fixedness and structure, but also others who laid emphasis on their use. The most typical categories are the object of our discussion below.

Lexical Collocations Vs Grammatical Collocations

The constituent parts of any grammatical collocation are essentially made up of a noun, an adjective or a verb combined with a particle, more usually a preposition, an adverb or a grammatical structure such as an infinitive or a gerund (Bahns, 1993:57). They are used as formulaic single units. Some of them might be idiomatic because their meanings do not correspond with the individual items that build them up. For instance, the verb ‘run out of’ means to reach an end of supplies, which is quite unexpected when analyzing words individually. Other collocations have no such “strong sense of belonging together” (Kennedy, 1990:224). Instead, they are considered as free combinations that allow for substitution such as from the outside, inside the cupboard etc...According to Benson et al (1986), several combinations of grammatical collocations can be identified. The table below illustrates them all.

	Combination patterns	Examples
CP1	Noun + preposition	Blockade against, apathy towards
CP2	Noun+ to + infinitive	They had the foresight to do it.
CP3	Noun+ that clause	We reached an agreement that she would present us in court.

CP4	Preposition+ noun	In agony
CP5	Adjective +preposition	They are angry at the children. They are hungry for the news.
CP6	Predicate adjective + to infinitive	It was necessary to/for him to work. It is designed to explode at certain temperatures.
CP7	Adjective+ that clause	She was afraid that she would fail her examination.
CP8	Collocational verb patterns (19 in total)	They described the book to her.

Table 2.1: Benson's et al (1986) list of Grammatical Collocations

Lexical collocations, on the other hand, have no grammatical elements. They are divided into loose and fixed combinations. Collocations of a fixed structure such as commit murder or break the law are said to be idiomatic. Yet, their meanings can be easily predicted from their constituent parts. Some other fixed combinations, however, are frozen expressions which renders the predictability of their meanings quite difficult. For example: to scream blue murder (to complain very loudly). That is what (Nattinger, 1987: 949) refers to as idioms. Unlike the fixed type, loose collocations are more flexible, and so they can combine with more than one collocate as it is the case with analyze/witness/study a murder or practice/study law (Ibid:949). It is worthy to note that some collocations might be separated by other words in between, and still maintain a strong collocational relationship, e.g. they **collect** foreign **stamps** (Greenbaum, 1970 qtd in Carter and McCarthy 1988:34). Benson et al (1986) divides lexical collocations into seven different patterns.

	Combination Patterns	Examples
CP1	Transitive Verb + Noun/ Pronoun/Prepositional Phrase	Come to an agreement, set an alarm, launch a missile
CP2	Verb (meaning eradication and or nullification) + a noun	Revoke a license, annul a marriage, withdraw an offer
CP3	Adjective + Noun	Kind, kindest, best regards
CP4	Noun + Verb	Alarms go off
CP5	Noun + Noun	A herd of buffalo, a bouquet of flowers
CP6	Adverb+ Adjective	Closely acquainted, hopelessly addicted
CP7	Verb + Adverb	Appreciate sincerely, argue heatedly

Table 2.2: Benson's et al (1986) list of Lexical Collocations

Open Collocations Vs Restricted Collocations

In addition to the lexical and grammatical collocations, Cowie and Howarth (1996) establish a distinction between two further types namely the open/ free and restricted collocations. While the former type allows substitution of the node and its collocant without resulting in any kind of semantic change, the latter type does not. This could be explained by the fact that its constituent elements do not “keep their literal meaning” (1986:81). In fact, restricted collocations are not used literally, but rather with a figurative or specialized meaning, typically echoing idioms which act as single semantic units and have to be interpreted connotatively as they do not maintain their original literal sense too. Free collocations, on the other hand, allow for unlimited substitubility. We can, for instance, eat rice, pudding, cake or chocolate. It seems that there is an infinite variety of direct objects that can be combined with the verb to eat, which in its turn can also be replaced by many of its synonyms such as devour, munch, gobble etc... It should not go unnoticed that some restricted collocations are stored as wholes just like idioms. However, this does not apply to all of its subclasses (Nesselhauf, 2005:25; 27).

Weak Collocations Vs Strong Collocations

The degree of words' association within a particular collocation dictates whether it should be subsumed under the strong/fixed/restricted or flexible/open weak category. The weaker type is characterized by its collocability with a series of other words. For instance, the word broad co-occurs with avenue, smile, shoulders, accent, hint and many others. Stronger collocations, by contrast, are so interrelated that when of its constituent items appears, its collocante automatically follows. To make tea and do one's homework are vivid examples of such type where it is impossible to disassociate these word-pairings due to their degree of exclusivity (Schmidt, 1977). Despite their differences, strong and weak collocations form a continuum with each of them at one end; the majority of collocations lie somewhere between the two. According to Hill's (2000) classification, four main categories can be identified depending on their degree of collocational strength namely the unique, strong, medium-strength and the weak types. The first category encompasses word-

pairings that are so unique that it is rare to find them collocating with any other words, e.g. shrug one's shoulders or foot the bill. The stronger type is not as strongly interrelated as the 'Unique' type itself as it can allow for a certain degree of substitubility. Medium-strength collocations oscillate between the stronger and weaker categories. Hill (2000) argues that foreign language students are more concerned with this type in particular. The last category is the weakest of them all, but also the easiest to predict due to its possible association with an unlimited number of words, e.g. red car, big house etc...

Technical Vs Academic Collocations

Technical collocations are very necessary for the mastery of a specific language usage and use that can only be found in a special field within a special register. They are used as terminological units and indicate register in many genres of writing where not all kinds of collocations could be perceived as normal and acceptable items for use (Partington, 1998). Each genre has got its own list of "pre-cooked expressions" (Nattinger and Decarrico, 1992). 'Vigorous depressions and dull highlights' are two examples of collocations that are register-dependent as they are exclusively used in the fields of meteorology and photography (Sinclair in Partington, 1998). According to Fuentes (2001:118), there is such a strong connection between subject domain and level of technicality in word behaviour that collocational "elements function uniquely in their corresponding field, describing the restricted setting."

To illustrate his position, he provides samples of word-pairings specific to the word 'network', e.g. U-network, access network, local area network. He interestingly notes that free collocations pervading more than one register are labeled 'semi-technical word combinations'. Farell (1990:11) defines them as "formal, context-independent words with a high frequency and/or wide range of occurrence across scientific disciplines, not usually found in basic general English courses, words with high frequency across scientific disciplines." As an example, Fuentes (2001:111) uses information system, information technology, digital information and information about. When it comes to academic collocations, they are less bound to register and can be found in both general English and ESP. In sum, both of technical and semi-technical collocations are important for the building of a nice big stock of

chunks related to learners' field of study. These will not only help them cut down processing effort when speaking, but also sophisticate their writing samples. The next section will concentrate on the main characteristics of collocations.

Collocations' Criteria

The main linguistic criteria laid down for the classification of collocations are non-compositionality, non-substantiality and non-modifiability (Bowles, Hugo, 2007:08). The first proposed criterion is restricted to word combinations that are non-compositional and whose meaning cannot be easily predicted from their constituent parts e.g. hot dog. In this case, there is usually an element of meaning added to the combination, where the collocant acquires an extra meaning that has nothing to do with the original sense. To put this in other words, the meaning of the whole collocation is not a straightforward composition of the different meanings of its parts. Idioms are regarded as the most extreme examples of non-compositionality. For instance, once in a blue moon (occasionally, or very rarely). It is very obvious that the idiomatic meaning of such an idiom is completely unrelated to its individual items mainly blue and moon. Non-modifiability, the second criterion, is related to a collocation that cannot but be modified once an odd intruding word is incorporated in it. For instance, to kick the plastic bucket, here, the literal meaning has taken over at the expense of the idiomatic meaning. The same thing applies to 'get a frog in one's throat' which cannot be transformed into to get an ugly frog in one's throat. Thus, it is impossible to freely modify a collocation with additional lexical material or through grammatical transformation such as spilt milk, the can of spilt milk or spilling milk.

The third and last criterion is non-substitutability which appears to be shared by most collocations. It has to do with the impossible substitution of collocants by their synonyms or near-synonyms. In fact, the constituent items of word-pairings cannot be replaced randomly by other words with similar signification, even when these are more logical than the actual parts. For example, it is intolerable to say yellow wine instead of white wine, which is the correct collocation. Before addressing other criteria for distinguishing collocations, idioms and free combinations, we shall first deal with the issue of collocation, colligation and semantic prosody.

Collocations, Colligations and Semantic Prosody

There is a very close connection between the concept of Collocation and colligation in the sense that both are associated with the distributional properties of linguistic items in actual language use. To put this in other words, they are used to point out how likely a co-occurrence of two or more lexical items and grammatical categories is. However, they have to be distinguished despite this common association. Indeed, Hoey (qtd in Lewis, 2000:234) argues that there has to be a distinction between colligation and collocation. Firth (1957:181) was first to underline the difference between collocation and colligation. In this regard, he argues that colligation makes reference to the abstract interrelations between grammatical categories. As an illustration of such a phenomenon, he chose the sentence “I watched him” to highlight the fact that the existing grammatical relationship bringing this sentence together lies not between the three distinct lexical items ‘I’ ‘watched’ ‘him’, but rather between the following grammatical categories: a subject pronoun, the simple past form of a transitive verb and an object pronoun (Ibid: 181). He goes on explaining that:

Collocations are actual words in habitual company. A word in a usual collocation stares you in the face just as it is. Colligation cannot be of words as such. Colligations of grammatical categories related in a given structure do not necessarily follow word divisions or even word sub-divisions... A colligation is not to be interpreted as abstraction in parallel with a collocation of exemplifying words in a text.

(Firth qtd in Lu, 2017:10)

Years later, Sinclair (1998:15) used the term colligation as a reference to the attraction between a lexical item and a grammatical category, e.g. the verb *budge* is usually found in grammatical structures looking like (modal verb+ *budge*) (1998:13). Having scrutinized the colligation patterns of individual words, Sinclair (1998) could not help himself from applying the concept of colligation to prefabricated expressions too, such as *naked eye*, which usually follows a preposition + determiner, e.g. *to the naked eye/ for the naked eye*. Likewise, Hoey (qtd in Lewis, 2000:234) utilizes colligation to designate “what we do” with the language or more

specifically what a word “typically does grammatically” (ibid). For him, knowing a language requires an undue analysis of colligation. He identifies three different aspects of how words are distributed and attracted to one another. First, the connection between a lexical item and a grammatical context, (e.g. consequence +be+ subordinate clause), also the connection between a lexical item and some specific syntactic function within which it can be incorporated, (e.g. consequence is usually part of the sentence complement), and finally the connection between a lexical item and its position in a phrase, clause or sentence e.g. (consequence is very often used as part of the theme in a sentence) (Hoey, 2005: 49-58).

Interestingly, these highlighted connections can be either positive or negative implying that lexical items are predisposed to occur within some specific grammatical constructions and not others. It is important to note that these analytical insights about colligation have been employed accordingly with collocation comparative studies about near synonyms, from which it has been shown that not all near-synonyms can occur within the same grammatical context despite sharing the same meaning as it is the case with little and small, which cannot be used interchangeably in a noun predicate position (Biber, Conrad and Reppen, 1998:93). Regarding semantic prosody, Stubbs (2002:225) puts forward that “there are always semantic relations between node and collocates, and among the collocates themselves.” These relations refer to the collocational meaning that arises when a node and its collocates interact to form a collocation. That is what Louw (2000:57) labels semantic prosody which is “a form of meaning established through the proximity of a consistent series of collocates.” Semantic prosody is found in both individual words and word-pairings. It operates as a way of expressing a speaker’s or a writer’s implied attitudinal meaning (Ibid:57). The vast majority of semantic prosodies are negative, only a few of them are positive. For instance, the word ‘cause’ usually echoes “an accident a catastrophe, and many other negative events), the same thing applies to the verb “commit” which co-occurs with murder, suicide, offense etc...all of which are unfavorable actions (Ibid:157). In sum, for a better understanding of what collocation is, it is imperative for learners to distinguish collocation, colligation and semantic prosody.

Collocations, Idioms and Free Combinations

Though regarded as the most important criterion for distinguishing collocations and idioms, semantic transparency seems not to be the only agreed-upon standard. Other criteria come into play especially when considering another type of phraseological combinations namely the free combinations (Gitsaki, 1999). Indeed, the distinction between collocations, idioms and free combinations was based upon a contrastive approach where free combinations are placed at one extreme and idioms at the other with collocations lying in between. To achieve a high degree of disambiguation between the three different categories, three distinct descriptive methods have been adopted. Free combinations, for instance, are described on the basis of general rules or semantic restrictions governing the occurrence of a headword with some other items. To put this in other words, they are a set of words that adhere to the grammatical and syntactic rules of the target language while at the same time allowing for free substitution. This implies that they are not as cohesive as collocations and idioms.

Furthermore, they can be easily understood through the analysis of the variety of senses attributed to its individual words. As an example, the noun murder might appear with plenty of verbs such as to boast of, disregard, forget, analyze and many others. In turn, these latter can occur with several nouns: discovery, experience, accident etc... In brief, free combinations can be perceived as adjustable sequences that conform to the criterion of substitubility without causing a tremendous change in the overall meaning of the lexical construction. Idioms, on the other hand, cannot be analyzed as such because of their rigidity. Their meanings cannot be simply predicted from the literal meaning of their constituent parts, nor can it be determined from word-order variations. They are governed by what Sweets (1899) refers to as semantic opacity/transparency as they have interpretations that go beyond their literal meaning. There is no corresponding alliance between their form and meaning. According to Van der Linden, idioms are non-compositional and so they do not illustrate the principle of compositionality which dictates that “the meaning of a complex expression is a function of the meaning of its constituent parts and the way these are syntactically combined” (1993:2). In sum, idioms as a whole are characterized by the exclusivity of their meanings. For instance, the idiomatic

expression ‘to keep one’s socks on’ does not actually mean to pull one’s socks up whenever they sag, but rather to remain patient especially when beginning to become angry. Likewise, ‘come to a head’ does not denote the act of reaching one’s head. Instead, it implies to reach a point of intensity at which action must be taken (the free dictionary by Farlex).

Collocations lie between these two boundaries, which seems at the very first place to complicate the task of drawing a line between them and the remaining phraseological categories. Nonetheless, according to Mcklean (2015:2) “A word combination fails to be classified as free and is termed a collocation when the number of words which can occur in a syntactic relation with a given headword decreases to the point where it is not possible to describe the set using semantic regularities.” For instance, ‘commit murder’ is neither a free combination nor is it an idiom due to the fact that its meaning is deducible from its component parts. Besides, this collocation has two additional distinctive features that free combinations do not seem to have. First, the verb ‘commit’ has a very limited number of synonyms, the verb ‘to perpetrate’ appears to be the only option offered for its replacement. Secondly, the frequency at which the combination ‘commit murder’ is used is very high compared to others. It is the first ‘fixed phrase’ that pops in one’s mind when thinking about murder (Benson et al, 1986:253). Interestingly, some word- pairings are transitional between idioms and collocations (Cruse,1986:41-46). They are more rigid than usual collocations. Yet, by contrast to idioms, their meanings can be deduced from the items that make them up. For instance, to catch one’s breath, all dressed up and nowhere to go (Benson:1986:254).

Collocations, Idioms and Phrasal verbs

A highly considerable portion of the English vocabulary consists of phrasal verbs. Like idioms, they are bits of frozen units that deviate from their literal meaning. According to Johnson (qtd in Thim, 2012):

There is another kind of composition more frequent in our language than perhaps any other, from which arises the greatest

difficulty. We modify the signification of many verbs by a particle subjoined; as to come off, to escape by a fetch, to fall on, to attack, to fall off, to apostatize, to break off, to stop abruptly, to bear out, to justify, to fall in, to comply, to give over, to cease, to set off, to embellish, to set in, to begin a continual tenour, to set out, to begin a course or a journey, to take off, to copy; with enumerable expressions of the same kind, of which some appear wildly irregular, being so far distant from the sense of the simple words, that no sagacity will be able to trace the steps by which they arrived at the present use.

(Johnson.S, Preface of the English Dictionary, 1755, qtd in Thim, 2012)

Thus, the term phrasal verb is not exclusively used with one category of verbs only, but it also applies to other verbal constructs such as prepositional verbs. It should be noted that they are classified within the category of ‘Phrasal templates’ which are collocations having the length of a phrase and containing empty slots that can be filled with words so as to form different phrasal constructions among which phrasal verbs. These latter are congruous with Renouf and Sinclair’s (1991) collocational framework along with Nattinger and Decarrico’s phrasal constraints (1982). Most phrasal verbs consist of a verb and a particle (either an adverb or a preposition) and denote several common meanings. They are distinguished by their syntactic, semantic and prosodic characteristics. For instance, some phrasal verbs may appear in different syntactic configurations as it is the case with the verb ‘give up’ in the following sentences from the British National Corpus (qtd in Thim, 2012:10):

1. He nearly **gave up**, not knowing what to do next.
2. I **gave up** the job there and headed for Brazil.
3. I can see why you **gave** the job **up**.

It is highly evident from the preceding examples that the verb give up can be used transitively or intransitively. In addition, its particle is displaceable. Hence, we can deduce that the main distinguishing feature of verbal constructions such as ‘give up’ is “their idiosyncratic behavior which defies the usual syntactic operations”

(Elgobshawi, 2017). Furthermore, its meaning is difficult to predict, and so it is idiomatic. However, this does not apply to all phrasal verbs as the degree of idiomaticity varies from one verb to another. The following examples illustrate such a phenomenon:

8. This other bloke **came in** and joined in.

9. The hours burned by on the green screen, and when they finally flopped in Lucy's living room, sipping brandy, a key turned in the lock and **in came** the charmingly dishevelled and one and only son.

(Ibid:10)

In both examples, the verb 'come in' is completely compositional rather than behaving non-compositionally like most phrasal verbs. Besides, more complex constructions can be formed by adding a preposition to the main structure e.g. If he'd been going to **hang up on** me, something made him change his mind and could be something I said (Ibid:11). Finally, most phrasal verbs' particles are homonymous with prepositions or spatial adverbs sharing the same prosodic features in the process. Phrasal verbs are frequently used in idiomatic expressions where the meaning of the whole lexical unit cannot be simply predicted from its component parts. Likewise, some collocations are idiomatic too due to their incorporation of non-compositional phrasal verbs. Hence, there is a strong correlation between collocations, idioms and phrasal verbs. However, they should never be used interchangeably. In the next section, we will discuss how relevant collocations are to language learning.

The Relevance of Collocations to Language Learning

Vocabulary Teaching and Grammar

Decades ago, language acquisition required a full mastery of grammatical rules and the memorization of individual lexical items. During the 1950's, Grammar based teaching was viewed as the most efficient means to attain a higher level of language proficiency. Vocabulary, on the other hand, was nothing but a minor component which received little attention. As pointed out by Rudzka et al (1981) vocabulary teaching "was the area where relatively nothing has been done". In fact, at that time focus on grammar was not only desirable but also necessary because of the deep-seated beliefs among both renowned linguists and practitioners. Grammar came first

while vocabulary was to be acquired in due time through extensive exposure to the target language. It is only years later that the issue of prioritizing grammar over vocabulary was brought to the fore. It was a period where several researchers started an intense questioning of the utility of form-based teaching. As a result, the field of foreign language teaching “has seen tremendous changes since 1965, when language teaching was shifting away from grammar” (Azzar, qtd in Duff and Spada, 2015:120).

Though regarded as an essential component to successful second language acquisition, it has been proved that grammar by itself will not suffice for achieving overall fluency. Lafer (1997:20) argues that “no text comprehension is possible, either in one’s native language or in a foreign language, without understanding the text’s vocabulary.” Besides, Wilkins (1972:111) put it straight that “While without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed.” The reason why during the 1980’s and 1990’s, considerable interest in vocabulary teaching and learning grew stronger so as to meet learners’ academic language needs, who were first to be aware of its importance, as put forward by Meara (1980:222) “learners themselves admit that they experience considerable difficulty with vocabulary, and once they have got over the initial stages of acquiring their second language, most learners identify the acquisition of vocabulary as their greatest single source of problems.” Accordingly, Cobbs (1999:345) notes that “students typically need to know words measured in thousands, not hundreds, but they receive language instruction measured in months, not years.” So there is no doubt that more curricular attention should be paid to vocabulary as most curricula do not reflect the prominence it deserves. Moreover, Lewis (1993: VI) view that “language consists of lexicalized grammar, and not grammaticalized lexis” should be applied to most language syllabi as lexis contributes tremendously to the creation of meaning while grammar’s contribution is minor. However, we should bear in mind that the coexisting relation between grammar and vocabulary is complementary and not a matter of competitiveness.

As a matter of fact, “grammar requires words, and words need grammar to be sequenced correctly” (Duff and Spada, 2015: 121); yet, despite this strong

interrelation, vocabulary teaching is still disregarded when compared to grammar instruction, which holds the most important place in the EFL classroom. To avoid such a division, Min (2013:65) explains that:

If the goal of the L2 education is to develop the learner's communicative ability, then it is crucial to enhance the learner's awareness of the connection between lexis and grammar. It is important to remember that communicative competence goes hand and in hand with vocabulary competence, and vocabulary competence goes hand in hand with collocational competence.

Thus, there has to be a re-evaluation of instructional priorities in the EFL classroom if communicative competence is to be achieved. This could be done by raising teachers' awareness of the strong connection between grammar and vocabulary as they were found to be the first and best predictor of how much vocabulary and grammar is being taught in class (Foles, 2010b). In the next section we will shed light on the pedagogical importance of teaching collocations.

Vocabulary Teaching and Collocations

Vocabulary acquisition does not occur overnight; it is an ongoing process that never stops. Every day is a new learning experience from which the learner might amass some vocabulary that will augment his already stored stock until he reaches satisfactory language proficiency in both speaking and writing. However, successful vocabulary learning depends on two important prerequisites: the teachers' savoir faire as they are the first predictor of how much vocabulary and grammar is taught in class, but also on learners' eagerness to move up the proficiency ladder to approximate a native-like use of the target language. It is obvious that the attainment of such a goal involves not focus on one-word vocabulary solely, but also on collocations.

According to Hill (2000), the point of departure for the teaching of collocations is the intermediate level because only then will learners be able to assimilate words collocational potential from the vocabulary they have already acquired from the very beginning. Higuera (2004) and Castillo Carballo (2009),

however, are not of the same view and hence state that lexical phrases ought to be taught starting from a beginner level. Gitaski (qtd in Ruben Chacon-Beltran,2010:172) for his part disapproves of “the lack of scientific rigor in L2 collocation teaching with respect to what and how many collocations should be taught, how to practice them, and the level at which they should be introduced.” Besides, Nesselhauf brings to the fore the fact that there is no explicit practice of collocations in most EFL classrooms though they contribute to the avoidance of a nonnative-like grammatical usage, the reason why she insists on providing learners with explicit –instruction of L2 collocations especially those that have no equivalents in the students’ first language.

It should be noted that most instructional textbooks have a dominant role in the EFL classroom as they provide the majority of activities practised by the students. This shows in Young and Reigeluth’s (1988) study where findings revealed that more than 90 percent of class time was devoted to leafing through textbooks. Accordingly, Hsu (2004) demonstrated that there was a high reliance on textbooks among English teachers especially those at senior high schools. Interestingly, most instructional textbooks produced by the Ministry of Education and written by nonnative-speakers, use lists for the presentation and teaching of newer vocabulary, the majority of which is decontextualised and exclusively related to its context of use. This one- size -fits-all approach to vocabulary teaching is not as efficient as it should be because of neglecting the notion of collocation. Indeed, most of those lists assemble individual words without paying enough attention to their collocants. This has been empirically proven in several studies where content analysis has been carried out so as to evaluate the proportion and frequency of lexical and grammatical collocations (Shahrkord, 2011).

Moreover, strategies for vocabulary reinforcement are almost disregarded. Yet, research studies revealed that without recycling, effective memorization is deemed to failure as it has been shown that for a lexical item to be acquired, there has to be at least seven encounters (Ruben Chacon-Beltran, 2010:172). Thus, to maximize the appropriacy of classroom practices with regard to vocabulary teaching and learning, collocations should receive more attention. Because not only do they facilitate the

formation of language utterances, but they also help language learners to build up chunks of language and look for patterns of use (McKown and Radev, 2000). As stated by McCarthy (1990:12) “collocation is an important organizing principle in the vocabulary of any language.” It is for this reason that they should be at the centre of the EFL classroom rather than being neglected and put to the side as though they were nothing but an extra asset.

Collocations as a Neglect Phenomenon

Though acknowledged as being a long standing concept in linguistic research, collocations have been considerably neglected among language theoreticians. Reasons for such belittlement lie in the word collocation itself, which has been used indiscriminately to denominate all sorts of word-combinations. Altenberg (1991:127), for instance, defines them as “recurrent word-combinations of some kind.” It is obvious that such definition is too general and subsumes a diversity of lexical units that qualify as collocational due to their compositional nature. Moreover, collocations “range on the borderline between grammar and lexicon” (Bartch, 2004:27), which explains why they cannot be classified within one single linguistic framework. Besides, no descriptive framework could distinguish the semantic and functional properties of collocations due to their idiosyncrasy. Meanwhile, and despite it all the negligent treatment of collocation has come to an end thanks to Lewis’ (1997) Lexical Approach who assigned more priority to vocabulary acquisition especially collocations as they were found to fulfill a threefold function that helps foreign language learners move up the proficiency ladder with maximum efficiency.

These functions can be viewed from three distinct perspectives. First, from a cognitive perspective, collocations contribute to the reduction of the cognitive load during the speaking process. They operate as strings of words that are stored holistically which facilitates their retrieval from the mental lexicon whenever the need arises. And so rather than building up some newer utterances every now and then, collocations help speakers reduce the processing work and act as “time-buying sequences” that signal fluency (Wray and Perkins, 2000: 17 qtd in Schmid and Handl, 2010). Pragmatically, collocations are an intrinsic part of a native-like

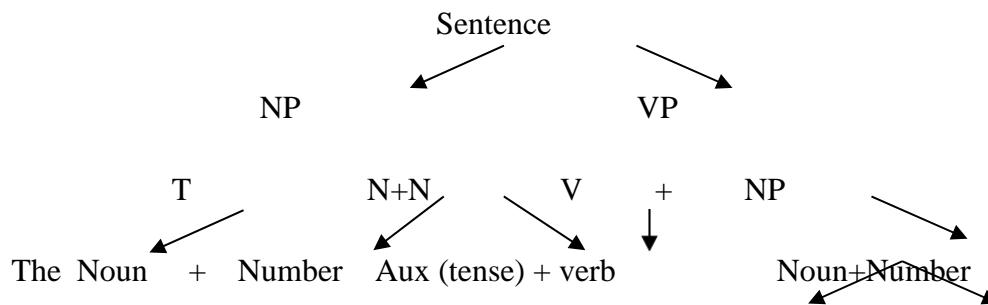
communicative competence (Pawley and Syder, 1983:208, Wray and Perkins, 2000:17, *Ibid*). They are the core elements without which full comprehension or production of native-like scripts is impossible (Schmidt, 2003:251). Besides, and with regard to language development, collocations are regarded as “acquisitional aids” (Wray, 2002:19) that will lead eventually to a better understanding of the L1 in terms of grammar and vocabulary through the progressive analysis of acquired lexical chunks.

However, the highlighting of the centrality of collocations is not as recent as it seems to be, it dates back to Harold Palmer (1933:ii) who was first to use them as a pedagogical tool in Japan where he had to work as a language teacher. To draw attention to their importance, he introduces collocations as one single block of lexical items that obey to some specific combinatorial requirements, which should not be deconstructed into their component parts. He suggests prioritizing them due to their pervasiveness and omnipresence in every day vocabulary in comparison to individual words (*ibid*). His employed teaching methods involved the memorization of an infinite number of collocations as one single lexeme. Subsequently, many other linguists and practitioners did their best to give collocations their due weight in the EFL classroom by advancing the idea that if native-like fluency is to be targeted then there has to be a valorization of the idiom principle which goes hand in hand with the open choice principle, because language production does not only involve an undue reliance on word-for-word combinations, but also adherence to pre-constructed multi-word combinations. Hence, it is an alternation between the idiom and the open-choice principles. These latter will be the centre of our attention in the section that follows.

The Idiom and Open-Choice Principles

To understand how meaning arises from language texts, two main interpretative models should be emphasized namely the open-choice and idiom principles. The former model also referred to as ‘slot and filler’ is characterized by the fact that its basic units are individual words which are combined within grammatical constraints. These well-defined structural contours disregard all lexical

and semantic considerations as there is a marked tendency in grammatical models of language to dissociate lexical and semantic aspects of words from the organization of syntax so as to generate sequences of functional slots that can be filled with individual lexical items. This could be discerned in Chomsky’s transformational grammar model as where phrasal patterns account for the formation of longer sets of grammatically correct sentences. The diagram below illustrates Chomsky’s view adapted from Malmjaeker (1991:483):



Noun: (e.g. ball, man etc...)

Verb: (e.g. hit,took etc...)

Tense: past, present etc...

Number: Plural or singular

Fig 2.1: The Phrase Structure Model Diagram

Thus, Chomskian Generative Grammar depends on open choices governed by a system of morpho- syntactic rules which characterizes most grammars without exception as claimed by Sinclair (1991) himself “Virtually, all grammar are constructed on the open-choice principle.” According to Gavioli (2005:43) “the open choice principle entails a view of texts as the result of a series of complex choices. Once a unit is completed (a morpheme, a phrase, a word), a large range of grammatical choices opens up to combine that unit with other units and build the text up.” In other words, such model provides both speakers and writers with the opportunity to use words from a subset of parts of speech to generate language sequences whose main constrain remains grammaticality.

However, it would be inconvenient to rely exclusively on the open-choice principle to account for all instances of language use. It is for this reason that Sinclair

(1991) opposes it to the idiom model which is based on the assertion that most texts consist of multi-word combinations whose processing differs from novel phrases in a way that they “constitute single choices” and are retrieved from the mental lexicon as wholes. This holistic view of language is the result of Sinclair’s questioning of whether there is an intrinsic connection between sense and pattern. In his quest for a plausible answer to his question, he assumes that “the underlying unit of composition is an integrated sense-structure complex,” adding that “there is ultimately no distinction between form and meaning” (qtd in Hunston and Francis, 2000: 21). To put this in other words, neither does a pattern need the selection of a particular word meaning, nor does word sense necessitate some specific pattern. It is rather lexical phrases that have single forms and meanings. According to him, “the principle of idiom is that a language user has available to him or her a large number of semi-preconstructed phrases that constitute single choices, even though they might appear to be analyzable into segments” (Sinclair,1991: 110).

Interestingly, several studies (Warga, 2005; Kecskes, 2007, Ellis, Simpson, Vlasch and Carson, 2008; Prodromou, 2008) reveal that the idiom principle might pose some serious problems with regard to language production as it was found to be shut down by monolinguals when using an L2. These findings commensurate with previously conducted investigations (Pawley and Syder,1983; Bolander, 1989; Winert,1995) where it has been put forward that even advanced students had a great difficulty dealing with formulaic language, which had a negative impact on their speech delivery.

Collocational Deficiency and its Impact on Language Learning

It has been empirically proved that most of the advanced students, even those with a well-developed grammatical and pragmatic competence, have a stagnant collocation performance. According to Smadga (1989) “language learners often stumble across co-occurrence relations.” Similarly, McCarthy (1990:15) notes that “collocational knowledge is part of native speaker’s competence, and can be problems for learners in cases where collocability is language-specific and is not solely determined by universal semantic restrictions.” What might be responsible for such a lag in collocational use is the arbitrariness of most formulaic expressions. In fact, collocations are a tricky aspect of foreign language learning, which gives a hard

time to most learners, especially those interested in acquiring a native-like competence as they are an unmistakable signal of native-likeness. Their acquisition should be prioritized for several reasons. First, they are probably the most pervasive and most representative of all prefabricated patterns (Lewis, 2000). Second and most importantly, the central position they hold between lexis and syntax accords with the currently endorsed interactional view of language competence. Nevertheless, collocational knowledge does not come overnight, but is a rather lengthy process.

According to McCarthy (1990:15), “Knowledge of collocation is based on years of experiences of masses of data...statement about collocation, namely typical patterns of co-occurrence of words can never be absolute.” This claim is a further assertion of the laboriousness of gaining a universal recognition of collocational acceptability among non-native speakers. To alleviate the encountered difficulties with regard to collocation learning, Channell (1981) recommends teaching collocations explicitly. This can be done with the aid of collocational grids like the one in the following page. Likewise, Ruth Gairns and Stuart Redman (1986:38) along with Norbert Schmitt (2000:88) advocate the use of the grid approach due to its suitability for presenting many types of collocations such as the adjective+ noun in addition to de-lexical verb +noun types.

Nevertheless, Nesselhauf (2005:269) questions the efficacy of grids by drawing attention to the fact that their use is restricted to providing information on form only rather than on usage which involves “semantic prosody (Sinclair, 1999:7), for example the strong tendency of a collocation to occur only in negative contexts (as have no intention to); it also includes restrictions on modification, in particular on adjectives and noun complementation. Knowledge of usage that has to be taught also includes knowledge of how collocations can and cannot function pragmatically and knowledge of the level of the style of collocations” (Ibid). She postulates that it is necessary to bring aspects of usage into focus by presenting collocations in typical contexts. Carter (1998:217), on the other hand, argues that instructors “sensitive to teaching vocabulary in context will not present the grids as immutable, but rather as hypotheses which learners can test against further data.” This implies that the limitations of grids can be overcome if used appropriately.

	W o m a n	M a n	C h i l d	D o g	B i r d	F l o w e r	W e a t h e r	L a n d s c a p e	V i e w	H o u s e	F u r n i t u r e	B e d	P i c t u r e	D r e s s	P r e s e n t	V o i c e
Handsome		+									+				+	
Pretty	+		+	+	+	+		+	+	+		+	+	+		
Charming	+		+							+				+		
Lovely	+		+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

Table 2.3 Collocation Grid (from Channell, 1980:120)

It is obvious that collocation grids are not the only pedagogical tool for teaching collocations. Concordances, also known as data-driven learning (Aston,2000; Johns and King,1991), are another useful technique used for their instruction. They provide lists of instances of how words can be used in context. Their learning benefits have been highlighted by several scholars (Nation, 2001; Woolard, 2000). However, like grids, concordances are not as efficient as they might seem to be due to the fact that they can be significantly problematic especially for novice learners, which is not the case for the most advanced ones. In fact, concordancing can be very confusing but also overwhelming at some extent. The table below illustrates concordance lines of the different uses of the verb to ‘get’, from which it is quite obvious that only the most proficient students can deal with it effectively as it requires a high level of language proficiency to be assimilated.

- | |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. plantings or for those who actually <u>GET</u> out there and make it happen in their 2. he leaves just start to wilt --than to <u>GET</u> the compost too wet. One disease to 3. do reasonably well, even if it does <u>GET</u> cool. The following should of course 4.drainpipes where pets and birds can't <u>GET</u> at them. If you prefer baits, slide 5. design cleaner engines. But let's <u>GET</u> this whole issue into perspective. 6.tips to ensure that your plants <u>GET</u> off to a flying start PLUS: WIN ONE 7. areas for New Millennium visitors to <u>GET</u> their bearings and learn something a 8. SPRING THE RIGHT TOOL SET It's easy to <u>GET</u> set yourself and with heated curler |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|

9. for their latest catalogue. herbal help <u>GET</u> back to your roots and solve your be
10. are back in fashion in a big way. So <u>GET</u> back to nature, try alternatives to
11. out dry and spotty skin problems, so <u>GET</u> stuck in! It has antiseptic properti
12. made from blends of essential oils. <u>GET</u> stuck into honey for health and beau
13. call for an order form and prices. <u>GET</u> SOME THERAPY At her Paramedical and
14. problems. But, if you can't <u>GET</u> to the clinic, you could invest in
15. exfoliate, boost circulation and help <u>GET</u> rid of toxins. 16. all! DO YOU LIKE LOND
ON? I like to <u>GET</u> down to London now and again -- I've
17. he's got nice legs. I really like to <u>GET</u> back home to Manchester, though. WHE
18. it to dry naturally. By the time I <u>GET</u> on set it's usually dry. The hair an
19. on it. The lights I work under can <u>GET</u> really hot and tend to dry it out
20. havoc with your skin and it tends to <u>GET</u> a bit sweaty under all the make-up
21. one of those things you know, when you <u>GET</u> called names. I love it now
22. to. 150 free Never have long enough to <u>GET</u> ready? Alberto has come to the rescue
23. miles of varied coast. Inland, you can <u>GET</u> close to the countryside with a few
24. for the Montagne Jeunesse range. <u>GET</u> AHEAD Jessica Jartley used to be ter
25. new techniques here's how you can <u>get</u> the look of "92 fabulous forties etc...
26. of time. Frieda suggests that you can <u>GET</u> great results in a minimum amount of
27. IN 1992 TOURIST INFORMATION To help you <u>GET</u> the best from your visit, there is a
28. centre, eager to see what's new and <u>GET</u> a head start. But have you ever wondered
29. expand and as long as they do not <u>GET</u> too dry, they will stay in good

Table 2.4 Sample Concordance Lines for the Verb to Get from the English Bank

Interestingly, concordancing can be used manually without the aid of a computerized research corpus. This can be done through learners' involvement in the production of a manual concordance by presenting target words in context inducing them to collect instances of use so as to analyze them internally (Hoey, 2000: 240). Such classroom practice can contribute positively into raising learners' awareness of delexical verb+noun lexical units in addition to phrasal verbs. For instance, learners might be provided with a selected text emphasizing instances of use of the verb to look up and to get where they would probably find recurrent meanings as these: He started **looking up** into the sky and said: " things are **looking up** a little bit." And then he remembered that he still had a pile of debts to pay and that there was no chance to **get the money** as most of his friends stood him up. An internal analysis of the presented examples would create no difficulty to the learners as theirs meanings could be easily guessed from the contextual clues (Ibid).

Dictionaries can also be used for learning collocations. Teachers can urge their students to make use of corpus-based collocation glossaries in order to expand their collocational knowledge, by teaching them ways of looking up some particular patterns and scrutinizing related entries to attain a better understanding for future use.

As an illustration, learners might have already been familiar with the word ear, but not with its associated phrase ‘bend someone’s ear’ (meaning: to talk a lot about something to somebody). To familiarize learners with its typical uses, teachers can ask them to consult the Oxford Collocations Dictionary (2009) entry where an explanation and exemplification are to be found. However, only proficient learners can employ such a technique as it demands a high level of proficiency, but also regular use. To put this in other words, mnemonic strategies should be deployed so as to ensure long-term acquisition. Besides, learners should be taught how to use this kind of dictionaries by themselves as a way of promoting their independence and making them more responsible for their learning, which will for sure have a positive impact on their collocational competence.

Collocational Competence

Overall proficiency involves several competencies brought together. To achieve successful learning, none of these should be overlooked. Yet, most of the time only two or three types are emphasized at the expense of others, which are normally of equal importance. Most teachers and learners are familiarized with communicative and linguistic competencies, but when it comes to collocational competence, a new concept and a significant dimension of vocabulary, things differ tremendously. As fully stated by Michael Lewis (2000:49) “We are familiar with the concept of communicative competence, but we need to add the concept of collocational competence to our thinking.” Despite its relevance to foreign language learning, collocational competence has always been treated neglectfully. According to Timmi (2015:47):

While we might expect collocational competence to improve significantly as learners progress through the levels, there is evidence that even advanced EFL students struggle with collocation and that, while some collocations are more ‘paraphrasable’ than others, a focus on collocations is still necessary even at advanced levels. A learner may, for example, be able to paraphrase ‘we made small talk’ by saying ‘we talk about something unimportant everyday things’, but this will probably take longer to produce and also seem, to native

speakers, at least, less idiomatic and natural than the conventional collocation.

Hence, collocational competence is a necessary component for ensuring a higher level of ‘naturalness’ and ‘idiomaticity’. It is the ability by which one can produce fluent speech by exploring his combinatory skills of chunks to the fullest and with great efficacy (Heikkikala, T and T, 2005:01). According to Ackermann and Chen (2013) clarity and unambiguity in language production requires a high level of collocational competence. Besides, knowing which collocations are acceptable for some specific context is an intrinsic part of a native-speaker’s competence and a non-native speaker’s communicative competence too. Crystal (1985:59) puts forward that “communicative competence focuses on the native-speaker’s ability to produce and understand sentences which are appropriate to the context in which they occur-what he needs to know in order to communicate effectively in socially distinct settings.” Moreover, former experiments revealed that many learners found collocations challenging. Biskup (1992), for instance, showed that students use inappropriate synonyms for collocations.

Furthermore, Collen (2003) study indicated that there was an abnormal over-reliance on a small number of collocations among EFL learners even though they could use some of them correctly. It then follows that more emphasis should be laid on developing collocational competence by fostering explicit-instruction of multi-word combinations. Such an initiative is highly recommended by Granger (2010:273):

Despite the lack of consensus on the notion of collocation and on the criteria for their identification, collocational competence is generally recognized as playing a key role in the linguistic competence of native speakers. As far as second language learners are concerned, it has been stressed that collocational competence plays a major role in enhancing their fluency-since it provides ready to use chunks of language –and in making their comprehension easier.

As far as collocational competence is strongly interrelated with language fluency, the next sections will be devoted to highlighting this strong inter-relationship by drawing attention to how language fluency is developed.

Language Fluency

Fluency has always been regarded as an undeniably difficult concept to define as there is no clear-cut definition to distinguish it. This ambiguity goes back to the fact that the term fluency itself includes several language aspects. Some language specialists and lay people may use the term in different ways adopting either a holistic approach in its treatment or a criterion-based approach wherein fluency is singled out from other language components and treated distinctively. Hartmann and Stork (1976, qtd in Brown:2003:01) ,for instance, postulate that ‘a person is said to be a fluent speaker of a language when he can use its structures accurately whilst concentrating on content rather than form using the units and patterns automatically at normal conversational speed when they are needed.’ In the same line of thought, Kenyon views fluent speakers as being able to deliver the kind of speech “in which errors virtually never interfere with communication or disturb the native speaker” (1995:23). And so accuracy is a crucial element of fluent speech as it directly impacts a listener’s impressions on a speaker’s oral performance.

Other researchers focus on the quality of authenticity or naturalness. Brumfit (1984) uses the term fluency to denote “natural language use”. Likewise, Richards et al (1985) applies it to the “features which give speech the qualities of being natural and normal, including native-like use of pausing, rhythm, intonation, stress, rate of speaking, and use of interjections and interruptions.” In this case, fluent speech must be “effortless and smooth as a native speaker’s” and not “so halting and fragmentary that conversation is virtually impossible” (Hughes, 1989:112). Still, it is very crucial to distinguish what it is like to be fluent or native-like. A person might sound fluent without being necessarily native-like. According to Skehan most non-native speakers are perceived as foreign though they “produce grammatical and fluent utterances.” This is partly due to the fact that they “are making choices which are effective in many ways but these choices are recognized as not being the choices that a native speaker would make” (1998:39). Cook’s interpretation adds on Skehan’s the phraseological nature of native-like fluency. In this regard, he argues that “native-

speakers acquire, represent and process language in lexicalized chunks as well as grammar rules and single words. Yet, it by no means follows that foreign learners must do the same. They may not want to study language in this way...or need native-like English. ” Instead, they may prefer to view language as a set of grammatical structures and slot fillers which will ultimately result in “communicative and expressive English” rather than a native-like type.

Interestingly, Fillmore (2000:50) associates fluency with four distinct abilities using it as a substitute for a cluster of proficiency aspects. First, ability to talk with few interruptive and disturbing pauses. Second, talking with a high degree of coherence by using “semantically dense sentences”, also the ability to cope with unfamiliar contexts where appropriateness is the main criterion for holding longer conversations. And finally, creativity the quality by which a speaker showcases his unusual skill to use language without an undue reliance on formulaic expressions. Fillmore’s approach to fluency is very comprehensive as it highlights qualitative (notably the first and third dimensions) and quantitative (second and fourth dimensions) features of oral speech. The idea is that fluency involves several qualities that should be balanced and used at their right dosage so as to reach ultimate achievement in language use (Prodromou, 2008). This applies especially to the first dimension by which a speaker might exhibit rapidity in speech delivery without providing much informational content to a discourse, but also to the quality of “semantic density”. A speaker might talk densely and succinctly without too much wordiness, yet his speech can easily disengage listeners or cause annoyance if delivered slowly. In both situations, none of those speakers could be perceived as utterly fluent according to Fillmore. Besides, there is a kernel of truth that the fact of having a nice big stock of formulaic expressions can be seen as a blessing. However, when overused, this might be interpreted as a lack of creativity on the part of listeners (Ibid:53).

In the meantime, Fillmore (2000) upgrades the role of formulaic expressions in the maintenance of a smooth flow of speech while holding conversations. He acknowledges that the dimension of “filling time with talk” in social interactions is critically dependent on lexical chunks. Recurrent communicative situations do not

require an undue reliance and exhibition of a set of new constructions, but rather appeal to formulaic language. The table below illustrates some of those expressions:

a. It's my turn.
b. All in favor say "aye"!
c. Speak of the devil.
d. Let me be the first to congratulate you.
e. Don't tell a soul.
f. Anybody home?
g. Plenty more where that came from.
h. It takes one to know one.
i. We'll hate each other in the morning.

Table 2.5 Fillmore's Formulaic Expressions

Fillmore (2000:50) notes that prefabricated patterns are very useful for routine communication. They are stored in the long term memory as wholes which can be easily retrieved. Moreover, they are neither instantly generated from a set of grammatical rules nor can they be predicted by someone who barely knows the language. It is for this reason that he argues that lexical chunks in general including collocations and idioms are as important as individual words when it comes to oral fluency development. Pawley and Syder (1983) also advance that "achieving native-like control involves not only learning a rule system that will generate an infinite number of sentences, but also 'memorized sequences' and 'lexicalized sentence stems'" (qtd in Ellis,2003:85). These latter "are essential in handling the day to day situations" because of their easy retrieval. Dechert (1983) points out that students facing non-fluency problems might find prefabricated language very useful as it provides what he calls "Islands of reliability" that will help them in the construction and execution of production plans. The most fluent speakers are able to cope with increasing syntactic complexity effortlessly and without being overwhelmed by the load of language processing thanks to their remarkable ability to apply syntactic rules, but also their use of multi-word segments, which is the missing component for the non-fluent ones. Foreign language learners may use these chunks as "a safe base" so as to deal with recurring situations (Dechert,1984: 223).

Similarly, Coulmas (1981) emphasizes the role that formulaic expressions or pragmatic routines play in developing fluency. He defines them as "highly

conventionalized pre-patterned expressions whose occurrence is tied to more or less standardized communication situations.” They are characterized by the fact that they are “highly predetermined by the situation” (Keckes, 1999:299), in addition to being “language, culture and society specific” (Coulmas,1985:53). As stated by Ferguson (1976:137) “all human speech communities have such formulas, although their character and the incidence of their use may vary enormously from one society to another.” For Coulmas (1985:64, cited in Barron,:138), these routines have manifold advantages among which the ‘natural and proficient flavour’ they lend to foreign learners oral performances. This flavour is the result of the native- speaker like nature of the segments themselves and the “relief function” they fulfill during speech production. As a result and because they demand little attention, speakers can spend more time on creating newer utterances, which smoothens instant conversational planning. Besides, they also allow for some monitoring. It goes without saying that a deficient competence in pragmatic routines can have some dire consequences as put forward by Warga (2002), who observed among her students especially the non-proficient ones that they adopt a rule-based approach most of the time. What might ensue is “pragmatic failure” due to “possible hearer impatience when confronted with lengthy explanations” (Blumkulka/ Olshtain, 1986:175).

Despite its well-defined boundaries, Fillmore’s description of fluency sets higher standards that not all foreign language learners can raise up to. For instance, the fourth dimension namely that of using language creatively and making jokes and puns is not within everyone’s reach. Even native-speakers might not all be equipped with such a desirable trait. And so it remains a coveted luxury to L2 learners. Moreover, speaking is not as compact and dense as writing. It has a tendency to be more loose allowing speakers to make instant adjustments such as fillers, rephrasings or repetitions (Crystal,1997:181). Consequently, the ability of producing semantically dense sentences is not a typical feature of all speakers as it is the case with Noam Chomsky and William.F.Buckly, who according to Fillmore (2000:51) are two of the few people demonstrating this quality. This leads us to the implication that fluency assessment methods should take into account the fact that Fillmore’s four dimensions do not always match with natives real level of fluency as not all of

them can speak creatively and compactly. Hence, measuring criteria for non-native speakers should be adapted to natives' attainment capacity.

Furthermore, Fillmore's description berates accuracy and its impact on a listener's perception of L2 fluency by its complete exclusion. This could be attributed to the fact that his study lays emphasis on native language speech. Besides, his approach to fluency is typically communicative highlighting creativity, coherence and social appropriateness. This attitude toward L2 fluency was adopted by many other advocates of communicative language teaching. Krashen (1981, 1983) and Brumfit (1984) have devoted part of their research to fluency development. In his Monitor Model and Natural Approach of instruction, Krashen distinguishes consciously and unconsciously acquired language. In his view, only the latter is responsible for a fluent use of the target language. He explains that:

Our fluency in production is thus hypothesized to come from what we have picked up, what we have acquired, in natural communicative situations. Our formal knowledge of a second language, the rules we learned in class and from texts, is not responsible for fluency, but only has the function of checking and making repairs on the output of the acquired system.

(Krashen and Terrell, 1983:30)

Though not clearly stated, Krashen's and Terrell's approach to fluent production points to the notion of 'fluency' as a temporal factor where speed and smoothness of speech delivery are the main quality standards. In addition, there is no clear reference to accuracy as it subconsciously evolves through exposure to plenty of salient authentic input. They argue that only optimal monitor users can achieve a satisfactory overall fluency combining both accuracy and smoothness. Over-users are condemned to non-fluency due to their excessive monitoring. On the other hand, to avoid an ultimate focus on fluency at the expense of accuracy, Brumfit (1984) recommends a fusion of fluency and accuracy-building activities if natural language use is the target objective. This ability to use language 'naturally' should not be confused with native-like fluency, but rather with the skill of coping with life-like communicative contexts created by the instructors themselves.

Bachman (1990, cited in Wood, 2016:10), another advocate of CLT, drew on Canale and Swains work (1980) to develop a more comprehensive model of communicative competence. He lumps together grammatical and textual aspects along with pragmatic, sociolinguistic and strategic aspects leading to the expansion of the construct of CC with nonlinguistic realms of knowledge. In sum, the notion of fluency seems to be influenced by a variety of competencies that go beyond higher levels of accuracy in syntax, lexis and phonology, which accords with Lennon's perception of fluency where temporal variables are given considerable weight. In this regard, he states that native-like fluency requires the ability to produce speech "at the tempo of native speakers, unimpeded with silent pauses and hesitations" (1990:390). He also argues that:

Fluency differs from the other elements of oral proficiency in one important respect: whereas such elements as idiomaticness, appropriateness, lexical range, and syntactic complexity can all be assigned to linguistic knowledge, fluency is purely a performance phenomenon; there is presumably no fluency 'store'. Rather, fluency is an impression on the listener's part that the psycholinguistic processes of speech planning and speech production are functioning easily and efficiently. Dysfluency markers are, as it were, make the listener aware of the production process under strain.

(Ibid:391)

Like many others, Segalowitz (2010, cited in Redford, 2015:449) adopts a multidimensional approach to defining fluency. He makes a distinction between cognitive, utterance and perceptual fluency. While the former type refers to the smoothness of the planning processes that are intrinsic to speaking, the second and third types are used to denote "the acoustically measurable speech that results from the planning stages, but also the listener's perspective on the perceived smoothness of a speaker's production processes" (Ibid). He argues that being perceived as orally proficient entails attaining cognitive fluency in the construction of spoken utterances that will ultimately lead to perceptually fluent speech. However, if native-likeness is the prime goal, then some other aspects of native speakers' speech production should

be taken into account too such as hesitation and ability to cope with speech error by instant repair (Tavakoli and Skehan, 2005). This means that a reasonable level of dysfluency is needed as much as lexis, grammar, and articulation to match a native speaker's fluency. As fully stated by Lennon (1990:412,413)

Certain self-corrections, particularly those involving reformulation of discourse, do not make for perceived dysfluency at all, and are a feature of certain sorts of fluent native-speaker performance. ... they may even suggest that part of fluency development in the advanced learner may involve increased ability to reformulate, monitor and self-correct production on-line.

All in all, most of the definitions attributed to language fluency emphasize the temporal variables of native speakers' speech production which are of a tremendous importance to formal proficiency testing.

Fluency as a Temporal Factor

Several quantitative studies have been conducted to identify the main temporal factors that underlie a listener's or even a teacher's perception of fluency over the last two decades. Of all experiments, Lennon's (1991) could be viewed as the most exhaustive as it investigated a variety of factors that relate to speed, pausing profile, self-corrections and many other markers. Unlike the researchers who focused on the identification of perceptual factors of L2 fluency, Lennon preferred to highlight which markers can be improved in a longitudinal study abroad. Though considered as a small-scale study, Lennon's experiment remains a point of reference for further follow-up studies. The participating subjects were four German-speaking women, all of whom had the ultimate goal of improving their proficiency in English during their six-month-stay in England. Their oral performances were recorded at the very beginning of the experiment and then near the end for an objective measurement and comparison of the final results. To elicit the subjects' speech samples, Lennon inquired them for a narrative account of a six-frame cartoon-like picture story. A panel of ten native English speakers took part in the assessment process. They adopted a holistic approach for rating the participants' recordings. Lennon for his

part based his analysis on 12 temporal factors including speed of delivery, self-corrections, repetitions and the number and location of filled and unfilled pauses. The table that follows illustrates those potential core fluency markers.

<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Words per minute (unpruned)2. Words per minute (pruned)3. Repetitions per T-unit4. Self-corrections per T-unit5. Filled pauses per T-unit6. Percentage of repeated and self-corrected words7. Unfilled pause time as percentage of total delivery time8. Filled pause time as percentage of total delivery time9. Mean length of speech “runs” between pauses10. Percentage of T-units followed by pauses (filled and unfilled)11. Percentage of pause time at T-unit boundaries (filled and unfilled)12. Mean pause time at T-unit boundaries (filled and unfilled)

Table 2.6 Lennon’s Analyzed Temporal Factors

Among the battery of the twelve quantifiable performance features, only three were found to be significantly improved namely (Factor2) pruned speech rate referring to all produced words excluding repetitions and self-corrections, (Factor5) filled pauses per T unit which encompasses an independent clause with all of its peripheral parts including dependent clauses and phrasal patterns, and finally (Factor10) percentage of pauses between T-units. Regarding the first factor, Lennon noticed when comparing his subjects’ renderings before and after the experiment that they could produce more words per minute. For the two other factors, less pausing has been observed. For this reason, Lennon suggests that these three variables should be given more consideration if an objective assessment of oral fluency is to be attained. He also maintains that self-corrections should not be regarded as a good indicator of fluency, but rather as a means of extreme monitoring and reformulating. In sum, Lennon’s study revealed that two key areas appear to be relevant to fluency assessment: speech-pause relationships in performance but also frequency of dysfluency markers (excluding self-corrections). However, these findings are not as decisive as they seem to be. Some other variables might be involved too due to individual variation among subjects.

In fact, among the four participants of Lennon's experiment, there was one who manifested a level of significance in some other variables compared to the other three. The participant in question did not show any marked improvement at the level of speech rate, but her self-corrections and repetitions were very low in percentage terms. The implication might be that both core and peripheral variables should be taken into account as a diagnostic tool for the identification of non-native speakers' deficiencies and strong points. Though classified as a small-scale study, which might impede overly generalizations, Lennon's experiment remains a point of reference in terms of quantitative analysis of fluency components. It does not only shed light on which temporal variables have a strong connection with fluency, but also on those that get improved after an extensive training abroad. Besides, it explored a dozen of interrelated indicators, which broadens its scope as an exploratory study. There is a kernel of truth that Lennon used a limited number of subjects relying exclusively on their speech samples for his analysis, but still his experiment is a reliable resource for further research. In addition, rather than using a conversational activity to bring out the speech samples needed for the experiment, Lennon relied on a narrative monologue.

His choice was based on the idea that a discussion format would certainly result in a sort of confusion between the subjects' receptive and productive skills. Obviously, this is not the case when dealing with real-life discourse where both skills are entangled. It is for this reason that he preferred the picture story to a group conversation as productive fluency was his prime target. Opting for a turn-taking technique would have been detrimental to the validity of the experiment because the resulting speech samples might not have been as uniform as they should be. Subjects would have been allowed more freedom to divert from the targeted topic, which would have led to the production of varied samples complicating their comparative analysis in the process. Moreover, Lennon provided the panel of native-speaking judges with a well-defined significance of fluency by focusing on its narrow sense where temporal factors are highlighted more than any other component. This had the additional advantage of narrowing the scope of the experiment even further. Meanwhile, it would have been preferable to allow more space for the judges to decide on what variables should account for L2 fluency.

In 1991, Riggenbach carried out a similar small-scale experiment with two additional subjects, who were all from China. Her analysis was based on excerpts of audiotaped dialogues that she explored both at the utterance and discourse level. Because raters' language background is very important for ensuring the reliability of a fluency test, Riggenbach enlisted the help of native-speaking instructors who rated the test takers' samples of speech in terms of quantifiable temporal variables. By the end of the rating test, only three subjects were designated as fluent while the three others were not. Unlike Lennon who investigated which fluency-related-markers could improve over time, Riggenbach aimed at finding which factors influenced a rater's perceptions about fluent and non-fluent speech. The micro-analysis of the elicited acoustic data revealed that the three fluent subjects shared one common typical feature which was that of using fewer pauses. Their frequency of pausing and speaking rate was smoother than the non-fluent ones, which led Riggenbach to speculate that "fluent speakers resemble each other" (1991:439).

However, one of the non-fluent subjects approximated the required pausing norm to a great extent leading Riggenbach to deduce that the panel of judges penalized her because of her grammar mistakes. Yet, language form or non-temporal markers in general including accuracy and so on was completely excluded from the list of variables under study. This only implies that such common mistakes among dysfluent speakers can impact a listener's perceived level of L2 fluency added to the set of temporal factors that characterize fluent speech. In this regard, Riggenbach argues that:

In order for there to be fluency, then, it appears that many different conditions have to be met- some proficiency in grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary to mention a few. In the case of two-party speech other possible conditions may be related to sociolinguistic and even affective factors. Nonfluency, on the other hand, can arise from a deficiency in any one of these areas: the inability to produce a given grammatical structure may be the first link in a chain of dysfluencies that may as easily have begun with a comprehension lapse, a

pronunciation problem, or a motivation for precision in word choice.

(Riggenbach,1991:43, cited in Gotz, 2013:75)

Freed (1995) also took interest in studying temporal variables that correlate with oral fluency and hence investigated its development longitudinally. She sampled thirty American students for her experiment, who studied French in France. Six native French speakers were at her disposal to analyze the three minutes segments of speech production that she recorded using an interview format. To avoid subjectivity from the part of the raters, Freed chose eight performance markers to be the focus of the study. But the instructors had the freedom to add some other variables if they wanted to. By the end of the experiment she found out that smoothness, idiomaticity along with accent and pausing profile were the most influential components of L2 fluency. In the same year, Kinkade (1995) adopted a pausological approach to L2 fluency too. She picked seventeen Chinese students for her study. Aided by three native speaking teachers, she elicited oral excerpts for a micro-analysis after which it was revealed that formal accuracy might have a great impact on an instructor's perception of fluency. Though she instructed the panel of judges to disregard grammatical errors, it seemed that their "teaching instinct" took control over Kinkade's directions.

In sum, the already discussed quantitative studies intersect in several ways despite their divergent experimental methods. First, all of Lennon, Riggenbach, Freed and Kinkade concluded that speech rate i.e. the number of syllables articulated per minute, along with smoothness were important indicators of L2 fluency. Also, in spite of being identified as significant non-fluency markers, filled pauses, repetitions and self-corrections did not affect the ratings' results of the four studies. Moreover, overall accuracy turned out to be an important and influential factor when assessing L2 fluency as revealed in Kinkade's and Riggenbach's experiments. However, it should not go unnoticed that these cross-linguistic longitudinal studies present some important shortcomings in terms of methodology (Kormos and Denes, 2004). Indeed, the number of investigated participants was not quite enough as they did not exceed the dozen. Besides, the statistical reliability of these studies has not been ensured due to the unreliable methods that they employed for the analysis of the pausological

data. None of these quantitative experiments made use of computer technology. Interestingly, some other investigations regarding perceptions of fluency sampled a considerable number of subjects. Gelderen (1994), for instance, carried out a large-scale study which yielded some consistent and reproducible results. Meanwhile, it was inconvenient for its focus on L1 fluency in Dutch. Besides, there is no full certitude for the applicability of its findings to L2 fluency. Fulchner's (1996) analysis of hesitation phenomena that delineate L2 fluency perceptions is as unreliable as Gelderen's in the sense that it failed to discern certain temporal factors such as speed of delivery and pauses shorter than three seconds.

Some follow-up studies Kormos and Denes (2004) have also explored the distinguishing features between fluent and non-fluent speakers. They put to the test sixteen Hungarian students. To ensure reliability, they used computer technology and nonparametric statistical analyses. Findings revealed that in addition to speech rate and the mean length of runs, some other component comes into play too namely pace, which refers to the number of stressed words per minute. A more recent empirical study (Donovan, 2016) sampling 75 American university students has approached the notion of L2 fluency with the aim of identifying its main components. The participants were all enrolled in formal classes teaching Mandarin, Russian or Spanish. They spent a whole semester abroad to maximize their efficiency in one of those foreign languages. To address the main goal of the research project, the researchers adopted a quantitative approach to examine the elicited speech samples, which were about six hundred. They used 150 pretests and posttest Simulated Oral Proficiency Interviews to come up with these data. Interestingly, their results lend support to the idea that speech rate is the most recurrent and soundest indicator of fluency.

It seems that be it a small or a large scale study, speech rate and smoothness are the two main components that correlate well with L2 fluency. Despite its importance, most speakers facing fluency problems cannot maintain a normal pace due to their undue concentration on accuracy. It is for this reason that some laymen researchers made some interesting and applicable suggestions to alleviate this issue. Scholff and Yudkin (1991) tackled the issue of L2 fluency markers. Their observations to non-fluent speakers led them to the conclusion that most of them reduce their speech rate

believing that every single utterance they say has to be perfectly worded. However, such a ruse to avoid an error-ridden speech can be detrimental in the long run. According to Scholff and Yudkin, it is preferable to disregard grammar mistakes to ensure that the listener does not get distracted by some other things due to boredom or tiredness. To this end, they recommend dysfluent slow speakers to pursue ‘a sixty-second strategy’ by picking a 180-word passage from any available resource for oral practice and check whether they can actually read it by keeping up a normal and fast pace without having to sacrifice clarity and meaning. Turk (1985:135) argues that speech rate reduction might not be the best solution for sounding accurately fluent. Instead, he proposes the employment of a varied pace for speaking. To put this in other words, there has to be a balance between slow, deliberate and rapid rate because such a method, adds to the musicality of the human voice, but also precludes listeners’ distraction.

Likewise, Porter and Grant (1992) share the same view with regard to speech rate variety. They state that it is important for a foreign language speaker to speak with a varied-pace. Slowing down is not a good alternative for avoiding mistakes, which usually signal lack of fluency. However, speeding up is even worse especially if it is accompanied with a deficient linguistic competence. As a result, a communication gap might arise between the speaker and listener so much that the conversation will end before it even starts. The two researchers suggest making learners glow keenly aware of the high potential that their teachers’ talk has. They put forward that most instructors use language in class for transaction and not for social interaction by highlighting the main key words in their lectures or assignments. By listening to them carefully, dysfluent learners might acquire their skills in communication. Brown (2003) also argues for a wise use of speech rate. He admits that many teachers, especially those having received no training programme, concentrate too much on how fast their students express themselves, forgetting that speed is not a stringent criterion for the identification of fluent speech. Indeed, native speakers in general use a varied rate when interacting with each other depending on the situation they are thrown into. Non-natives, on the other hand, hold on to the belief that by speeding up, they will sound more fluent, which is not always true. A better solution would be to adopt a balanced rate for language processing.

Unfortunately, such rate is achievable only when learners are not under different time limitations.

In his description of fluent speakers' speech, Tam (1997) notes that it is made up, in part, of reduced forms which is a typical characteristic of spoken English and one of the major factors that affect listening comprehension. These recurring patterns of speech production contribute to the natural-sounding quality of natives and accelerate their speech rate by eliminating word boundaries through the contraction/reduction, assimilation, liaison, and elision of certain vowels and consonants (Brown and Hilferty, 1986). The first process namely assimilation involves the modification of a sound's physical properties that becomes identical to an adjacent sound due to their reciprocity e.g. **hamb**urger. Elision for its part refers to the omission of a sound between two words. Liaison, however, is the act of pronouncing a normally silent consonant when followed by a word that starts with a vowel. Reduction/contraction, the fourth and last pattern, devoids a stressed syllable of its acoustic resonance rendering it unstressed in the process (Chang, Kinshuk, 2009:76).

According to Tam (1997), learners often struggle to understand native speakers because of their undue use of phonological reductions in casual speech. In fact, several studies (Rayson, Leech, and Hodges, 1997) came up with evidence demonstrating the increasing use of reduced forms. They found that the frequency of these patterns in the conversational component of the British National Corpus is on the rise. Sosa (2000) also revealed that half of the uses of the preposition "Of" in the switchboard telephone conversation corpus are mere reductions e.g. 'sorata' instead of 'sort of'. Mullany and Stockwell (2015: 241) explain that the reason why:

words and even entire phrases, often appear in connected speech in a reduced form is that speakers economize on effort: for example: they avoid difficult consonant sequences by eliding sounds. Another reason is rhythmic: the patterns of English prosody dictate that certain closed class words such as prepositions, pronouns and conjunctions are rarely stressed, and indeed that some may appear in a weak form in these unstressed contexts.

Added to this, most learners have been “largely couched in slow and deliberate spoken English” (1997:4). That is why Tam (1997) insists on the incorporation of reduced forms in the EFL classroom. This can be done by allotting half an hour from each class to practicing these important patterns. He suggests that teachers put on audio tapes to their students so that they can perceive by themselves the intricacies of spoken English. First, a slow pronounced version of the audio tape must be presented and then comes the normal fast pronunciation. For a better acquisition, students have to repeat both versions more than once till they feel ready to practice the full text by themselves in a conversation that they can strike up in duos or trios. Brown (2003:04) supports Tam’s position with regard to reduced forms. He states that these sandhi-variations, which is another appellation for reduced forms, are an intrinsic part of spoken English. The role of teachers is to implement these patterns to the EFL classroom so as to ascertain that learners will attain perceptual saliency, which is the key component for developing good listening skills.

According to Larsen-Freeman (1976), the transformation of the language input into intake depends on the learners’ ability to assimilate the different uses of reduced forms. Likewise, Henrichsen (1984) conducted a study about the impact of these patterns on language comprehension in which it was revealed that there was a strong statistical correlation between proficiency level and the absence or presence of reduced forms. This being the case, Brown (2003) proposes that some typical phenomena of informal spoken English have to be brought to the fore. As an example, the ultimate conversion of an unstressed syllable into a schwa in American English can be regarded as an initial preparation for accustoming learners to understand native-speech, which will gradually result in improving their smoothness in speaking. Many other speech- rate techniques take on an added importance, one of which is the 4/3/2 technique.

The 4/3/2 activity has been innovated by Keith Maurice (1993, 1994) where learners have to spark off ‘a four-minute talk on a familiar topic to a partner. Then they change partners and deliver the same talk to a different partner but with a three-minute time limit. Finally, they change partners again and deliver the same talk in two minutes to their new partner’ (Nation: 2000:84). Hence, this activity allows speakers to plan their talks down to the minute as they are limited by the time

available for each speech delivery. However, it should be noted that for better results with the 4/3/2, a number of adjustments may be required to maximize its efficiency. This holds especially when a speaker has only one listener. According to Tam (1997), it is advisable not to restrict speakers to one listener in order to avoid distraction and boredom. Such a modification will motivate learners to perform better and get focused on the talks held in class. Nation (2000) adds that the 4/3/2 activity is a good-fluency enhancing technique because it promotes learners' autonomy and facilitates the processing of larger quantities of language. In addition, it contributes to the automatization of the language being processed as learners have to repeat it thrice. Besides, it trains them to plan their turns down to the minute due to the unrelenting time pressure they have to cope with.

Some other rehearsed practice activities other than the 4/3/2 might be very useful for attaining a higher level of speaking performance. Bressnian and Stoops (1996) identify three of them: 'Talking Zone', 'Speaking Line', and 'Conversation Game'. These activities were designed to fit non-English speaking countries where school sessions are the only offered opportunities for practice. They were found to be a good way for encouraging the most reluctant students to speak. The only difference they might have with the 4/3/2 activity is the fact that learners are allotted more time to converse. Voller and Widdowson's course 'Chatterbox' is of equal importance to the previously cited activities. Likewise, it was laid down the speech-rate principle. Its target community includes students with an intermediate level having already acquired the language basics, and who require some intense practice for a good mastery of those patterns. Three language-learning approaches provided a sound basis for the course namely the natural, which lays emphasis on the authenticity of the language forms to be presented, also the humanistic, where there is no room for instant criticism and prejudice in the classroom, and finally, communicative, which attaches more importance to the speaking proficiency. The course incorporates plenty of activities based on the 4/3/2 technique. The 'How do you react?' activity, for instance, sets off students' reactions with regard to some situations of a low-degree of probability. Students work in pairs and try to answer their teacher's questions by reacting to one of the selected topics. It goes like this:

<p>What would you do if.....”</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. You find a way of becoming temporally invisible? 2. Your teacher suddenly slapped a student <p>(1989:33)</p>

Table 2.7 A Sample Activity from the 4/3/2 Technique

Just as the 4/3/2 activity, it involves a restricted speech-limit that speakers should not overrun. To maximize its efficiency, students get the chance to share their reactions with more than one partner. In sum, the already cited activities are proved to be an efficient medium for promoting an L2 learner’s speech rate; however, according to Cohen genuine spoken fluency cannot be achieved in formal settings as it requires “socially inculcated response mechanisms which can only be gained experientially” (1986:8). If this being the case, then how can non-native learners achieve L2 fluency?

Fluency Development

According to Lennon (2000:26), L2 fluency is regarded as skilled performance that involves “rapid, smooth, accurate, lucid, and efficient translation of thought or communicative intention under the temporal constraints of on-line processing.” This interpretation of L2 fluency as automatization falls within the context of skill development. Achieving communicative ability can be compared to any of those skills such as playing chess or a musical instrument that require a smooth movement from controlled to automatic processing Scheffrin and Schnieder (1977). Controlled processes are especially observed during the early stages of learning. They are not only time-consuming but also effortful. In addition, they are serial in the sense that they tend to appear in subsequent sequences where a process cannot be operated before the completion of the preceding one. Besides, they are quite demanding in terms of concentration. Conversely, automatic processes are faster, subconscious and do not need too much attention to be activated. They can also operate simultaneously (Schmidt:1992: 360). Levelt (1989:2) argues that L2 fluency depends on “automatic, reflex-like” processes that proceed in parallel. The issue of how these

processes can be attained by non-native learners has been dealt with by two general approaches namely 'the resource-based' and the 'memory-based'

The former approach has been developed by Anderson (1986) who provides plausible explanations regarding how declarative knowledge (controlled processes) can be turned into procedural knowledge (automatic processes). With the help of his associates, Anderson worked on a model of human cognition more commonly known as the ACT (the Adaptive Control of Thought) wherein he proposes a production system that includes a three-stage theory of skill acquisition. According to him, any kind of knowledge originally takes in a declarative form at the very beginning, then comes a time of compilation which will eventually end in its proceduralization. Whereas declarative knowledge refers to factual knowledge, for instance, knowing that Napoleon was defeated in 1815, or that most English verbs conjugated into the simple present take an 's' in the third person, procedural knowledge is 'knowing how'. It mainly comprises "condition-action pairs that state what is to be done under certain circumstances or with certain data." When it is fully automatized, it becomes easy for a learner to use the simple present tense without undue thinking (William, 2006:48). Paradis (2009) states that Anderson's three stages of acquisition are sequential in nature:

Learners switch from learning and using metalinguistic knowledge to acquiring and using implicit competence. Passing from (1) a cognitive stage where rules are explicit, through (2) an associative phase where rules are applied repeatedly to (3) an autonomous stage where the rules are no longer explicit and are executed automatically, entails a change in the nature of the rules involved. In stages (1) and (2), explicit metalinguistic rules are learned, but, in parallel with the repeated use of these rules during stage (2), a set of implicit procedures is acquired leading to (3), an autonomous stage in which the rules are not of the same type as in (1) and (2) but are implicit procedures.

(Paradis, 2009:86)

Accordingly, this transitional change of knowledge is very crucial for language acquisition. Anderson (1983, cited in Dekeyser 2007:60) explains that the majority of L2 learners are unable to express themselves with a higher level of fluency due to the fact that the conversion of declarative knowledge into the procedural type takes time and plenty of good practice that has to match with the three-stages of skill acquisition. It should be noted that Anderson's Act model is one of the most comprehensive accounts of how to develop automatic processes, which involve not only a faster application of language rules, but also a withdrawal of attention from rule-based processing. Its relevance to L2 language production is undeniable in the sense that it accounts for the ultimate syntactic and phonological changes that contribute to the growth of fluency. Empirical research such as Towell's (1996) revealed that proceduralized syntactic knowledge resulted in increased length of fluent runs. On the other hand, some other experimental studies indicated that learners' morphological and phonological encoding enhanced tremendously after its automatization (Poulisse: 1999).

It seems obvious that proceduralized knowledge is responsible for automatized fluent speech. Hence, the degree of automaticity of syntactic, morphological and lexical encoding has to be ensured in order to reduce the speaker's conscious supervision, which is allegedly one of the most important factors for a slow speech production. In fact, because of lack of automatization, L2 production processes cannot work simultaneously as in L1. As a result, speech performance is impeded and slowed down to a very considerable extent (De Bot 1992, Rehbein 1987, Sajavara, 1987). In this respect, automatic processing has to be fostered by extensive practice as fully stated by Towell et al (1996: 98) "as exposure to and practice of L2 increases so does fluency." To recap, Anderson's Act model can be represented in the diagram that follows:

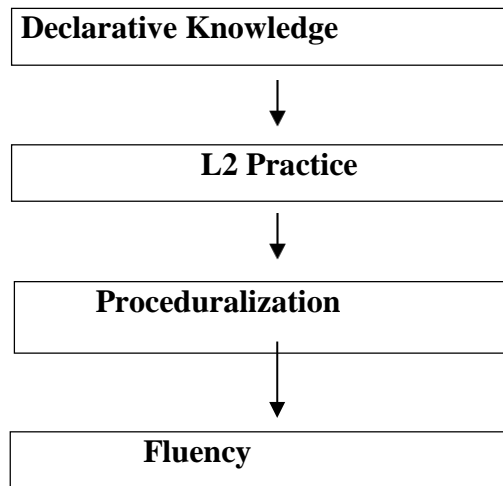


Fig 2.2 Anderson's Act Model

In spite of its usefulness, Anderson's Act model has been criticized for several reasons. First, its applicability to language acquisition is inconvenient because 'unlike most motor skills, acquisition is not the automatization of the same entities that were previously practiced' (Paradis, 2009:86). The acquisition of a foreign language does not proceed in the same way as motor skills wherein there is a smooth movement from slow deliberate sequences to more automatized performances. Language acquisition requires not the explicit rules that learners have learnt during the learning process to be automatized, but rather "computational procedures that were never consciously practiced." To put this in other words, "the implicit computational procedures of linguistic competence are not made up of the same schemata as the known declarative rules. The steps used in sentence construction based on declarative knowledge are not the same as those that can generate sentences in implicit competence, namely computational procedures" (Ibid). Thus, language acquisition cannot be regarded as the direct result of the proceduralization of previously rehearsed metalinguistic knowledge.

The second reason could be attributed to the fact that Anderson's Act model does not distinguish language and the other cognitive systems. It provides no plausible explanation to how language properties are acquired (Johnson and Johnson, 1998). According to Cook (1993), Anderson's Act model along some other information processing models are characterized by their total ignorance of the notion of grammatical structure, which lays foundation to language knowledge. As a result, it is very hard to discern the operability of the production systems in acquiring

complex grammatical structures. We can conclude that Anderson's model provides a good interpretation of the proceduralization process. Still, it cannot account for how new linguistic knowledge is developed by learners. To transcend those limitations, Towell and Hawkins (1994) attempted the integration of a linguistic model into Anderson's Act model. Yet, their attempt was perceived as insufficient for obtaining a comprehensive model of L2 learning and acquisition.

Logan's approach (1988, 1990) bears no similarity with Anderson's Act model other than that it also deals with skill acquisition. In fact, former models attribute learners' improved performances to the refined and tuned procedural knowledge. Logan's instance theory, on the other hand, looks at faster performances from a different angle. They are the direct result of "an increased range of episodic representations of past experience to call upon" (Speelman and Kirsner, 2009:59). It is worth noting that there are three underlying assumptions to Logan's Instance Theory. Obligatory encoding is the first among them. It implies that once we pay attention to something; this would generate a memory representation. Such a representation includes 'the stimulus condition, the goal state, the interpretation given to the stimulus conditions, the responses executed, and the result of the responses' (Ibid). The assumption that follows is obligatory retrieval. It is the act of retrieving former stored instances of a previously encountered item when confronted to some specific condition stimuli. Instance representation, the third and last assumption, dictates that each encountered sequence leads to a 'separate instance'. Altogether, the three assumptions denote that the encounter of a stimulus be it auditory, sensory, visual or verbal will eventually trigger all previously stored associations in relation to that stimulus to come to the fore.

As stated by Logan (1988), automatic performances are characterized mainly by their undue reliance on instance retrieval. This happens when a person has been assigned with some particular task for more than once, and thus, has acquired enough experience with it, which will eventually result in the retrieval of related instances. Thus, Instance Theory is about those processes 'whereby initial performances with a task can commence, and, with practice improve' (Ibid). Simply put, it has to do with a process of substitution. By contrast to Anderson's Act model wherein underlying processes do not undergo any kind of changes whatsoever, but rather get faster and

convert to procedural knowledge, Logan posits that former structural construction processes are substituted by some other processes that are qualitatively different and one of single-step memory retrieval. He explains that at the very beginning there is a sort of competition between ‘the original step by step declarative sequences’, which are rule-based in nature, and ‘memory retrieval’. A frequent production of the same instance will inexorably result in memory retrieval to become the norm as it is a more effective way to produce longer strings of language under the constraints of online processing.

In sum, Logan’s Instance theory (1988) can be perceived as an act of amassing exemplars of solutions to former accomplished tasks. These solutions are subconsciously stored in one’s memory to be retrieved later whenever similar tasks to those already completed are encountered. It simply views automatic processes as memory retrieval. Interestingly, the relevance of the Instance theory has been examined by Robinson and Ha (1993) to evaluate whether learners relied on algorithm-based mechanisms or memory retrieval to form grammatically correct constructions. Their final results revealed that there seems to be an intrinsic connection between both processes in a way that there is no either/or option but rather an amalgam of both. However, Robinson and Ha (1993) argue that these findings do not commensurate with the underlying assumptions of traditional Instance theory. Instead, they suggest that other revised memory-based learning theories such as Palmari’s (1997) exemplar-based random walk model can account for those results.

In spite of being questioned for the role they occupy in language acquisition (Dekeyser, 2001; N. Segalowitz, 2003), memory-based theories of learning can show grounds for some aspects of L1 and L2 fluency. According to Pawley and Syder (1983) native-like fluency depends on whether learners have a nice big stock of prefabricated patterns and formulaic expressions, which are retrieved as wholes. They explain that fluency involves not a unilateral process mainly consisting of clause-internal encoding, but also ability to retrieve some adequate context-bound patterns such as idioms, collocations etc... Just as these expressions play an important role in L1 acquisition, acquiring an L2 necessitates an undue focus on those formulae. Wray (2002) observed that younger children learning their L1 memorize

chunks as unanalyzed units, which facilitates their retrieval. Such phenomenon has also been noticed in both natural and instructed L2 settings (Rehbein, 1987; Schmidt, 1983; Yorio, 1989). It has been put forward that L2 learners acquire formulaic expressions without 'structural dissection' so as to carry out some particular communicative functions. Other experimental studies have evidenced that advanced L2 speakers will at some point of the learning process analyze previously acquired formulaic expressions and deduce rules by themselves to use them creatively (Bolander, 1989; Myles et al 1998; Myles, Mitchel, and Hooper, 1999, cited in Kormos, 2014:158).

It is certain that formulaic language competence has an unquestionable relationship with automatized fluent speech because of chunks' undemanding cognitive retrieval and the fact that it permits speakers to pay more attention to some other aspects of communication such as planning longer stretches of language, which will undoubtedly lead to a natural fluent production despite the real-time constraints. Though they are perceived as important, little research has been carried out with regard to how to teach formulaic expressions in classroom settings. Fortunately enough that a tide of change has been triggered by some renown lay men to incorporate a set of classroom activities that foster the teaching of formulaic language (e.g. Gatbonton and Segalowitz, 2005; Boers et al, 2006; Tagushi,2007; Lindstromberg and Boers,2008). It is worth noting that Gatbonton and Segalowitz approach to the promotion of formulaic sequences was the most relevant, coherent and principled. It came out under the name of ACCESS, which stands for Automatization in Communicative Contexts of Essential Speech Segments. It mainly draws on the previously cited theories of automatization. Gatbonton and Segalowitz (2005) state that so as to ensure a successful presentation of formulaic sequences, some important criteria have to be taken into consideration:

- The activity must remain truly communicative, that is the outcome of the information exchange must be genuinely important to the learner.
- There must be psychological authenticity, that is the activity must ‘allow the learners to experience some of the normal psychological pressures felt by people engaged in real communication’
- The task must oscillate around every-day activities that learners can be part of, for example giving directions, apologizing and negotiating.
- The sequence must be formulaic, that is, it appears with a statistically significant frequency in characteristic contexts with hardly any modification of its form.
- The task-design must allow the learner to repeat the introduced formulas many times over.

(qtd from Pawlak, Klimczak and Majer, 2011:51)

Table 2.8 Gatbon’s 1988 Criteria for Selecting Formulaic Sequences

In a nutshell, Gatbonton (2005) lays emphasis on “creative automatization’ in formal teaching frameworks. He posits that “repetition through meaningful communicative drills of valuable utterances, in a context that originally forces the learner to exhaust substantial attentional resources to achieve the goal, feeds eventually into their automatization” (Ibid). Thus, drilling formulaic language repeatedly leads to its automaticity, which enhances fluency. Numerous drilling activities for promoting formulaicity have been designed by Gatbonton and Segalowitz (2005). The Family Tree is a vivid example of a practice activity where students concentrate on some specific formulaic expressions and keep on repeating them till they get fully automatized. In this drill in particular, learners get engaged in a questioning phase trying to get an answer for this question: How are you related to.....? It is meant to teach students how to talk about their family ancestors using some related patterns to the word ‘family’. It is worth noting that the ACCESS approach along with some other approaches (Klippel, 1985, Gullot, 1999, Folse, 2006, and Roaster, 2010) that integrate fluency teaching to the EFL classroom are of a high utility to the internalization of the necessary lexical knowledge for a fluent speech production especially in the early stages. However, they might not fit in the daily teaching routine because of the fact that they are time-consuming. Besides, teachers’ technical competencies have to be taken into account as it is of a tremendous importance to train them on how to implement this kind of activities in class.

Conclusion

Formulaic sequences including collocations, idioms, etc... have been empirically proven to have a direct impact on how fluently an L2 learner can speak. It is for this reason that both teachers and learners have to be made aware of their significance so as to move up the proficiency ladder and attain a higher level of speaking fluency. Several teaching approaches lend support to the inclusion of lexical collocations into language syllabi. The Lexical Approach is known for the considerable emphasis it places on collocation teaching because of the premise that naturalness or native-like fluency requires the acquisition of a nice big stock of those language patterns which bring a 'native touch' to the already artificial/classroom language of L2 learners. Several types of fluency-based activities have been suggested for teaching collocations, but their use in the EFL classroom is clearly lacking. In order to get the most out of the introduction of collocations, we devised a syllabus that is partly based on the principles of the lexical approach for teaching oral expression to first year students. It remains to see whether its implementation will produce any tangible results in terms fluency enhancement. The third and fourth chapters will be devoted to achieve this goal.

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Introduction

The two previous theoretical chapters emphasize the importance of formulaic language and its relevance to L2 fluency development. A huge number of empirical researches revealed that native-like language proficiency is not exclusively based on a rule-based approach for language processing where individual words are combined to each other to form a chain of utterances for conversational use. Lexicalized phrases were also found to be an intrinsic part of native-speakers' speech as they smoothen the communication process with their easy retrieval due to their ready-made forms, which do not require any combinatory skills or undue monitoring. It is for this reason that we contend that formulaic sequences should be brought into focus so far as the oral expression module is concerned especially for first year students.

This empirical endeavor aims at evaluating the efficacy of a language syllabus that has been founded on some of the main principles of the lexical approach in which collocational expressions are regarded as the cornerstone of language acquisition. This program has been designed to cater for the needs of first-year students at Relizane's University Centre (2016-2017) with regard to their oral skills. Before proceeding to the implementation of the syllabus, we administered a questionnaire to the students and interviewed the teachers in charge of teaching the module of oral expression and those who were not. Thus, we relied on a mixed method. This chapter presents the situation design including the target population to whom the questionnaire has been administered and the one which has been interviewed in addition to the pilot study and the analysis of the resulting data.

Population and Sampling

Two types of population have been involved in the present research: students and teachers. The first sample of participants were about 60 students at the very first place, however, due to some administrative reasons only 39 of them took part in this experiment. Though the lists provided by the administration included more than thirty students for each group in theory, the real number of the enrolled students did not exceed twenty. The remaining enrollees were either transferred to other departments because they never show up or simply indebted students, who were not supposed to attend all classes. The overall number of first year students at the University Centre of Relizane for the academic year 2016-2017 was one hundred and sixty (160), who have been divided to seven groups much to the head of the department's dismay as they could have been grouped into five divisions only. And so the thirty nine subjects represent the whole population of first year students and have been randomly assigned to an experimental and a control group. Twenty students acted as the experimental group while nineteen were set up for the control group. Their ages ranged between 18 and 23 year-old.

Because the number of subjects did not match with the minimum number of participants required for the research study, we had recourse to second year students in hopes to add more validity, but also to establish a comparison between their answers and those of first year students. However, it should be noted that their participation was restricted to the questioning phase only. The targeted participants were thirty three students all aged between 19-22 and having already studied English for nine years. With regard to the teachers who are about seventeen in total, all working at the University Centre of Relizane, we chose only five of them for their direct and indirect involvement with the oral expression module. Three of the chosen participants have already taught the oral expression class and the two others did not. They were mainly and purposively chosen for their unrivalled experience in English teaching as their practical knowledge in the teaching field ranges between twenty and twenty five-years.

The Pilot Study

The selection of a standardized questionnaire and interview methods for collecting data was favored for its convenience and easy preparation and distribution. The self-administered questionnaire was used as a survey instrument to collect statistical data from students. It comprises likert-skale items, yes/no questions, close and open-ended questions which are generally used to collect ‘ facts, activities, level of knowledge, opinions, expectations and aspirations, membership of various groups, and attitudes and perceptions.’ (Siniscalco and Auriat, 2005:4). Before administering the final version of the questionnaire, we adopted a pilot study which is a "small scale version[s], or trial run[s], done in preparation for the major study" (Polit et al., 2001: 467). The main reason behind its utilization lies in the fact that it pre-tests the efficacy and appropriacy of any research instrument (Baker 1994: 182-3). As stated by De Vaus (1993: 54) "Do not take the risk. Pilot test first." To this end, six students participated in the piloting of the questionnaire. We made allowances for their comments so as to reformulate the questionnaire’s questions and make them more accessible.

Administration

The students’ questionnaire was supposed to be administered at the very beginning of the academic year 2016-2017, but due to some administrative problems, lectures and tutorials did not begin till the 15th of November. So we had to wait till the official commencement of courses. During the questionnaire’s proceedings, students were urged to answer the questions with complete honesty and integrity. They were also told that whenever there seemed to be some difficult words, the researcher was ready to clarify them if necessary. However, most of the questions were worded with relative easiness. In addition, we stressed the point that questions should be answered individually without asking for their other classmates’ collaboration. It is for this reason that we made sure that they did not look at each other’s questionnaire sheets so as to copy from their answers. The time allotted to fill out the questionnaire was about thirty minutes (30min). However, students were allowed the privilege of asking for more if they wanted to. In the meantime, teachers’ interviews took place in the staff’s room. Each of them has been questioned individually. Obviously, teachers were allowed to overrun the time limit and were

granted more time to respond to the interview's questions. Due to their different schedules, interviews could not be carried out on a full day blocked. And so they were arranged according to the teachers' timetables.

Students' Questionnaire

The students' questionnaire is the first data gathering tool directed initially to sixty participants, which ended up being only thirty nine. They were first year students all enrolled at the University Centre of Relizane for the academic year 2016-2017, in addition to the thirty three second year students who also took part in this study. The questionnaire's questions were about twenty three, most of which were either of the close or open-ended types. For some questions, the subjects were urged to choose the answers which correspond to them most by ticking the appropriate box. However, other questions required to be answered by expressing personal opinions (see appendix I). The questionnaire comprises four sections: the students' profile, students' background knowledge, students' perceptions of their overall proficiency and students' level of recognition and use of lexical collocations.

Description

Section one: the Students' Profile

This section is devoted to obtaining personal information about students with regard to their age (Q1) and sex (Q2).

Section two: Background Knowledge

In this section students had to provide precise information about the minimum duration of their studies in English so as to determine whether or not their previous learning experience was quite enough to grant them an acceptable command of the English language (Q3). Moreover, students' motivation to study English as a foreign language and pursue a professional career teaching it has also been dealt with in (Q4) and (Q5). In addition, students were supposed to disclose whether or not they have opted for studying English willingly or because they had no choice.

Section three: Student's Perceptions of their Overall Oral Proficiency

This section comprises seven questions all addressing students' attitudes towards their oral skills. The sixth question (Q6) deals with how satisfied students are with their speaking proficiency. Then, comes the seventh question where they ought to specify whether or not they had enough speaking practice in class during high school. In the question that follows (Q8), students were required to provide an approximate statistical estimation of the time spent on reading, grammar, and vocabulary practice. In addition, they had to mention whether they were assigned any homework dealing with the already cited areas of study. Moreover, frequency of stammering during a speaking session or normal conversation was also taken into account in the tenth question. Furthermore, reasons behind this stammering problem were to be identified by students, which could be attributed to either vocabulary deficiency or grammatical inaccuracies. Finally, the impact of a deficient vocabulary was to be highlighted positively or negatively in the last question (Q12).

Section four: Students' Level of Recognition and Use of Lexical Collocations

Because of their pervasiveness and undeniable importance, this section lays emphasis on lexical collocations. It illustrates students' use and ability to recognize lexicalized routines in speaking or writing. It consists of eleven questions. The first question (Q13) investigates whether all students have an Oxford dictionary in their possession. In case they do not have one, they had to designate which kind of dictionary they possessed (Q14). Then, we explored students' frequent use of dictionaries in general (Q15). The sixteenth question hints to lexical collocations in a very smooth way. It introduces them through students' use of dictionaries, where they might be encountered most. Also, we explored whether or not students had an idea about the signification of the term collocation (Q17). If their answers were affirmative, they needed to mention how they knew about them (Q18). Mis-collocations were also considered in this section. Students' ability to combine words with their corresponding collocates was put to the test in (Q19). As a complementary part to this question, students, who admitted having problems with collocations, had to justify their inability to use accurate combinations of words (Q20). The three last questions evaluate students' awareness of the most efficient pedagogical tools for

learning vocabulary (Q21), also indicate their readiness for learning lexical collocations inside and beyond the walls of the classroom (Q22), and finally check whether or not they are aware of the importance of including lexical collocations in the EFL classroom.

Results' Analysis of the Students Questionnaire

Section one: The Students' Profile

Q1. Age..... years old

Age	The experimental group		The control group	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
17	2	10%	1	5.26%
18	12	60%	7	36.84%
19	2	10%	5	26.31%
20	1	5%	3	15.78%
21	2	10%	3	15.78%
22	/	/	/	/
23	1	5%	/	/
Total	20	100%	19	100%

Table 3.1 First Year Students' Age

Age	Number	Percentage
19	11	33.33%
20	13	39.39%
21	6	18.18%
22	2	6.06%
25	1	4%
Total	33	100

Table 3.2 Second Year Students' Age

Tables one and two are a numerical representation of the age of first and second-year students, whose ages range between 18 and 22 years old for “the freshers” and between 19 and 25 years old for “the sophomores”. The highest percentage for both the control and the experimental group goes to 18 and 19 years-

old students, which is the average age at this stage of academic development. When it comes to second year students, almost 40% of them are twenty-year-old. The other age differences can be attributed to the fact that students might have failed at their baccalaureate exam and had to re-sit for it again or simply repeated the year in any of the former grades of compulsory schooling.

Q2. Sex

- a. **Male**
- b. **Female**

Gender	The experimental group		The control group	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Male	8	40%	5	26.31%
Female	12	60%	14	73.68%
Total	20	100%	19	100%

Table 3.3 First Year Students' Gender

Gender	Number	Percentage
Male	10	30.30%
Female	23	69.69%
Total	33	100%

Table 3.4 Second Year Students' Gender

We notice that the number of female students in the experimental group exceeds that of male students by 20% as they represent 60% of the whole population. The same thing applies to the control group where a substantial percentage is attributed to the female population more than 70%. In sum, male students are outnumbered by a considerable margin in both the experimental and the control group. These results simply demonstrate females' interest in literary branches especially the English language. It seems like they have a special penchant for learning foreign languages knowing that they might not all have the same knack for its acquisition. Males, however, tend to be more reluctant about pursuing post-

secondary education to specialize in a foreign language probably because they hate teaching. They are more likely to opt for scientific branches like engineering, computing etc... With regard to second year students, the same phenomenon has been observed within the females' and males' population.

Section Two: Background Knowledge

Q3. The total number of years spent on learning English

Years	The experimental group		The control group	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
08	17	85%	15	78.94%
09	3	15%	4	21.06%
10	/	/	/	/
11	/	/	/	/
12	/	/	/	/
Total	20	100%	19	100%

Table 3.5 First Year Students Learning Experience

Years	Number	Percentage
08	/	/
09	26	78.78%
10	6	18.18%
11	/	/
12	1	3.03%
Total	33	100%

Table 3.6 Second Year Students Learning Experience

Because most students schooling takes over a 13-year span, we found it very important to investigate the number of years spent on learning English during the period of their school enrolment. It does not only contribute to the identification of their exact learning time period, but also sharpens the level differences between them. Both the fifth and sixth tables illustrate that most first and second year students studied English for eight or nine years. The statistics in percentage terms are almost of an approximate equality with a slight difference of six percent for the

experimental and control groups (85%-78.94%) and seven percent for second year students (78.78%). These resulting data reflect the usual time range for students who started learning English since middle-school. The remaining portion who answered differently represents the few students who might have failed in middle or even-high school: fifteen and twenty one percent for the experimental and control groups, and three and eighteen percent for second year students. In brief, we can infer that most subjects are already familiarized with the English language and might have an acceptable academic performance to complete a full-time course in it. However, those who experienced academic failure might have encountered some serious learning problems in any of the compulsory school subjects, but not necessarily in English. It should be noted that these differences are of significant importance when it comes to overall language proficiency and oral performance in particular even though they do not really reflect what students can actually do with the language.

Q4. Did you get into your first choice specialty?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

Alternatives	The experimental group		The control group	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Positive answers	14	70%	15	78.94%
Negative answers	6	30%	4	21.05%
Total	20	100%	19	100%

Table 3.7 First Year Students First Choice Specialty

Alternatives	Number	Percentage
Positive answers	25	75.75%
Negative answers	8	24.24 %
Total	33	100%

Table 3.8 Second Year Students First Choice Specialty

Students' motivation to learn English is quite obvious from the high number of positive answers. In fact, seventy and seventy eight percent from the experimental and control groups have been oriented towards their first choice specialty which is none other than the English language. A large percentage 75% has also been

observed among second year students too. Those who answered negatively are victims of a systematic mis-orientation due to their low averages or have been simply forced to opt for studying English under their parents' pressure, which is very common among students whose parents are former English teachers.

Q5. Is English your first choice specialty?

Alternatives	The experimental group		The control group	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Positive answers	15	75%	12	63.15%
Negative answers	5	25%	7	36.84%
Total	20	100%	19	100%

Table 3.9 English as First Year Students First Choice Specialty

Alternatives	Number	Percentage
Positive answers	24	72.72%
Negative answers	9	24.24 %
Total	33	100%

Table 3.10 English as Second Year Students First Choice Specialty

This question is but a way of getting a confirmation of students' real choice. We thought that we would get identical responses and hence equal statistical data, but we have been completely misled since four of the subjects answered positively in the previous question and then responded negatively with regard to whether or not English was their first choice specialty. This can be explained by the fact that they might have been given no other alternative but to place English as top of the list in the "Student Application for Enrollment to the Choice Specialty" due to their insufficient average. To put this in other words, they chose English, but it was not really the field of study they wished to specialize in.

Section Three: Students' Perceptions of their Overall Oral Proficiency Q6.

How would you describe your speaking skills?

- a. Excellent
- b. Above average
- c. Average
- d. Minimal
- E. Inadequate

Ratings	The experimental group		The control group	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Excellent	1	5%	/	/
Above average	3	15%	2	10.52%
Average	13	65%	15	78.94%
Minimal	4	20%	2	10.52%
Inadequate	/	/	/	/
Total	20	100%	19	100%

Table 3.11 First Year Students Description of their Fluency Level

Ratings	Number	Percentage
Excellent	4	12.12%
Above average	6	18.18%
Average	16	48.48%
Minimal	6	18.18%
Inadequate	1	3.03%
Total	33	100%

Table 3.12 Second Year Students Description of their Fluency Level

While the majority of students in the control group described their speech delivery as being average (78.78%), only half of the population of the experimental group viewed their fluency level as such. This means that most students are not really satisfied with their speaking skill and admit in a way or another not to be able to use the language skillfully. These results have also been observed among second year

students. Indeed, 48.48% of the subjects assessed their language proficiency as average. Interestingly, one student among the experimental group and four second year students viewed themselves as excellent speakers hinting that they might have attained a high level of language proficiency. This most often applies to students who have been ranked top of their classes but also to those who already have a special knack for speaking without necessarily being classified among the best. However, it is worth noting that this category of students is quite unique and exceptional as it is quite uncommon to find more than three or four students per class demonstrating an outstanding ability to use the language. Regarding the remaining results, only a few pretended having a fluency level that goes beyond the average: three and two percent for the experimental and control groups and six percent for second year students. Those who identified themselves as being non-fluent represent the minority of the sample population. These latter might have some serious stuttering problems the reason why they feel like they are lagging behind their other classmates.

Q8. Did you use to have a formally-scheduled time for speaking practice in high-school?

Alternatives	The experimental group		The control group	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Positive answers	8	40%	6	31.57%
Negative answers	12	60%	13	68.42%
Total	20	100%	19	100%

Table 3.13 First Year Students' Time Allotted for Speaking Practice in High School

Alternatives	Number	Percentage
Positive answers	13	39.39%
Negative answers	20	60.60%
Total	33	100%

Table 3.14 Second Year Students' Time Allotted for Speaking Practice in High School

More than half of the subjects from both the experimental and control groups in addition to second year students admitted not having a formally-scheduled time for speaking practice in the secondary school. Speaking practice at this stage in general involves short and in some other times longer turns where learners provide answers for some reading comprehension questions, grammar and vocabulary activities, which is not always the best option to guarantee a good oral practice of the target language for all learners. Those who answered positively, however, might have thought about those occasional speaking activities where they act out a dialogue in front of their other classmates revolving around some specific topic or targeting a given language function such as making suggestions etc... also, presenting final projects at the end of each unit. Despite their usefulness for practicing the language orally, the contribution of these communication activities remains very limited as they are used occasionally. In fact, the secondary school curriculum including that of first, second and third year students does not attach too much importance to speaking practice due to the nature of the educational system which is exam-oriented. It is only at a university level that they have special classes for speaking practice.

Q8: In a typical school week from your previous learning experience, what percentage of class time was devoted to the following activities?

- Reading activities
- Grammar activities
- Vocabulary activities

First Year Students

Tables 3.15 Typical Structures of a Standard Class Time Period in High School for First Year Students

Table Fifteen (1): Reading Activities

Classroom Activities represented in Percentage Fractions	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
10%	2	10%	1	5.26%
20%	1	5%	2	10.52%
30%				
40%	6	30%	10	52.63%
50%	8	40%	5	26.31%
60%				

70%	3	15%	1	5.26%
80%				
90%				
100%				
Total	20	100%	19	100%

Table Fifteen (2): Grammar Activities

Classroom Activities in Percentage Fractions	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	Number	percentage	Number	Percentage
Grammar Activities				
10%	1	5%		
20%	2	10%	3	15.78%
30%				
40%	7	35%	11	57.89%
50%	10	50%	6	31.57%
60%				
70%				
80%				
90%				
100%				
Total	20	100%	19	100%

Table Fifteen (3): Vocabulary Activities

Classroom Activities in Percentage Fractions	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Vocabulary Activities				
10%			10	52.63%
20%	17	85%		
30%			4	21.05%
40%	1	5%	3	15.78%
50%	2	10%	2	10.52%
60%				
70%				
80%				
90%				
100%				
Total	20	100%	19	100%

Second Year Students

**Tables 3.16 Typical Structures of a Standard Class Time Period in High School
for Second Year Students**

Reading Classroom Activities represented in Percentage Fractions	Number	Percentage
10%	4	12.12%
20%	10	30.30%
30%	6	18.18%
40%	3	9.09%
50%	8	24.24%
60%	2	6.06%
70%		
80%		
90%		
Total	33	100%

Table Sixteen (1): Reading Activities

Grammar Classroom Activities represented in Percentage Fractions	Number	Percentage
10%		
20%		
30%	8	24.24%
40%	11	33.33%
50%	7	21.21%
60%		
70%	5	15.15%
80%	3	9.09%
90%		
Total	33	100%

Table Sixteen (2): Grammar Activities

Vocabulary Classroom Activities represented in Percentage Fractions	Number	Percentage
10%	14	42.42%
20%	12	36.36%
30%	6	18.18%
40%	1	3.03%
50%		
60%		
70%		
80%		
90%		
Total	33	100%

Table Sixteen (3): Vocabulary Activities

The results of this question in particular are a vivid proof that the EFL classroom is still under the monopoly of form-based teaching where reading and grammar practice are given much priority than the remaining skills. 40 and 50% among first year students, for instance, replied that both reading and grammar activities were omnipresent in weekly classes. They spend most of their time practicing grammatical structures and reading texts, which comes as no surprise due to the fact that students' academic evaluation rests on none other than the writing skill. Considering students' answers with regard to vocabulary practice, it seems like it has a below-the-radar existence when compared to the other types of drilling. The majority of students' responses from the experimental group (85%) reveal that vocabulary activities represent less than a quarter of what they usually do in class. Half of the control group subjects also relegate vocabulary to the periphery of their classroom routines by attributing only 10% to its practice. These statistical data correspond to those of second year students' answers, which also demonstrate the over-emphasis of reading and grammar at the expense of vocabulary. In fact, despite the apparent statistical discrepancy, the highest percentage values are associated with reading and grammar activities: up to 24% for the former and 33.33 % for the latter.

Q9. Did your former teachers give you out assignments involving any of the following?

- a. Vocabulary Practice
- b. Grammar Practice
- c. Reading Practice
- d. All of the above choices

Options	The experimental group		The control group	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Voc-practice	2	10%	1	5.26%
Gram-practice	10	50%	8	42.10%
Read-practice	2	10%	3	15.78%
All of them	6	30%	7	36.84%
Total	20	100%	19	100%

Table 3.17 Assignment Types at a High School Level according to First Year Students

Options	Number	Percentage
Voc-practice	4	12.12%
Gram-practice	17	51.51%
Read-practice	1	3.03%
All of them	12	36.36%
Total	33	100%

Table 3.18 Assignment Types at a High School Level according to Second Year Students

Of the 20 surveyed respondents from the experimental group, only 10% claimed being handed out vocabulary assignments to complete at home while 50% reported that they were assigned grammar tasks. Similarly, the control group's results indicate that there seems to be a tendency among high school practitioners to favor grammar tasks over other language components as 42.10% of the study population confirmed this. The remaining students' responses range between those who have opted for reading practice 15.78%, vocabulary practice 5.26% or all of the suggested options. With a proportion of 51.51%, grammar activities seem to hold a disproportionate share of homework assignments according to second year students by contrast to vocabulary and reading. This indicates that grammar practice occupies a dominant position within and beyond the walls of the classroom.

Q10. How often do you stammer when you are asked to express yourself orally?

- a. Very often
- b. Often
- c. Rarely

Responses	The experimental group		The control group	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Very often	3	15%	1	5.26%
Often	12	60%	14	73.68%
Rarely	5	25%	4	21.05%
Total	20	100%	19	100%

Table 3.19 The Scale of First Year Students' Encountered Problems in Oral Expression

Responses	Number	Percentage
Very often	5	15.15%
Often	18	54.54%
Rarely	10	30.30%
Total	33	100%

Table 3.20 The Scale of Second Year Students' Encountered Problems in Oral Expression

The two tables above indicate that a high proportion among first and second year students find it difficult to express themselves. A substantial majority from the control group 73.68% stated that they spoke with a stutter quite often. The experimental group has also provided a conclusive answer regarding their speech delivery as 60% stated to have stammering problems. Some other students from both groups (25%, 21.05%) admitted to have rare episodes of stuttering, which meant that they could speak with a high level of fluency most of the time. Likewise, more than half of the second year students (54.54%) had similar problems every time they had to speak. These findings demonstrate the seriousness of students' speaking problems to which all possible pedagogical remedies have to be exhausted by teachers so as to attain a visible improvement. Students' awareness of their speaking problems could be the starting point for the implementation of teaching techniques/ strategies that can adapt to their deficiencies. Be it anxiety, lack of vocabulary, or all kinds of inaccuracies including grammar and pronunciation, these phenomena have a direct impact on students' communicative skills. It is for this reason that teachers must make every endeavor to help them brave the odds so as to overcome their speaking problems by instilling the credo of "anything is possible when you work hard" (Darling, D, 2015).

Q11. In what cases is it very hard for you to speak smoothly?

- a. When you fall short of vocabulary
- b. When you fail to generate grammatically correct sentences
- c. Both cases

	The experimental group		The control group	
Possible options	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Lack of vocabulary	13	65%	10	52.63%
Grammar problems	6	30%	4	21.05%
Both cases	1	5%	5	26.31%
Total	20	100%	19	100%

Table 3.21 First Year Students Justification for their Speaking Problems

Possible options	Number	Percentage
Lack of vocabulary	14	42.42%
Grammar problems	10	30.30%
Both cases	9	27.27%
Total	33	100%

Table 3.22 First Year Students Justification for their Speaking Problems

The statistical analysis of the findings indicates that there is a very strong correlation between students' speaking problems and lack of vocabulary. More than 52% from the control group estimated that the main reason why they faced difficulties in maintaining a continuous flow of speech with a normal rate of interruptions such as interjections, grammatical reformulations due to online monitoring is their deficient vocabulary. Similar results were found among the experimental group and second year students with 65% for the former and 42.42% for the latter. Some other students, however, viewed that their stuttering problems were the direct result of their inability to produce grammatically correct utterances, which in one way or another also impacts students' confidence to engage in classroom conversations and debates. The minority that remains opted for the last item where both lack of vocabulary and grammar are seen as initiating factors to students' disfluency issues. These results reveal the extent to which the acquisition of a large vocabulary is important to cope with familiar and unfamiliar topics. Considering students' previous learning experiences, it is no accident that they have a deficient lexical competence. That is why it is to the benefit of both students and teachers to foster vocabulary learning by incorporating the appropriate techniques that can yield satisfactory results.

Q12. Do you think that lack of vocabulary affects your oral proficiency?

- a. Yes
- b. No

	Experimental Group		Control Group	
Options	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Yes	16	80%	13	68.42%
No	4	20%	6	31.57 %
Total	20	100%	19	100%

Table 3.23 The Potential Impact of Lexical Deficiency on First Year Students' Oral Skills

Options	Number	Percentage
Yes	31	93.93%
No	2	6.06%
Total	33	100%

Table 3.24 The Potential Impact of Lexical Deficiency on Second Year Students' Oral Skills

80% and 68.42% among the totality of the experimental and control groups confirmed that lack of vocabulary had a devastating effect on their oral proficiency; only 20% and 31.57% vehemently denied its potential impact. This shows that learners appear to be perfectly aware of the importance of vocabulary. This also reflects the continuous negligence of vocabulary teaching during their previous learning experience. If we refer to secondary school course books, we will find out that vocabulary is quite peripheral in comparison with the remaining language components such as grammar, which explains why they have such a deficient lexical competence. Likewise, the big majority of the informants from second year students (93.93%) confirmed that their oral proficiency was overwhelmingly influenced by lack of vocabulary. Such a phenomenon could be associated with the ineffectual teaching practices adopted during the entirety of their grade school years, which remained the same and did not change in spite of the implementation contemporary teaching approach.

Section Four: Students' Level of Recognition and use of Lexical

Collocations

Q13. Do you have an Oxford dictionary?

- a. Yes
- b. No

Options	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Yes	11	55%	13	68.42%
No	9	45%	6	31.57%
Total	20	100%	19	100%

Table 3.25 First Year Students' Reliance on an Oxford Dictionary

Options	Number	Percentage
Yes	15	45.45%
No	18	54.54%
Total	33	100%

Table 3.26 Second Year Students Reliance on an Oxford Dictionary

More than half of the research population from the experimental group replied positively to this question confirming that they had an Oxford dictionary in their possession. The control group for its part surpassed the experimental group with 13% as 68.42 stated having such dictionary. It is evident that a considerable number of students have a heightened awareness of the importance of possessing an English-English encyclopedia be it an Oxford or a Cambridge dictionary since they provide very simple explanations and sentence examples that can be easily assimilated by English learners in addition to a huge number of the most commonly used collocations and idioms by native speakers.

Q14. If no, what kind of dictionary do you have?

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

Options	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
English-English				
English- Arabic	13	65%	10	52.63%
English-French	3	15%	1	5.26%
Total	20	75%	19	58%

Table.3.27 First Year Students Most Coveted Dictionaries for Personal Use

Options	Number	Percentage
English-English	2	6.06%
English- Arabic	11	33.33%
English-French	5	15.15%
Total	33	54.54%

Table.3.28 Second Year Students Most Coveted Dictionaries for Personal Use

With regard to this question, students have opted for more than one option. This also concerns those who admitted having an Oxford dictionary in the previous question because the number of answers exceeded that of our target respondents i.e. those who replied negatively. Out of the total number of students, 65% and 52.63% from the experimental and control groups confirmed that they had recourse to an English-Arabic dictionary whenever they wanted to look up a word. This unwise choice can be justified by their cheap price as they are less expensive than English-English dictionaries, but also by their very concise explanations providing Arabic equivalents which seems more attractive to those who face a hard time understanding English words on their own. Other students representing the minority (15% and 5.26% from the experimental and control groups), on the other hand, possessed an English-French dictionary, which is quite uncommon among English students due to the fact that a sizeable majority of them does not have a good grip of the French language especially at the level of the University Centre of Ahmed Zabana (Relizane). Similar results have also been found amongst second year students with

English-Arabic dictionaries use ranking first (33.33%) and English-French second (15.15%). Only 6.06% confessed owning an English-English dictionary.

Q15. How frequently do you use it?

- a. Always
- b. Sometimes
- c. Rarely
- d. Never

Options	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Always	6	30%	4	21.05%
Sometimes	12	60%	10	52.63%
Rarely	2	10%	5	26.31%
Never				
Total	20	100%	19	100%

Table.3.29 Frequency Range of Dictionary Use among First Year Students

Options	Number	Percentage
Always	7	21.21%
Sometimes	21	63.63%
Rarely	3	9.09%
Never	2	6.06%
Total	33	100%

Table.3.30 Frequency Range of Dictionary Use among Second Year Students

The data in the tables above show that more than half of the subjects consulted a dictionary for checking words' usage and pronunciation. 60% of the students in the experimental group confirmed that they frequently used a dictionary. The control group respondents also proclaimed their frequent use of dictionaries with 52%. The remaining students were divided between those who rarely cast a look at a dictionary (10% and 26.31% from the experimental and control groups), which hints to the fact

that they might depend on phone applications like most people of their age as they are more convenient in terms of weight and speed. But there are also the lazy subjects who check their dictionaries once in a while probably at the urge of their teachers or driven by curiosity for one particular word that they might have heard in a song or any other resource. Students using dictionaries on a daily basis represent a quarter of the totality of the study population (30% and 21 %). What characterizes them is that they do not completely depend on their teachers' content and pedagogical knowledge. They rather set out on their own quest for some new vocabulary which will have a direct impact on their ability to write and speak the target language. This applies especially to high-performing students whose lust for learning is simply unquenchable. Second year students findings are in a good accordance with previous data. However, surprisingly 6.06% of them stated not using any kind of dictionary, which is detrimental to the acquisition of any foreign language.

Q16. When you look up a word, do you pay more attention to

- a. Its definition
- b. Its phonetic transcription
- c. The words that collocate with it

Options	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Its definition	20	100%	19	100%
Its transcription	5	25%	6	31.57%
Its collocants				
Total	20	100%	19	100%

Table.3.31 First Year Students Priorities in Word Entries

Options	Number	Percentage
Its definition	33	100%
Its transcription	4	12.12%
Its collocants		
Total	33	100%

Table.3.32 Second Year Students Priorities in Word Entries

The majority of our informants declared that the only thing that mattered whenever they had to look up a word in a dictionary was its definition. They were neither interested in its most commonly used collocations nor in the way it was pronounced. Thus, all of the experimental and control groups in addition to second year students opted equally for the first option. Such a fact is quite understandable for first year students who got accustomed starting from high school to focus mainly on words' definitions. It is only when they manage to make their way through college that they can shift focus to some other important language components such as collocations and pronunciation. However, when it comes to second year students things differ tremendously as they should have normally outgrown such a practice. Interestingly, a few students declared not only checking words' definitions, but also their phonetic transcription, which should be the most accepted norm among foreign language learners. Unfortunately, no student from our research sample paid special attention to how words combine with each other. This demonstrates the extent to which language collocations are neglected by both students and teachers.

Q17. Do you know what a collocation is?

- a. Yes
- b. No

Options	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Yes	5	25%	3	15.78%
No	15	75%	16	84.21%
Total	20	100%	19	100%

Table.3.33 First Year Students Knowledge of Collocations

Options	Number	Percentage
Yes	7	21.21%
No	26	78.78%
Total	33	100%

Table.3.34 Second Year Students Knowledge of Collocations

We asked this question so as to find out whether students had any background knowledge about collocations. The resulting findings exhibit the evidence that only few students know about collocations. Accordingly, while 75% of the informants from the experimental group admitted their ignorance and lack of understanding of collocations, only 25% stated that they knew about them. Similar results have been found among the control group as the greatest majority of its population (84.21%) indicated that they had no prior knowledge of word combinations. The remaining minority (15.78%), however, confirmed its familiarity with the term. This fact is the direct result of the individualistic approach that is used for teaching vocabulary and imposed by education authorities in high school. Indeed, vocabulary is taught as individual words that are usually mixed up together so as to build up an endless number of sentences. Students at that stage learn how to construct and deconstruct grammatical structures, but their attention is never drawn to the rules of combinability of words in general.

The most probable consequences that might ensue from such neglect are students' inability to identify which words collocate with each other, but also "an artificial variety of both spoken and written English". We can confidently say that without bringing students' awareness to language collocations, they will never be able to acquire that native-like touch and overcome their handicap of improper communication. It is thus necessary to incorporate collocations or idiomatic expressions in general during at least their very first year at the university. Unexpectedly, a great number of second year students (78.78%) confessed that they had no clue of what collocations are, the ones who pretended knowing them are estimated to (21.21 %). Again these results are another indicator of the inadequacy of the adopted teaching strategies as far as the module of oral expression is concerned.

Normally, they should have been instructed by their former teachers about collocations and be made aware of their importance, which leaves much to be desired.

Q.18 If yes, how do you know?

Answers to this question have been chosen carefully and can be classified into three main blocs as shown in the table below. (Most of the students' writing mistakes have been corrected by the researcher to avoid any kind of misunderstanding).

Resources	Informants	Students' Answers
Teachers	Experimental Group	<p>Student (A) Our teacher of written expression told us about them.</p> <p>Student (B) My teacher of oral expression told me that not all words can be randomly combined with each other. For instance, It is unacceptable to say 'do a mistake' in English. The correct combination is rather 'make a mistake'.</p>
	Control Group	Student (A) My written expression teacher taught us that some words are always seen together. And that's what collocations are about.
Classmates	Experimental Group	Student (A) One of my hard-working classmates explained this new word to me. It was the very first time I heard about it.
	Control Group	Student (A) A friend of mine told me that some word combinations were possible while others were not.
Dictionary	Experimental Group	<p>Student (A) I read it somewhere and did not understand its meaning, so I decided to look it up in a dictionary.</p> <p>Students (B) Let's say that I came across this new word while I was consulting my dictionary, and I could not simply skip it.</p>
	Control Group	Students (A) Well, I searched for it in a dictionary. Also, a friend of mine told me about it.

Table.3.35 First Year Students Replies with regard to their knowledge of Collocations

Resources	Students' Answers
Teachers	<p>Student A: One of our former teachers explained to us what the term collocation meant. It was pretty weird because we deal with those combinations all the time, but we were barely aware of their existence.</p> <p>Student (B): I heard the term for the very first time during the lecture of grammar. Our teacher used the word 'rain' and its collocant 'heavy' as an example so as to explain it.</p>
Classmates	<p>Student A: My roommate, a third year English student, brought my attention to those expressions. I have already learnt plenty of them, and I am very eager to learn more even though more is never enough.</p>
Dictionary	<p>Student (A): I found its definition in a dictionary a year ago. Since then I am trying to memorize as many collocations as possible.</p> <p>Student B: I was surfing the web as usual and ran into an expression that caught my attention. It turned out to be a collocation.</p> <p>Student (C): I looked it up in a dictionary.</p> <p>Student (D): I got its meaning from a dictionary.</p>

Table.3.36 Second Year Students Replies with regard to their Knowledge of Collocations

It appears that most of the students who confirmed their familiarization with the term collocation have picked it up from their former teachers or classmates, not forgetting those who learnt it by themselves. But being familiarized with the term does not necessarily imply that they know how to use the different types of English collocations. In this case, teachers are left to decide on how to approach this issue.

Q19. Do you make mis-collocations?

- a. Yes
- b. No

Options	Experimental group		Control group	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Yes	17	85%	13	68.42%
No	3	15%	6	31.57%
Total	20	100%	19	100%

Table.3.37 First Year Students Self-Evaluation in terms of Collocation Use

Options	Number	Percentage
Yes	28	84.84%
No	5	15.15%
Total	33	100%

Table.3.38 Second Year Students Self-Evaluation in terms of Collocation Use

From the obtained findings, it is noted that a great majority of first year students encounter acute problems with collocations and cannot use them properly (85% from the experimental group and 68.42% from the control group). The remaining minority, unexpectedly, admitted not making any kind of mis-collocations, which is statistically inadmissible. Because whether we like it or not, even the most advanced students who have furthered their postgraduate studies are beset with such a problem despite their ‘so called’ high level of fluency. The truth of the matter is that collocations are unpredictable and do not make sense especially for non-native learners, which makes them difficult to be learnt. Many students rely on their intuition or their ‘six sense’ to combine words with each other without being aware of the dire consequences that might ensue from this. They have already gotten accustomed to do so in high school and came away with the perception that words can be randomly combined. To address this issue, teachers must take matters into their own hands by directing their students’ attention to the idiomatic nature of the English language. By doing so, students will be more wary about how to use words

and their collocates. Besides, they will gain more autonomy and be eager to learn as many collocations as possible depending on their memory storage capacity.

Q20. If yes, is it because

- a. You make translations from Arabic to English
- b. You make translations from French to English
- c. You don't know

Justifications	Experimental group		Control group	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Translations from Arabic to English	11	55%	9	47.36%
Translations from French to English	2	10%	1	10.52%
Unknown	4	20%	3	15.78%
Total	17	85%	13	73.66%

Table.3.39 First Year Students Justifications of their Mis-collocations

Justifications	Number	Percentage
Translations from Arabic to English	19	57.57%
Translations from French to English	3	9.09%
Unknown	6	18.18
Total	28	84.84%

Table.3.40 Second Year Students Justifications of their Mis-collocations

Three options were provided to the students so as to answer this question. Out of the totality of the subjects who stated making mis-collocations, 55% and 47.36% along with 57.57% set forth that the main reason for their misuse of word combinations was their undue reliance on their mother tongue equivalent expressions that they directly translated into English, thinking that they might match while they did not. Representing the greatest minority, only 10% and 10.52% from the experimental and control groups in addition to 18.18% from second year students argued that they were unable to justify their inability to use the collocations of the

language in the right way. Some other respondents viewed that translation from French to English was the reason behind their mis-collocations.

Q21. How much practical vocabulary have you gained from your previous experience?

- a. A great deal
- b. Some
- c. None

Options	Experimental group		Control group	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
A great deal	12	60%	10	52.63%
Some	8	40%	9	47.36%
None				
Total	20	100%	19	100%

Table.3.41 First Year Students Approximate Estimate of their Vocabulary Size

Justifications	Number	Percentage
A great deal	3	09.09%
Some	30	90.90%
None		
Total	33	100%

Table.3.42 Second Year Students Approximate Estimate of their Vocabulary Size

The aim behind this question is to prompt students to provide an approximate evaluation of the vocabulary they have acquired during the last eight years. The greatest majority of our first year respondents stated that they have learnt plenty of vocabulary from their previous learning experiences (60% from the experimental group and 52.63 % from the control group). Some others (40% and 47.36%), however, expressed their dissatisfaction with their actual lexical repertory by specifying that they have acquired some vocabulary only. The same thing goes for second year students of whom more than 90% admitted not having acquired enough vocabulary. These results show the extent to which vocabulary learning is still

berated in spite of the recent curricular reforms where teachers have been demoted from being the only source of knowledge and whose interference has been relegated to a secondary role. In fact, learners took on new responsibilities with regard to their learning, but their academic level in general seems to stagnate somehow as they do not furnish enough efforts to achieve a noticeable improvement.

There is a kernel of truth that the already implemented programs in both middle and high schools are rich in vocabulary, but it seems like that more attention has to be directed to how to automatize that vocabulary, because incidental learning in addition to occasional practice are not enough to build and enrich the students' lexicon. It is the teachers' responsibility to raise students' awareness about the fact that learning vocabulary should not be confined to the classroom only, and that they should rely on themselves so as to acquire more and more words.

Q22. Do you think that new vocabulary should be learnt through?

- a. Traditional vocabulary lists of isolated words
- b. Lists of common and appropriate collocates
- c. Both

Options	Experimental group		Control group	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Traditional Vocabulary lists	10	50%	10	52.63%
Lists of appropriate collocates	4	20%	6	31.57%
Both	6	30%	3	15.78%
Total	20	100%	19	100%

Table.3.43 First Year Students' Advisable Pedagogical Tools for Learning Vocabulary

Justifications	Number	Percentage
Traditional Vocabulary Lists	11	33.33%
Lists of Appropriate Collocates	15	45.45%
Both	7	21.21%
Total	33	100%

Table.3.44 Second Year Students' Advisable Pedagogical Tools for Learning Vocabulary

With regard to this question, students' points of view diverged concerning the two first choices; however, some of them converged by opting for both possibilities. Half of our first year respondents from the experimental and control groups argued that traditional vocabulary lists are well-advised to acquire newer vocabulary as they provide dozens of ready to use words which can be easily mixed up to formulate an unlimited number of sentences. Their attachment to this technique in particular is partly due to the fact that students grew to believe that there is no better way for vocabulary acquisition than an adjusted and a detailed inventory of the most necessary lexis. Meanwhile, some other students were in favor of the second choice. They estimated that they had a special preference for lists of collocates, which by contrast to the traditional ones introduce ready-made expressions to be used instantly without being obliged to check on the rules of combinability.

Besides, another advantage of using those lists lies in their collocational accuracy. To put this in other words, collocations are selected from a wide variety of possible expressions from native-speech, which minimizes the risk of collocational inaccuracies and maximizes students' chances to sound like natives and enhance their fluency level. Interestingly, 30% and almost 16% from both the experimental and control groups expressed their inclination for both types of lists. According to them, a fusion of traditional vocabulary lists and those based on collocations is more advantageous than when used individually. They can work on both and get the most out of them. Second year students leaned more towards lists of collocates than the traditional ones as they have been made aware of their importance and advantages (More than 44 %). But a few of them admitted to prefer using both types of lists.

Q23. Would you welcome the idea of spending much of your in-class speaking practice time on learning lexical collocations?

- a. Yes
- b. No

Options	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Yes	14	70%	12	63.15%
No	6	30%	7	36.84%
Total	20	100%	19	100%

Table.3.45 First Year Students Acceptance of Collocation Practice Oriented Classes

Options	Number	Percentage
Yes	25	75.75%
No	9	25.25%
Total	33	100%

Table.3.46 Second Year Students Acceptance of Collocation Practice Oriented Classes

The greatest majority from the experimental and control groups demonstrated their openness to embark on new learning experiences where unusual practices were at the centre of classroom activities. Indeed, 70% along with 63% had positive views with regard to spending much time on collocation learning during the oral expression class. This means that they were more eager than ever to be shown the ropes of how to use collocations, which have always been regarded as a neglect phenomenon of the target language. With 75% of positive answers, second year students also shared the same perspective and indicated their readiness for learning collocations. Only a small minority from both first and second year subjects (30%, 36%, 25%) were mortified at the thought of being continuously confronted to newer collocations. This reticence could be justified by their unfamiliarity with language combinations in general. Despite their negative viewpoints, these students should be encouraged to focus more on lexical collocations due to the native-like flavor that they provide to one's spoken and written discourse.

Q24. In your opinion, is it necessary to have a good stock of lexical collocations? Please say why?

Because of their limited knowledge about lexical collocations, most of our respondents did not answer this question. Those who did revealed that having a good stock of lexical collocations was more than necessary if both accuracy and fluency

are to be targeted. Based on their own learning experiences, they specified that they usually overran the time limit for speaking due to their confused knowledge about words and their corresponding collocants. Though they do not suffer from any debilitating speech impediment, it seems like they have one every time they are required to speak. It is quite obvious that triggering factors vary from one student to another as there are those who cannot contend with stress and time pressure despite their good fluency level, but also those having a major deficiency in terms of pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar. The acquisition of lexical collocations can somehow minimize the devastating consequences of such deficiencies by providing grammatically and conventionally correct combinations that can be retrieved as wholes, which reduces the burden of instant monitoring. Here are some of our respondents' answers which reflect their personal point of view:

1. Experimental group

Student A: Absolutely, because when you have a good stock of lexical collocations, you do not face as many speaking problems as when you do not have any.

Student B: Yes, it is necessary to have a good stock of lexical collocations because it will help us to improve our English and be able to speak and write without difficulties.

Student C: Yes, It is of a tremendous importance to amass an unlimited number of collocations so as to attain a high level of fluency.

Student E: In my opinion, it is necessary to have a good stock of lexical collocations because they spare us of the trouble of making too many mistakes.

Student F: Yes, it is necessary. Because when we have a good stock of lexical collocations, we can speak in front of our classmates and write good paragraphs without mistakes.

2. The Control Group

Student A: Yes, for sure. It is very necessary to have a good stock of lexical collocations because it can contribute in improving our speaking skill but also writing.

Student B: Yes, it is, for the simple reason that they permit students to have a rich and varied vocabulary to talk with.

Student C: Yes, it is very essential to have them so as to speak appropriately and write correct paragraphs and essays without making mistakes.

Student E: Yes, it is. Having a good stock of lexical collocations helps us to express one's ideas spontaneously and in a satisfactory way without having to show any special concern about mistakes. Native speakers' speech is full of those expressions, and so if we aspire to sound like natives then we have to learn them as long as our memory capacity is still intact and undiminished.

Student F: As for my part, learning lexical collocations is as important as when you learn grammar and some other language components because they are an intrinsic part of native speech. However, they should not be prioritized that much and be the only centre of attention in the class of oral expression. There has to be a sort of balance.

Second-year students

Student A: In my perspective, having a good stock of lexical collocations is crucial for learning any kind of foreign language and not only English. It does not only promote language efficiency but also improves our academic writing skills.

Student B: Yes, it is necessary to have a good stock of lexical collocations so as to strike a balance between our knowledge of grammar and vocabulary in general. Many students including myself give too much focus to grammar, which is ill-advised. Vocabulary be it individual words, fixed or semi-fixed expressions is the equipment without which it is impossible to get through. Knowing the rules of grammar does not necessarily imply that we as students are going to be able to construct grammatically correct sentences under any circumstances. Collocations come to our rescue when our minds go completely blank and feel like the world in our heads has been thrown into complete chaos. It happens to me most of the time especially during evaluation tests.

Student C: In my opinion, it is very important to have good background knowledge of lexical collocations so as to avoid making dreadful mistakes while speaking or writing.

Student E: For me, it is necessary to have a good stock of lexical collocations for several reasons. First, we do not have to worry about whether the words we would like to use are combinable or not since most collocations bear a logical relationship

that only natives can decipher. All we have to do is to make sure that the selected collocation has been employed in its corresponding context. Besides, just like single words, they are easy to learn because they have to be memorized as a whole. In addition, using a diversity of collocations in speaking makes us sound more fluent and more like a native. This will not only rocket our self-confidence in front of our teachers and classmates alike, but will also strengthen our resolve to achieve higher and higher levels of language fluency.

General Summary and Synthesis

The population under study initially consisted of 60 first year students intended to be divided equally into a control and experimental groups. Due to some administrative issues, their number has dropped to 39 only the reason for which we had to question another group from second year students so as to handle the missing data. As a result, the total number of our respondents has grown from (39) to about (72). All of them were enrolled in the University Centre of Relizane during the academic year 2016-2017 and under our supervision. The experimental group consisted of 20 subjects representing 27.77% of the total number of the research population while the control group was made up of nineteen subjects (26.38%). The remaining thirty three were all second year students (45%). Despite their different levels, the majority of our informants were remarkably homogeneous in terms of age, motivation, language learning previous experiences and speaking level. Thus, we can say that our research sample is representative of the population.

Furthermore, the interpretation of the questionnaires results led us to the conclusion that half of our students have given up their Oxford dictionaries for the sake of their phone applications, which are more convenient as they are easy to use and carry by contrast to an ordinary dictionary. However, even though there is a kernel of truth that phone applications are pretty useful and more interesting especially that most of them are equipped with an audio record of how to pronounce the word to be looked up, dictionaries will never cease to exist despite their gradual dismissal. Besides, some other students still recognize their utility by having several dictionaries in their possession. With regard to the top dictionary in use, students did

not rely mainly on English-English dictionaries, but also on the Arabic- English and French-English types. But these latter are not as commonly used as Oxford dictionaries given that most students do not have a good grip of the French language. In addition, most teachers warn their students to use Arabic-English dictionaries due to the conflictual meanings that they might provide.

Also, according to the reported results, most of our informants including those from the experimental and control groups, added to second year students paid more attention to a word's definition rather than its pronunciation or collocants. Only a few of them were barely attentive to how words are pronounced or which words they might collocate with. Moreover, a great minority of students (75 from the experimental group, 85 from the control group and 79 from second year students) knew nothing about collocations. They never heard about them before most probably because of their previous learning experiences. Such a fact must be taken with utmost seriousness by teachers especially that even second year students had no background knowledge about collocations. Students' awareness of their importance should be raised by directing their attention to the benefits they might get from learning more about them. Concerning miscollocations, the greatest majority of our informants admitted to face some serious problems with words and their potential collocants since they had no clue of their existence, which has a direct impact on their oral performances. Among the triggering factors of students' inability to use accurate combinations of words is their mother tongue interference or translation from Arabic to English.

In addition, most of our subjects pointed out to their dissatisfaction with their lexical repertory. They were simply aware that their vocabulary was not enough sufficient to perform better in both speaking and writing. This provides evidence to students' need to acquire a good vocabulary knowledge which does not only encompass individual words but also collocations. In sum, most students highlighted their weaknesses in terms of vocabulary especially collocations. Through their answers we could perceive their eagerness, but also their readiness to have a special training on lexical collocations in order to minimize the severity of their stuttering problems and improve their oral proficiency.

Teachers' Interviews

The Target Teachers

The English department of the University Centre of Relizane comprises thirteen permanent teachers and eight others under contractual entitlement. In sum, there are twenty one instructors of a permanent and contractual tenure to give lectures and tutorials to the students. For the sampling of the study, only seven teachers have been interviewed due to their invaluable experience. The interview includes nine open-ended questions all meant to elicit some specific information which relate to their preconceived ideas of oral expression teaching in general and to evaluate whether they have congruent perceptions about it or not. The table that follows illustrates the seven participants' demographic information:

Teachers	Gender	Degree	Speciality	Experience
Teacher A	Female	Magister	Didactics	14 years in high school and 7 years at the university
Teacher B	Male	Magister	Didactics	20 years in high school and 9 years at the university
Teacher C	Male	Magister	Psychopedagogy	5 years at the university
Teacher D	Female	Magister	American Studies	14 years at the university
Teacher E	Female	Magister	British Literature and Civilization	6 years at the university
Teacher F	Male	Magister	Didactics	12 years in high school and 6 years at the university

Table 3.47 The Demographic Information of Teacher Participants

Type of the Interview

Qualitative research in general has recourse to interviewing as a data collection method to gain the insights and perspectives of its target population. According to Nunan (1992:231), an interview can be defined as: “the elicitation of data by one person from another through person-to- person encounters.” Interviewing techniques include two main styles namely the formal structured and the semi-structured approaches. The former type of interview depends on the researchers’ elaboration of a set of standardized questions, allowing no straying from the interview guide and which are prepared in advance. The latter form also requires the use of a set of predetermined questions. However, unlike the structured type, semi-structured interviews are more flexible in the sense that they make room for some follow-ups if the interviewer feels that they are useful to the interview guide. In this study, we have decided to adopt the structured approach for its many advantages. The most important of which is the degree of power and control it provides to the interviewer over the course of the interview (M.J Wallace, 2001).

Aim of the Interview

The interview aims at providing an in-depth understanding of teachers’ espoused perceptions about oral expression teaching and testing their knowledge about lexically-based instruction. In addition, it acts as a complementary tool to the students’ questionnaire through which we have figured out their inability to recognize or use lexical collocations except for a few of them. Thus, the interview will allow us to know more about how teachers conceive of the oral expression module and their self-reported classroom practices. The fact that we have combined a quantitative and qualitative research tools will help us to explore thoroughly the research questions at hand.

Interview Procedure

Before proceeding to interviewing the whole research population, we thought that it would be more judicious first to pilot the interview with at least two of our informants. Our prime motive was to evaluate the relevance of our questions, but also to determine the expected time-limit for each interviewee. The interview has

been carried out during the period from the eleventh to the thirteenth of June, 2016 (which is the period during which all teachers gather for the final deliberations). All participants were given enough time to share their insights with us and express their thoughts. The maximum duration of each interview did not exceed half an hour. The adoption of a structured approach permitted us to take notes, which was almost similar to the questionnaire's procedure.

Description of the Interview

Six EFL teachers were urged to answer nine open-ended questions regarding their perceptions of the oral expression class and how it should take place. The interview guide included the following questions:

- Q1.** "How worthwhile is the oral expression module in the official curriculum?"
- Q2.** "What are the best features of this module?"
- Q3.** "What assessment criteria do you rely on when assessing your students' oral skills?"
- Q4.** "What are the greatest weaknesses of your students vis a vis their oral skills?"
- Q5.** "Where do you think improvements should be made in this module?"
- Q6.** "What teaching approaches do you adopt to increase your students' vocabulary?"
- Q7.** "In your opinion, what degree of importance should be given to lexical collocations? And why?"
- Q.8** "Do you think that lexical collocations are a good means to develop students' L2 fluency? "
- Q9.** "How much do you know about lexically-based teaching?"

Analysis of Teachers' Responses

Q1. "How worthwhile is the oral expression module in the official curriculum?"

Answers to this question reveal how teachers' opinions are mixed regarding the relative ranking of the oral expression module in the university curriculum.

Responses were divided between those who believe that oral expression is not as important as written expression or grammar to be given too much importance, and

those who point up its importance. The ones who took a dim view of the oral expression module advanced several arguments to defend their position.

One of the respondents for instance has put forward that he had two lectures in charge, which were quite demanding in terms of preparation. According to him, oral expression was his 'get-out' module in his timetabled teaching time. Another one argued that "by contrast to written expression, grammar and the rest of the other modules, which cannot be taught without a prior design of a special program, oral expression is the one and only module that demands no strenuous efforts. Teachers do not have to go into lengthy explanations so as to satisfy their students' fervent need for a proper understanding. All it requires is a funny a topic to engage in." Some other teacher added that "if modules were to be ranked from the most to the least important, then oral expression would rank last. The reason behind such a blatant disregard lies in the fact that most teachers do not take it seriously as it requires no elaborate preparation."

On the other hand, three teachers argued in favor of the oral expression module. One of them said "Personally, I have always placed a high value on the oral expression module given that it provides both teachers and students with the opportunity to speak their minds out and to steal away from the too formal classroom atmosphere of the other modules. But the most important thing is its contribution to the assessment of students' pre-acquired language skills including, grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation."

Another one argued that "Most students speak the way they write, but there are also those who write the way they speak. In my opinion, oral expression is not only about 'blowing off some steam'. It is the module wherein most students can showcase their competencies and get all of their language deficiencies detected, and that's what makes it worthwhile. As far as I am concerned, my oral expression classes include a fusion of two main modules grammar and phonetics in addition to the fluency-based activities including role-plays, classroom debates, acting out dialogues etc..." The last one revealed that "The humble experience I have in foreign language teaching taught me to never berate a module for whatever reason. Be it

grammar, phonetics, written or oral expression, they are all of an equal worth just like the rest of the other modules. However, it has to be stated that out the eleven compulsory modules in the overall university curriculum, only four are of a high utility to the students who have been awarded their first academic degree namely written and oral expression added to grammar and phonetics.”

On the whole, the six teachers did not forgo the chance to air their views about the oral expression module. Despite their divergence, their points of view reflect the widely-held perceptions they have acquired throughout their teaching experience.

Q2. “What are the best features of this module?”

Most of our respondents and almost unanimously declared that the best feature of the oral expression class is the fact that it is not bound to any kind of program, which allows for more flexibility and diversification. In fact, unlike the other modules obeying to rigid curricular restrictions such as phonetics, linguistic, grammar etc..., oral expression gives teachers much scope for creativity. This has been confirmed by the greatest majority of our interviewees:

“In my view, one of the best features of the oral expression module is the fact that lessons do not have to be prepared in advance. Besides, it is the only class where students can overrun the time limit for speaking because that is what it is all about.”

“Oral expression is a breath of fresh air for both teachers and students alike. No special program to stick to though it might require a last-minute preparation.”

Nevertheless, some teachers have identified other notable features, which are worth citing. These include most partly the psychological benefits that can be derived from teaching oral expression.

“By contrast to the other modules, oral expression permits students to rocket their self-confidence while speaking. Obviously, this will depend on the teacher’s employed methods to get his students to talk.”

“This module creates opportunities for students to overcome their fears and pluck up the courage from deep within to express themselves in front of their other classmates, which seems unachievable at the very beginning especially with the introvert students.”

Interestingly, one of the respondents stated that it is during the oral expression class that students can expand their vocabulary, learning some new words from both their teachers and classmates. He also added that some of students' pronunciation weaknesses can also be dealt with more especially when it comes to intonation, which is one of the hardest acoustic features of the English language.

Q3. "What assessment criteria do you rely on when assessing your students' oral skills?"

On the whole, teachers' responses to this question revealed that a common grading scale was relied upon for the assessment of students' oral performances. Three stringent testing criteria have been identified in the process. As one teacher said: "I usually evaluate my students' oral skills based on their vocabulary also accuracy, and pronunciation. Of the three criteria, I have to admit that I have a strong tendency to favor accuracy in addition to vocabulary. Pronunciation should not be given increased focus as long as the student is capable of making his message come across. It is true that a near-native accent is more pleasant to the ear, but unfortunately not all students possess such an outstanding gift."

Another one added that body language and gestures should also be taken into account especially when the exam involves acting out an imaginary scenario in which students assume adopted roles. Unexpectedly, the use of slang has also been recognized as an important criterion as confirmed by one of our respondents "Apart from vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation, I usually insist on my students to avoid using slang in class. A more formal variety of English is advisable due to the fact that we are training prospective teachers, who in turn will conduct their own classrooms wherein slang expressions should be banned.

Only one interviewee pointed out that her grading scale covered more than one aspect including fluency, which was not highlighted by any of the other respondents. She specified that as a teacher she commits herself to the idea that learners must learn how to speak smoothly first. Mistakes must be tolerated especially with first year students, who should not be blamed for every single error, because this will prevent them from realizing their full academic potential. Accuracy can be acquired

gradually through ongoing practice. Like many other language components, it is not something that is achievable overnight.

In sum, most teachers adhere to the long-held belief that the assessment of L2 language proficiency rests on accuracy, vocabulary and pronunciation. Fluency, in its narrow sense, does not seem to take on any added importance by contrast to other three criteria.

Q4. “What are the greatest weaknesses of your students vis a vis their oral skills?” As to this question, the majority of the informants made it clear that their students’ greatest weakness lies in accuracy. This means that they are unable to formulate accurately correct utterances every time they are required to speak. Though it is unadvisable to blame students for every single mistake they make while speaking, it seems that most teachers are driven by their inability to tolerate inaccuracies especially when it comes to grammar. Nevertheless, some other weaknesses have been highlighted too. These latter include: poor pronunciation and vocabulary, but also smoothness. As put forward below by one of the respondents:

“My students have several weaknesses that appear to hamper their progress towards a clipped fluent speech. The greatest of them all is accuracy. Some examples of students’ inaccuracies involve subject-verb agreement, vague pronoun reference, misplaced modifiers and even adverbs, also the use of fragments rather than full utterances. In addition, they have a very poor pronunciation, which might cause some serious misunderstanding along with a limited vocabulary. Students generally rely on Arabic or French- English translation, but also on their intuition to find words that correspond to the communicative context they are confronted to resulting in a wrong-word choice.”

Another one argued that vocabulary deficiency was his students’ major flaw stating that “Because of their very poor vocabulary, most of my students attempt a fusion between Arabic and English which ultimately ends in confusion. Furthermore, they are so weak in terms of pronunciation that sometimes, it seems impossible to

decipher what they are saying. This especially happens when they go out of their way to mimic native-speakers' English."

Q5. "Where do you think improvements should be made in this module?"

Generally, Teachers' responses to this question demonstrate that the classroom teaching practices employed for the instruction of the module of oral expression do not give grounds for satisfaction, which makes them the number one reason for the disastrous achieved results along with some other factors. This is why many of our informants view that there is so much to be done in order to make a difference and achieve a remarkable progress. This could be done by setting achievable goals from the very beginning. As pointed out by one of the informants: "First, I believe that teachers must raise their students' awareness of the worth of the oral expression module. They should come to terms with the idea that this class is as important as any of the other classes, which are taken more seriously due to their demanding and rigid nature. Besides, it is indispensable to establish a list of objectives and goals to be achieved. Otherwise, it would be unconceivable to expect signs of improvement. Some definite plan has to be put into effect. To this end, a variety of teaching methods should be put to the test."

Another teacher confirmed that "the implementation of ICT's to the oral expression class can lead to some good results as they have been proved to strengthen learners' motivation. Indeed, we are visual people and students are no exception. ICT's might contribute tremendously to capture their attention, which generally flags after half an hour. Their efficacy will obviously depend on a rigorous selection of the classroom tools. These might comprise videos that stir up their interests such as songs or movie scenes etc..."

Interestingly, one of the respondents has insisted on the fact that improvements should be made at the level of the listening skill. He maintained that "students are in a dire of a laboratory where they can actually sharpen their acoustic skills. The oral expression class must combine listening and speaking sessions."

Q6. “What teaching approaches do you adopt to increase your students’ vocabulary?”

Concerning this question in particular, four teachers have unanimously confirmed using a twofold approach for expanding their students’ vocabulary by contrast to the two remaining ones, who admitted relying on a more conventional approach for vocabulary teaching. According to one of the respondents:

“Being a product of the old school, I think that the best way for teaching vocabulary is the non-formulaic approach, where words are presented to the learner individually. Embracing such method has the benefit of testing students’ creativity to use vocabulary in different communicative contexts, where they might be confronted to unfamiliar situations forcing them to make use of their lexical repertory in a very creative manner. Students need to be able to use the language creatively so as to develop independent thinking. An overreliance on a formulaic approach can be devastating to the learner as it does not really encourage creativity especially when it comes to writing. It would be preferable to provide learners with more opportunities to discover the language and what they can do with it by themselves rather than encumbering them with lots of idiomatic expressions.”

Another one demonstrated his disregard to the formulaic approach stating that “students should always be pushed to the brink of their creativity to ensure a smooth progress towards overall fluency. In order that this goal is to be achieved, then a non-formulaic approach for the teaching of vocabulary should be implemented. Students are in a dire need of creating their own ‘word world’ to cope with the complexity and the intricacies of the target language, which requires more than a stock of formulaic sequences.”

On the other hand, those whose answers were in favor of merging a non-formulaic and a formulaic approach to attain vocabulary expansion argued that emphasizing both approaches can yield very positive results. As one of them said: “Be it a non-formulaic or a formulaic approach, both are two facets of the same coin. They are simply inseparable. A good eclectic teacher must be able to make the best use of both approaches. We cannot simply rely on one of them at the expense of the other. Many practitioners clash over whether vocabulary should be taught

formulaically or non-formulaically. Together, they can bring more profitability. In my view, there is no better way for teaching vocabulary than balancing these two approaches.”

Q7. “In your opinion, what degree of importance should be given to lexical collocations? And why?”

Most of our respondents’ answers to this question reflected the favorable attitude they have towards lexical collocations. They all agreed upon their utmost importance and their relevance to foreign language learning. As put forward by one of them:

“Pervading both spoken and written discourse, lexical collocations should be prioritized to the greatest degree. They are an inevitable linguistic phenomenon as they are an intrinsic part of the target language. Their marginalization would have a damaging effect on students’ proficiency.”

Another one argued that: “The EFL classroom has always concentrated on other language components to the neglect of lexical collocations, which should normally get assiduous attention due to their potential usefulness to the students. By contrast to what many people might think, they are easy to learn and recall provided that they are presented effectively. In addition, they are a beacon of hope for underachieving students whose speaking skills seem to stagnate somehow into a set of routines. Their fragmentary oral performances are but a reflection of the wasteful teaching techniques that many teachers cling to. Nevertheless, gradual improvement can be brought about by incorporating more collocations. The ending result will satisfy both teachers and students alike.”

Q.8 “Do you think that lexical collocations are a good means to develop students’ L2 fluency? ”

This question was meant to reveal what the six involved language teachers thought about language collocations. Despite their differing efficacy levels, they all agreed upon the fact that lexical collocations make a valuable contribution to the

development of L2 fluency. However, they have labored the point that emphasizing collocations alone does not perform miracles. Moving up the proficiency ladder requires multiple competencies which are more efficient when working together. It would be unreliable to believe that L2 fluency development rests mainly upon collocational competence.

One of the respondents pointed out that: “The acquisition of L2 fluency is no easy task for both teachers and students. The fine art of initiating a conversation or sparking off a debate requires cognitive resources and input from various domains. Being equipped with a nice big stock of collocations does not necessarily imply that the student will demonstrate a high level of oral fluency. But, they remain one of the keystones of fluent speech.”

Another one said that “teachers must raise their students’ awareness towards the idiomatic nature of the English language. Smooth speech is the direct result of incorporating lots and lots of ready-made collocations in addition to fluent accuracy. To put this in other words, students must be able to combine collocational competence along with accurately structured sentences so as to reinforce an immediate overriding impression of fluency.”

Q9. “How much do you know about lexically-based teaching?”

When asked about whether they had any prior knowledge about the lexical approach, respondents were divided between those who denied all knowledge of lexically –based teaching and the ones who knew about it but not enough. The one who seemed well-versed in the lexical approach has already carried out a research project about it, which explains why he had some good background knowledge. According to one of the informants who had a little understanding of lexically-based teaching:

“The lexical approach has come into existence after years of painstaking research. It is based on the premise that formulaic sequences have a far-reaching impact on overall language fluency, which are as easily learnable as individual words.”

Another one argued that “it is a shame that many teachers do not know much about lexically-based teaching. The more you delve into it, the more you will appreciate its true pedagogical worth. There is a kernel of truth that its implementation worldwide did not bring an unprecedented success to the teaching and learning of the English language, however, it attracted one’s attention to its formulaic nature.”

Discussion of the findings

The teachers’ interview has a clear aim in view:

First, to get a height of insight into teachers’ background knowledge about lexical collocations and lexically-based teaching in general, but also to assess whether the incorporation a formulaic approach to the teaching of oral expression is subject to approval or not. The analysis of the interviewees’ responses, who are all holding a full-time job at the University Centre of Relizane led us to the following conclusions:

-Although, most teachers admitted not laying too much emphasis on language collocations in class especially in the written and oral expression modules, they almost all recognized their importance and relevance to L2 fluency, which necessitates an amalgam of competencies.

- Without any hesitation, teachers revealed that vocabulary was their students’ most apparent weakness. Their unrivalled experience in foreign language teaching - exceeding 25 years for some of the informants- led them to this deduction.

- Due to their strong attachment to their field of study, teachers’ familiarity with lexically-based teaching is apparently limited. Every teacher seems to cling to some particular area of academic research without looking for diversity and knowledge expansion.

Overall, the interview brought out the importance of shifting focus towards a more formulaic approach to the teaching of vocabulary since it is one of the most significant weaknesses that students suffer from. Besides, it also directs one’s attention to the low-level in-and pre-service training that teachers received.

Conclusion

We can conclude from both the students' questionnaire and the teachers' interview that vocabulary learning/teaching is not given the special attention it deserves. As far as lexical collocations are concerned, the data collected revealed that most students had no prior knowledge of what they meant or how they could be used. Yet, they were ready to learn them so as to minimize their miscollocations' mistakes and expand their vocabulary repertoire, which is already deficient. The teachers' interview has also demonstrated that not all instructors had a good grasp of lexical collocations. Even though they knew about them, their background knowledge seemed to be very limited and needed to be more broadened. Nevertheless, the very thought of implementing lexically-based teaching to their classes appeared to be welcomed as they all admitted the importance of collocations which goes beyond measure. It is for this reason that the next and last chapter will put to the test the efficiency of implementing a lexical syllabus to the oral expression class and see whether it would make any difference, yielding some better results than the already implemented techniques such as classroom interaction.

Chapter Four: The Experimental Study

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Introduction

The broad aim of our research work draws on insights emerging from the lexical approach. It puts forward the assumption that the current oral expression classes can derive great benefit from devising a syllabus based on the main principles of lexically-based teaching as far as first-year students are concerned. As discussed in the previous theoretical chapters, formulaic expressions have been empirically proved to develop genuine oral communication that is more native-like than artificial. But this remains theory, and thus there is a clear need for testing out this belief in a genuine classroom, where teachers have a direct contact with students under study. Part of our research framework has been completed in the third chapter where both students' and teachers' perceptions and background knowledge about lexical collocations have been examined showing a serious deficiency in terms of vocabulary in general, but also highlighting the unbridgeable gap between classroom practices and the most recommended theoretical insights.

Though perceived as important, there has been no attempt to foster the use of collocations in class through a variety of activities, be it in the oral or written expression. This last chapter is reserved to the examination of the potential impact of an adjusted or a more or less modified lexically-based syllabus on first-year students' fluency level. The whole experimental procedure goes through three main phases: the pre-test phase where students' oral skills are evaluated through a random oral test so as to determine whether they are able to orchestrate the sum of language proficiency discrete parts as appropriately as possible, all the while assessing their use of collocations; second, the treatment phase in which a collocation-centered syllabus is implemented to the experimental group with the intent of examining its efficacy in improving oral fluency, and finally the post-test phase where the validity and suitability of the syllabus is confirmed or disconfirmed through the establishment of a comparison between the experimental and control groups' results

The Design of the Research

The methodological principles underlying this research work are quite explicit as we relied upon a mixed-approach which combines both quantitative and qualitative approaches. The core belief of this quasi-experimental study is that traditional oral expression classes do not provide enough authentic input. Most of the vocabulary learnt in class is provided with lesser contextualization. Besides, naturalness, which is the main feature of native speech, seems to be completely disregarded resulting in an unlikely artificial English. The point is that many of the classroom practices used for the teaching of the oral expression module are encumbered with too many disadvantages, which contributes to the inhibition of L2 fluency development. Better results might be obtained by laying more emphasis on formulaic expressions. Thus, through our research work, we will try to bring evidence that the implementation of a lexically-based syllabus to the oral expression class can produce some important changes with regard to both students' and teachers' treatment of vocabulary especially formulaic expressions, but also whether it has a positive or negative impact on students' L2 fluency.

This hypothesis has been operationalised by submitting at the very beginning of the experiment a pre-oral test to both the control and the experimental groups so as to get an accurate picture of their oral proficiency. Then, students participated in a semester-long accelerated course based on the lexical approach, but only the experimental group was involved. The remaining students went through random oral expression activities involving role-plays, games, classroom interactions without an undue focus on any kind of vocabulary. By the end of the study, all subjects from the control and experimental groups took a post-oral test to examine whether there has been a vast performance difference between them or not right after the treatment phase.

Population and Sampling

A total of 39, first year LMD students at the University Centre of Relizane from two separate groups, took part in this experiment during the academic year 2016-2017. At the commencement of the study, the number of subjects was about sixty, but given that many of them have either dropped out of the English course or

got transferred to some other universities, the mortality rate during the trial was about 35%. Obviously, students who did not participate in this full six-month study were deemed to exclusion, leaving only 39 students for the post-treatment analysis. Through the students' questionnaire from the third chapter, we could build a comprehensive picture of our informants, who were relatively homogenous with an average age of 18-19 years. The vast majority of students had been studying English for eight years at the minimum. Significantly, participants had divergent proficiency levels; however, most of them demonstrated a common limited knowledge of collocations and a wide range of mis-collocations. Regarding the participants' assignment, 20 students were assigned to the experimental group and 19 to the control group, consisting initially of 30 students each. To avoid what Donald Ary et al (2010:293-295) call "reactive threat", which might have a counter effect on the reliability of the results, we preferred to avoid telling students that they were being tested in a classroom-based research. And so lessons were lectured in a very convivial atmosphere as in any ordinary oral expression class.

Method of the Study

The Lexical Approach was developed in the early 1990's as an expedient way to help upgrade L2 learners' comprehension and production skills. However, it did not enjoy wide currency among the teaching community. It was rather overlooked and disregarded as most EFL practitioners gave backing to content-based, task-based and integrated L2 instruction due to several loopholes, which should have been taken into consideration. The implementation of such approach in an Algerian context required reflection, but also some minor modifications so as to attempt rendering it more applicable. And so, the method of our study is a modified version of the original Lexical Approach where some of its components have been salvaged. One of the main characteristics of LA is its assumption that learners need to learn how to recognize and identify lexical phrases before being able to produce them as part of their language lexicon, which requires continuous updating if L2 fluency is to be targeted. Obviously, automaticity does not develop overnight; it actually occurs through repetition by which chunks can be easily retrieved and re-used over and over again (Lewis, 1990). Likewise, Boers and Armstrong (2009), some of the few protagonists of LA, argue that language discourse be it written or spoken comprises

plenty of multi-word groupings. These latter do not represent the totality of language discourse, but only a fraction of it. That is why they thoroughly recommend the implementation of some classroom activities that foster learners' ability to identify lexical phrases including: collocations, idioms, similes, discourse markers, compounds, proverbs and social routine expressions by using authentic written transcripts. To ensure the acquisition of those language components, Armstrong and Boers (2009) suggest some different mental process known as 'elaboration', which is far from being mere noticing as it triggers a long-term entrenchment of the already taught lexical phrases.

Meanwhile, if we are aiming at oral fluency development, there has to be a sort of deviation from the original version wherein learners learn to recognize conversation strategies/ lexical chunks through a reading phase. Therefore, our method of study could be distinguished by its discard of the reading/recognition phase, which is very time-consuming according to Parish (2011:2). Instead, the reading phase is to be skipped and replaced by a direct introduction of the target lexical chunks. This could be done by pre-selecting the language functions to be incorporated in the language syllabus in addition to their corresponding chunks. Moreover, most of the lexical chunks were introduced through visual aids depicting learners' favorite celebrities so as to keep them invested.

Tools of the Study

So as to identify the language components to be included in the syllabus, which is exclusively targeting English first year students, the researcher undertook a review of all pertinent collocation-centered books with the intent of making a preliminary checklist of the lexical collocations that will constitute the cornerstone of each lesson in the syllabus. Before we could proceed to its development, we took counsel from many of our fellow teachers in the English department of the University Centre of Relizane about the contentious issues they had in instructing the oral expression module. The ones who have been teaching oral expression for several years argued that lack of vocabulary was their students' most fundamental weakness in addition to their grammatical inaccuracies and instances of mispronunciation. We also called upon some of our former students who revealed that to date (as they are second year

students), they were still unable to formulate accurate utterances whenever holding a conversation or sparking off a debate with their teachers or classmates due to their deficient lexical repertoire (for more details see chapter three). In the light of these revealing insights, we started designing the program.

Because there is no first year oral expression courses to be evaluated as a measure of comparison, we found ourselves under the obligation of proceeding directly to building the framework of the program by paying lip service to students' needs in the very first place including which language functions should be highlighted along with their related lexical collocations. Also, what kind of practice activities should be adopted to ensure a systematic automatization of the language components brought into focus. But most importantly, the main objectives to be met at the end of each unit in the syllabus and the evaluation techniques that will help us to assess the efficacy or inefficacy of the syllabus.

The Syllabus

The very first step that we undertook before designing the syllabus and presenting it in its final version was to provide a panel of English teachers with a sample unit so that they can assess the appropriacy of the collocations and the pedagogical approach that has been adopted for its presentation and practice. The unit in question was entitled 'People/Physical Appearance' comprising several subdivisions in which vocabulary was presented through pictures and some attached notes in addition to the practice section wherein students were expected to make full use of the vocabulary brought into focus. The first subdivision included semi-fixed collocations about height, figure and complexion, whereas the second dealt with facial features including the eyes, face, nose, and eyebrows types. The following observations have been made along with some recommendations to be taken into consideration:

1. It was recommended to focus on the most relevant collocations to physical description and avoid the least necessary as they viewed that there was too much vocabulary which might inexorably result in overloading students with unnecessary amounts of lexis. In sum, the collocations checklist must be congruent with the students' level and needs.

2. Rather than using short explanatory notes for each subdivision or rubric in the presentation phase, it would be better to use the term 'tip box', but also diagrams.
3. The practice activities were deemed to be insufficient. Four tasks or more if possible were the ideal number for each unit if efficient learning is to be achieved.
4. Role-plays should also be part of the practicing phase, which might act as warm-up tasks.

With those keen observations in mind and some other important criteria, we started constructing the content units that the syllabus would comprise. The laid down criteria were that:

- The syllabus has to be learner-centered.
- The syllabus must include visual aids as a motivating factor.
- The general objectives of the syllabus should be operational, clear-cut and comprehensive.

Framework of the Syllabus

We have established a basic framework for the syllabus, which contained the following components:

1. Objectives
2. Content area
3. Activities
4. Methods of teaching
5. Evaluation tools
6. Duration

These latter will be laid out in detail in the section that follows.

General Objectives of the Syllabus

The syllabus aims at attaining two main objectives:

- To familiarize students with the formulaic nature of the target language so that they can lessen their excessive reliance on generative language.
- Expanding students' lexical repertoire by directing their attention to seven types of semi-fixed collocations including (verb+noun, adjective+noun, noun+verb, adjective+adverb, verb+adverb, adverb+verb and noun+noun) in addition to some fixed collocations and a few idiomatic expressions.
- To provide students with opportunities to sharpen and upgrade their oral skills by making extensive use of the lexical items practiced in class.

In addition to the above cited objectives, each unit in the syllabus had a set of performance objectives to be met by the end of each session. Their number in total was about 45, but only 23 of them have been retained for time constraints.

General Objectives of Unit One: ‘People’

This unit was divided into several sub-topics due to the huge number of collocations which relate to the main topic, and which could not be dealt with in only one comprehensive unit. The first sub-topic is people’s physical appearance. Its ultimate objective is:

-to enable students produce richer physical descriptions of people by laying emphasis on the minutest detail and using the adequate collocations.

The second sub-topic which is about people’s personality traits aims at:

-enhancing students’ ability to discuss and describe both their personalities and the personalities of others, in addition to providing them with the opportunity to analyze personality differences and drawing conclusions based on those differences.

People’s Clothes and Style, the third sub-topic, is meant to:

-draw students’ attention to the different types of styles and clothing including casual and more formal types through listing a wealth of semi-fixed and fixed collocations that they can use to describe their own and other people’s clothing items.

The fourth sub-division could have been merged with the second as both centre on the abstract aspects of human beings. However, we preferred to devote a whole unit for it so that students can benefit from its related collocations. It is entitled ‘Relationships and Family’.

-By the end of this unit, students were expected to describe their relationships with others including relatives, friends and acquaintances with a high level of efficiency.

General Objectives of the Second Unit

Following the same framework, the second unit has also been divided into six sub-topics all dealing with the different recreation and leisure activities, which are essential for humans to maintain mental well-being. These latter included: housing, food and drinks, sport and fitness, health and sickness, movies and series and finally books and music. The table from the next page illustrates the main objectives of each sub-unit.

Recreational Lifestyles	
Sub-units	Objectives
House	To enable students to identify different kinds of housing and what they are made from so that they can talk about theirs and those of the people around them.
Food and Drinks	Introducing students to a variety of world cuisines in addition to a wealth of lexis that they are expected to use effectively when talking about their favorite restaurants and recipes.
Sport and Fitness	Expanding students' knowledge about the broader categories of sport with an undue focus on the most popular ones, also what contributors have a direct impact on physical fitness such as sport equipment and types of exercising.
Health and Sickness	Acquiring and using some general and domain-specific phrases that can help students to demonstrate more knowledge when talking about health issues and some related topics.
Movies and Series	To acquaint students with collocations related to leisure activities with particular emphasis on different types of movies and TV serials.
Books and Music	By the end of this unit, students will show ability to make full use of some lexical routines to discuss their preferences with regard to books and music.

General Objectives of the Third Unit

The overall frame of reference for all of the syllabus units is the same, and this third unit is no exception. It mainly comprises four sub-topics which aims are the following:

Attitudes and Opinions	
Sub-topics	Objectives
Liking and Disliking	To enable students to express their likes and dislikes with already and newly acquired expressions with an utmost efficiency.
Praising and Criticizing	By the end of this unit, students will learn how to be good appraisers by making productive and constructive comments and responding to feedback with the appropriate collocations.
Agreeing and Disagreeing	To enable students to voice their opinions and providing reasons that justify those opinions using familiar and unfamiliar lexical phrases.
Claiming and Denying	To acquaint students with the subtle shades of meaning that distinguish the functions of agreeing and disagreeing from those of claiming and denying and introduce them to some context-bound collocations.

General Objectives of the Fourth Unit

Unlike the preceding units, the fourth one namely Social Networking has only two sub-divisions. As they are strongly interrelated, both have been merged into one single unit, which pursues the following objective:

Social Networking	
Sub-units	Objective
Conversation/ Discussion	Upon completion of this unit, students will be able to build on and extend vocabulary they know already. Moreover, they will show ability to talk in a purposeful way exploring collocations related to the field of computing.
Computer and Internet	

General Objectives of the Fifth Unit

Three sub-units can be found in this fifth unit under the name of ‘Talking about Social Issues’. Its main objectives are:

Talking about Social Issues	
Sub-units	Objectives
Crime, Punishment and Justice	As a result of this unit, students will have a better understanding of the criminal justice system and the notions of punishment and justice. They will also be better able to assess the pros and cons abounding the legal system based on celebrities and notorious criminals’ case studies.
Education and Technology	By the end of this unit, students will be more acquainted with the underpinning principles of the educational system and how it operates and be able to qualify the kind of education that is being promoted in both developing and developed countries. Added to this, they will be introduced to the wide range of technologies, which rendered humans’ life more enjoyable.
War and Peace	Introducing students to some relevant core context clues about peace and war that will empower them with enough vocabulary to talk about war-stricken countries and the importance of adopting non-violent methods to solve world issues and conflicts.

The General Objectives of the Sixth Unit

The sixth unit tackles the long-term problems the world has been dogged with since the last two decades, which appear to be insurmountable due to the inefficiency of the draconian, preventative measures adopted by the authorities in charge. Among the world's burning issues, we have picked four to be addressed in this unit. These latter include illegal immigration, unemployment and poverty, the global financial crisis and immoral acts such as corruption, bribery, money embezzlement and laundry. The general objectives of each sub-unit are illustrated in the table below:

Global Problems	
Sub-units	Objectives
Illegal Immigration	Upon the completion of this unit, students will be introduced to several negative aspects of illegal immigration and how they influence the host countries in particular. Furthermore, they will be afforded ample opportunities to express their differing views about illegal immigration from an Algerian standpoint.
Unemployment and Poverty	Acquainting students with the main difference between relative and absolute poverty and their distinctive characteristics, also its connection with unemployment and how it can be rooted in economics, in addition to exploring the different types of unemployment.
The Global Financial Crisis	The overarching aim of this unit is to help students develop a better understanding of some relevant terminology to the field of economy with an undue focus on the worst economic crisis that the world has ever witnessed starting from the USA and spreading all over the world.
Corruption /Bribery/Money Embezzlement and Extortion	Introducing students to the perplexity of the notion of corruption as it encompasses several forms of criminal activities such as bribery, money embezzlement, extortion or graft.

The Content of the Syllabus

The suggested syllabus consists of 10 thematic areas divided into several subthemes. The total number of units is 45 introducing a variety of fixed and semi-fixed collocations. These latter were not selected randomly, but rather purposively. They were not only practical, but useful to some other modules such as written expression. When devising the syllabus, many important criteria have been taken into account. The most important of them was to cater for the students' communicative needs. To achieve that purpose, students were not excluded from the process of theme selection, but rather fully involved as they were urged to fill in forms illustrating the kind of topics that they would like to discuss in class. Based on the students' choices, we started working on their favorite themes bearing in mind that each theme area must focus on some specific core function and its related lexical phrases. Many language functions have been highlighted during the design process including describing, expressing attitudes/ likes and dislikes, arguing a case, presenting, persuading, finding out, reflecting, investigating, interpreting, analyzing, responding, exploring, explaining, expressing agreement or disagreement, evaluating, and selecting. All of those functions fall within three main categories namely the informative, expressive and the directive types. The informative functions are used to communicate information. The expressive type, however, reports the speakers' feelings or attitudes while the directive functions cause overt action such as giving commands or requests.

Obviously, each of those language functions has been used in alliance with its corresponding lexical chunks along with the different situations that it covers. For instance, the process of describing has been tied to the context of the eyewitness who is supposed to provide physical details about the bunch of thugs who committed some kind of crime, in addition to the field of plastic surgery where patients express an urge to change a physical flaw by describing the kind of metamorphosis they would like to perform. The inclusion of those language functions into the syllabus lessons could be illustrated in the diagram that follows with the first unit as a sample:

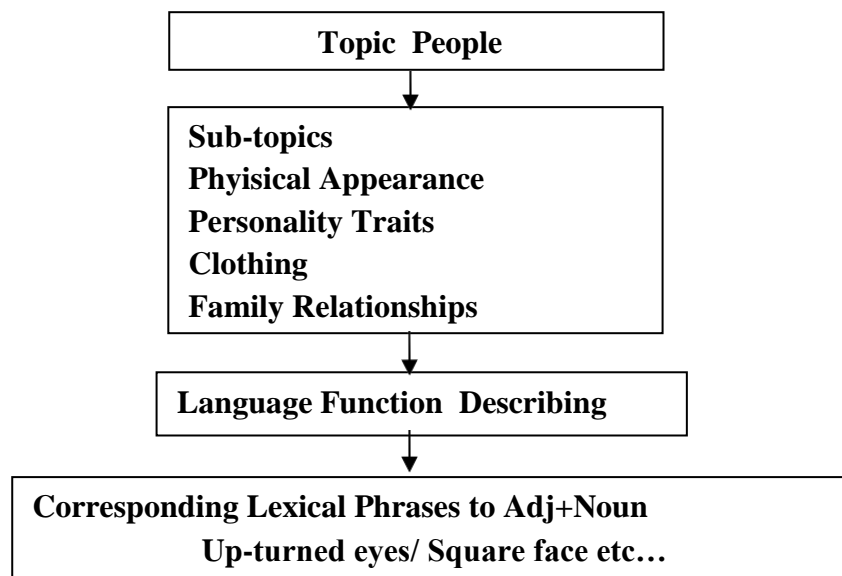


Fig 4.1 The Incorporation of Language Functions into the Syllabus Lessons

It is worth noting that in a typical lexical syllabus, grammar is not taught separately, but rather integrated in the form of mini-grammar lessons. This compelling feature of the lexical approach has been dismissed from the overall lesson plans of the implemented program due to time constraints. Most units took two teaching sessions each. The number of sub-topics for each unit ranged between four to eight depending on the exhaustiveness of the topic itself. Only the most relevant sub-topics have been selected along with their high-frequency semi-fixed and fixed collocations. The panel of teachers who have assessed our sample unit directed us to rely on gradation for a better presentation of the syllabus content. In doing so, we chose to introduce the easier topics first such as: People, Lifestyles etc... and then the most complicated ones came last as it were the case with: Global Problems and many other topics.

With regard to the division of the lesson plans, we decided to apply the same structural framework for all lessons. Thus, the introduction of the syllabus content was built on the same structure. It includes three rubrics, each of which deals with one of the stages that provides a sound basis to every single lesson plan in the syllabus. The very first rubric has been entitled: Let's get things clear. It is during this stage that the set of related lexical phrases are presented to the students through short explanatory tip-boxes. Most collocations are not presented in their context of

use, but rather introduced through visual aids where students can relate sample collocations with their corresponding pictures. Visual aids have been used as a motivational tool to keep students completely engaged as they might get distracted when feeling bored. The pictures have been rigorously selected as they were regarded as a key component in the syllabus. Most of them were taken from the real world depicting their favorite celebrities including singers and actors, ordinary people conveying messages, also breathe –taking natural landscapes etc. However, it has to be stated that some collocations needed to be presented in mini-texts that were adapted to the level of the students. So rather than applying the explanatory tip boxes to all of the syllabus units, some of them needed to be adjusted differently due to the complexity of the topic, but also the nature of its related lexical phrases.

The second rubric is a sort of warm-up phase to allow students to experience the use of the lexical items brought into focus before digging deep into their actual use through challenging fluency activities. It has been entitled: Practice Makes Perfect. At this level, students make a quick review of the collocations they have been introduced to through a set of guided activities. The last rubric namely Time for Some More Practice is the most important phase in the whole lesson plan as it provides extended practice to ensure a better understanding and entrenchment of the collocations. Five important criteria have been taken into account during the design of the fluency building tasks. First of all, they must be easy, and compatible to the students' level so as to make sure that they will not shy away due to the complexity of the language. In sum, the instructions must be easily digestible in order that the classroom becomes a real hive of activity. Also, they have to be message-focused allowing students to convey real messages to authentic audiences.

In addition, there should be a replication of real–world constraints such as time pressure, which means that students are not allowed to overrun the time-limit and must always be put under pressure. Moreover, prior planning and preparation is advisable before speaking as it has been shown to impact fluency in a very positive way. And finally, Repetition which according to Nation and Newton (2009) is the safest and surest way to guarantee the automatization of some language items meant to enhance fluency in the process (all of the above cited criteria have been

established by Nation and Newton, 2009). In sum, the typical structure of the syllabus' lesson plans could be depicted in the diagram below:

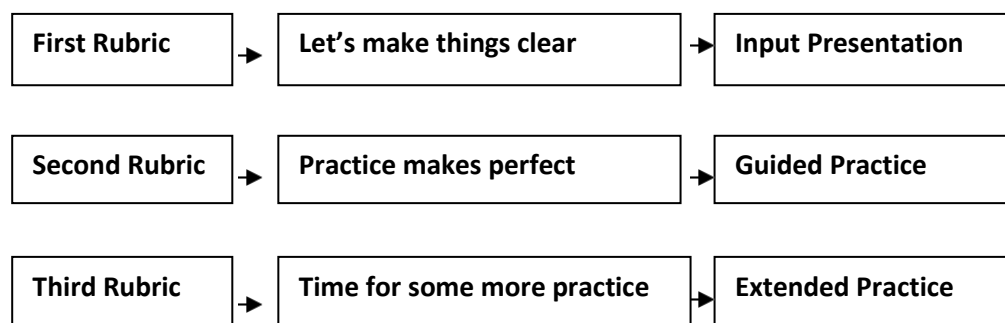


Fig 4.2 The Structure of the Syllabus Lesson Plans

The kinds of activities that have been adopted in the suggested syllabus were inspired from task-based teaching which is ‘an offshoot of communicative teaching’. Such an approach promotes the idea of having students completing meaningful tasks, wherein they need to explore their full potential to demonstrate their ability to work within the constraints of their prior knowledge without an undue focus on the language structures which are at the core of a particular lesson format. By contrast to the typical based-teaching activities, the devised ones foster both creative and memory-based language as students are expected to get the maximum benefit of the lexical phrases they have been introduced to in addition to embracing their creativity in the meantime. Here are two samples from the first unit:

Unit Title	Third Rubric
People	Time for Some More Practice
<p>Task three: Choose one of the following situations.</p> <p>Situation one: Imagine that you are one of the agents of the Crime Scene Investigation group, commonly known as CSI, and that you have been assigned the task of providing a preliminary sketch of the primary suspect based on an eyewitness ‘description. With your partner, write the conversation that took place between you and the key witness, and then act it out in front of your classmates.</p> <p>Situation two: Jane has several physical flaws that make her feel insecure. At the prodding of her best friend Lucy, she decided to consult a plastic surgeon to get them fixed. With your partner, act out the conversation that was held during the medical consultation.</p>	

Table 4.1. Sample Tasks from the Suggested Syllabus

Normally there are three types of task-based teaching activities namely the information gap, the reasoning gap and the opinion gap. Only the first and third types have been used. In the information gap activity, students are expected to engage in an information transfer process wherein they exchange ideas, thoughts, clues or some particular knowledge about something. Such type of activity provides students with the opportunity to ask for information also clarification and meaning negotiation in case of misunderstandings. The opinion type involves students in a high-level classroom discussion or debate where they can express their inner thoughts about some particular issue from their own perspectives. At a lower level, they might simply be required to share their personal preferences, experiences without having to dig deeper into the topic (Prabhu, 1987). Here are four samples of information gap and opinion gap activities taken from the implemented syllabus:

Sample one	An Information Gap Activity
<p>Task Two: Here is a short description of George Clooney’s family. How would you describe yours?</p> <p>Description:</p> <p>My name is George Timothy Clooney. I was born on May 6, 1961, in Lexington, Kentucky, into a large and caring family. My devoted parents provided me with a decent education for which I am very grateful. When asked about me as a child, they usually describe me as a loving and bright kid. My parents and I had a very close family relationship the reason why I have forged a very strong bond with them. It is true that they did not leave me a huge legacy, but my real legacy is their love and support.</p>	

From Speak so that I may see you, Unit one: People/ Family (p47)

Sample two	An Information Gap Activity
<p>Task Three: What if you were Travis Lane Stork, host of the Doctors TV show, or one of the members of his panel. Pick any of the following diseases and carry out an in-depth research about it. Then answer your classmates' questions by providing them with easily digestible explanations and useful pieces of advice to limit the risks of contraction.</p> <p>Suggested Diseases:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Kidney Stone Disease • Coronary Artery Disease • Lung Cancer • Inflammatory Bowel Disease • Toxic Nodular Goiter • Breast Cancer 	

**From Speak so that I may see you, Unit two: Recreational Lifestyle/
Health and Sickness (p88)**

Sample three	An Opinion Gap Activity
<p>Task two: What kind of house do you live in? Is it your dream house? What if you had a once-in a lifetime chance to refurbish your house by Martin Lawrence Bullard, the British interior designer and host of the Hollywood Me show? What changes would you like him to make so that your house lives up to your expectations.</p>	

**From Speak so that I may see you, Unit two: Recreational Lifestyle/
Housing (p57)**

Sample Four	An Opinion Gap Activity
<p>Task five: Kelly Clarkson and Mohamed Assaf were the eventual and lucky winners of American Idol and its Arabic version. They won the singing contest hands down surpassing all the other participating competitors. In your opinion, what assets contributed to their remarkable success? And was their path to stardom strewn with obstacles?</p>	

**From Speak so that I may see you, Unit two: Recreational Music and
Books (p107)**

Evaluation of the Suggested Syllabus

The suggested program involved both formative and summative types of evaluation to ensure valid testing of students' proficiency optimum in using acquired collocations and making full advantage of their use to sound more fluent.

Formative Evaluation

Every single unit in the implemented program contained an all-encompassing activity to assess students' ability to recall the lexical collocations brought into focus and reinvest them in their own oral performances be it an oral interview, a classroom discussion or a role-play simulation designed by the students themselves. After each unit, students were pushed to the brink of their full potential so as to measure the breadth and depth of content coverage. This type of evaluation gave students valuable feedback that is needed for meeting the program's objectives.

Summative Evaluation

This type of evaluation in particular has been carried out after having secured the implementation of the pre-selected content units of the program and their coverage. It was meant to trace any considerable signs of progress among the recipients of the suggested program. Hence, the overall effectiveness of the implemented syllabus could be determined by summative evaluation.

Methods of Teaching

Our ultimate goal was to instruct oral expression using a modified version of the Lexical Approach. This simply implies that we had to overlook the Observe-Hypothesize- Experiment paradigm which was viewed as time-consuming and having a high-level of mismatch with the students' learning style and level in favor of the PPP paradigm wherein lexical items were directly presented to the students. These latter were either used in de-contextualized environments with visual aids to facilitate their assimilation or within written scripts provided with contextual clues to deduce their meaning. So students had to go through the following stages before producing an oral script. First, presentation where related-collocations are presented for a better assimilation, also practice in which students go through a number of lexical activities to ensure accumulation, and finally production through which students' ability to make full use of the presented items is assessed.

Duration of the Suggested Program

The implemented program has been put to the test during the first and second semester of the academic year 2016-2017. It lasted twenty four weeks excluding the mid-year and final examination periods in addition to the winter and spring holidays. It ran from the second of November 2016 and ended on May 5th 2017. The instruction process has been completed by the researcher herself. The table on the next page displays the program's timetable.

Lessons and Tests	Dates	Time allotted
Pre-oral test	25 th October	3 hours
Unit one: people	2 nd November	6 hours
Physical appearance		
Personality Traits	14 th November	3 hours
Clothing	20 th November	4.5 hours
Family Relationships	27 th November	3 hours
Unit two: Recreational lifestyle /Housing	5 th December	3 hours
Food	10 th December	3 hours
Music and Books	17 th December	3 hours
Sports and Fitness	15 th January	3 hours
Health and Sickness	21 st January	3 hours
Unit three: Attitudes and Opinions/ Liking and Disliking	26 th January	3 hours
Praising and Criticizing	3 rd February	3 hours
Agreeing and disagreeing	10 th February	3 hours
Claiming and Denying	18 th February	3 hours
Unit Four: Social Networking/ Conversation Discussion, Computer and Internet	24 th February	4.5hours
Unit five: Talking about Social Issues/Crime, Punishment and Justice	5 th March	3 hours

Education and Technology	12 th March	3hours
War and Peace	17 th March	3 hours
Unit Sixth: Global Problems/Illegal Immigration	8 th April	3 hours
Unemployment and Poverty	13 th April	3 hours
The Global Financial Crisis	18 th April	3 hours
Corruption, Bribery, money Embezzlement and Extortion	22 nd April	3 hours
The Post-oral Test	5 th May	4.5 hours

Table 4.2 The Timetable of the Suggested Syllabus

4. 11. The Experimental Phase and its Testing Instruments

4.11.1 The Pre-oral test

Before proceeding to the implementation of the suggested program, we needed to evaluate students' speaking skills with an undue focus on their collocational competence. In other words, our aim was to target students' ability to attain collocational restriction by combining words with their correct collocants in spontaneous speech. This phase was meant to provide preliminary results about our respondents' fluency level so as to obtain the final comparison results when administering the post-oral test.

11.1.2 Description

A pre-oral test has been set for data collection wherein the participants' oral fluency level and their command of collocations' use were to be demonstrated. First, the test was administered at the very beginning of the academic year on the 25th of October 2016 in a low-pressure and less-exam like atmosphere in order to incite the subjects to express themselves. The selected topics were adjusted to their level as they freshly graduated from high-school and could not be terrified with advanced topics that will inexorably result in reticence or withdrawal. Talking about their high-school experience as a junior and the impact of the sudden transition to a university level, their personal lives including family and friends, but also their hobbies, likes

and dislikes were the main discussion topics under which they have been tested. The respondents were expected to cast lots, choose the topic of their choice and feel free to speak whenever they felt ready. The topics were not randomly selected as they were all descriptive in nature. Such characteristic prompted subjects to use adj+noun and verb+ noun word combinations. Each subject has been granted five to ten minutes to talk about the topic of his/her choice and told not to overrun the time limit. All of their oral performances have been audio-recorded with the XteremeMac Micromemo. The recordings did not exceed 4 minutes in duration. The table below illustrates the speaking task that has been used to elicit students' speech samples.

Speaking Task Type	Prompt for Speaking Task
Describing family and friends	Among your family members and friends, which ones are your favorites? And why?
Describing likes and dislikes	Do you have a strong leaning towards any kind of activity be it sport, music, writing poetry or any other? And what about your pet peeves?
Describing past experiences	How would describe your journey as a high-schooler? And now that you are a student, how do you intend to navigate university life as a freshener?

Table.4.3. Pre-oral Test Speaking Task

It should noted that we have chosen monologues for data collection based on Segalowitz, 2010 suggestions that these latter have the advantage of avoiding variability into the speaking task. The use of dialogues would have altered the course of the conversation as subjects are compelled to interact with some other interlocutors leading to some topical divergence in the process. Moreover, participants have been granted five minutes for preparation given that many empirical studies have proved that planning time has a very positive impact on L2 speakers' oral fluency indicators as it is the case with Skehan and Foster, 1997, who found out that prior preparation, enhances speakers' ability to manipulate pausing. This simply means that there is a clear indication for the likelihood of less pausation when subjects are given time to prepare. Similar investigations have been conducted by Menhert, 1998, Ortega,1999, Tajima, 2003, Gilabert 2007 and Tavares 2009. These latter came out with the conclusion that certain aspects of oral fluency, other than pausing, are likelier to improve due to extra planning time. Those aspects

included speech rate and mean length of runs, which have also been proved to be influenced by rehearsal time.

Results and Discussion

Due to the daunting nature of the analysis phase, we have decided to enlist the help of two of our colleagues and a computing engineer to assess students' oral performances in terms of spontaneity and collocational competence in order to make an accurate judgment regarding which subjects were in dire need of instructional assistance and which ones did not. Therein, our main target was to carry out a careful investigation about students' actual mastery of the English language. It is worth noting that in this study, we chose to assess students' L2 speaking proficiency with reference to Brumfit's (1984) definition of L2 fluency as "natural language use" (p.56) by focusing on their actual knowledge and use of idiomaticity more precisely lexical collocations, but also on other language components such as grammar due to the strong interconnectedness amongst those components. Thus, in order to find out whether there is any statistical significant difference in first-year English students' oral fluency that could be associated with the implementation of our suggested lexical program; we analyzed 39 speech excerpts ranging from 3.30 to 50 seconds in duration. Prior to the analysis phase, co-assessors were instructed to focus on mid-clause and end of clause pauses in addition to the mean-length of runs, which have been calculated manually. The table below illustrates those L2 fluency indicators in addition to their definitions.

Fluency Indicators	Definitions
Rate of Mid-Clause Pauses	The number of pauses lasting 0.25 seconds or more occurring at the middle of a clause, per 100 syllables
Rate of End of Clause Pauses	The number of pauses lasting 0.25 seconds or more occurring at the end of a clause, per 100 syllables
Mean Length of Runs	The mean number of syllables spoken between pauses (filled or unfilled) 0.5 seconds or longer.

Table 4.4 Fluency Indicators

The T score for each participant has been calculated by a computing engineer to be compared later with the post-test results. In addition to those measures, an undue focus has been directed to collocational errors, which establish evidence of students' deficiency in terms of collocations, which are an intrinsic part of native speakers' speech adding a high degree of naturalness. Through the analysis of the speech excerpts of both the experimental and control groups, it was revealed that participants from both sub-divisions had some serious problems with collocations' use and grammatical accuracy. The table that follows displays students' statistical results with regard to collocational and grammatical errors.

	Number	Percentage
Collocational errors for the experimental group	110	63.95%
Grammatical errors for the experimental group	62	36.05%
Total number of errors	172	100%
Collocational errors for the control group	114	61.63 %
Grammatical errors for the control group	71	38.37 %
Total number of errors	185	100%

Table.4.5 Pre-test Results in terms of Collocational and Grammatical Errors

As shown above, students seem to face a serious problem regarding the use of words with their correct collocates. Percentages in both the experimental and control groups are closely correlated with 63.95% and 61.63% when it comes to students' collocational errors. These findings provide a vivid demonstration of the negative impact of a deficient collocational competence on oral fluency as far as 'natural language use' is concerned. Expectedly, participants from both groups did not score well in terms of grammatical structure with 36.05% for the experimental group and 38.37% for the control group. But the highest percentages remain associated with collocational errors. The most common grammatical errors that have been detected are in subject-verb agreement such as "the role of parents are...etc", also verbs' conjugation as in " I rode" rather than "I read" in the simple past, a misuse of singular and plural forms such as " new informations" rather than 'new information.

In addition, they usually confuse the 'he and she' subject pronouns as it is the case with the following example 'he don't care' moving to 'she don't care'. Our analysis has also permitted us to take notice of students' overuse of fragmentary

utterances where there are no subjects or verbs, e.g. ‘passed the Bac exam last year’ instead of ‘I have sat for my Bac exam last year’. Also, they have this very bad tendency of inserting a subject pronoun right after a subject such as in ‘music it is a source of joy for me.’ Another problematic issue has been found in their use of gerunds, which are normally part of progressive tenses or used as nouns e.g. ‘to broking their dreams’ rather than ‘breaking their dreams’. Obviously, the number of errors has been counted manually for both collocational and grammatical errors.

A further assessment of our subjects’ speech samples allowed us to distinguish the most accurate and inaccurate collocations in actual use among first year English students. Sample inaccuracies have been analyzed only to reveal that students were in dire need for being trained in lexical collocations as most subjects encountered some enormous difficulties in using word combinations properly, which is something intolerable for students who have been learning a foreign language for more than seven years. They were definitely out of their depth. The tables below illustrate the most significant collocational inaccuracies made by students from both the experimental and the control groups.

The Experimental group	Correct answer
To do a mistake	To make a mistake
They lost their money for us	They spent their money to bring us up
To do efforts	To make efforts/ it takes efforts
To put their hopes on me	To pin their hopes on me
There is nothing expensive than me, brothers and sisters for my parents.	Our parents’ love is beyond compare. Nothing is more precious than my brothers and sisters.
I have just finished eighteen year old	I have recently turned eighteen year old
to reach my dreams	To fulfill my dreams

Table.4.6 Significant Collocational inaccuracies amongst Students from the Experimental Group

The Control group	Correct answer
In generally	In general
I hate lying on others	I hate lying to others
To see all clear	To see everything clearly
I do not love win weight	I do not like the fact of getting/ gaining some extra weight.

I lost my bac exam	I failed at my bac exam
To share a conversation with my friends	To hold a conversation with my friends
I have a solid relation to my family	I have a very strong relationship with my family

Table.4.7 Significant Collocational inaccuracies amongst Students from the Control Group

Obviously, some accurate word combinations could be found in students' speech samples. There are even those who could surpass themselves by using some interesting collocations demonstrating a genuine ability to use some idiomatic expressions. A selection of those accurate collocations in actual use is found in the following table:

The Experimental group	The control group
My parents have set some standards for me and my brothers and sisters	I want to blend in society
Everything should be used in moderation.	We have been raised properly
I hate the idea of counting on someone for my entire life.	I have been given a second chance
I like hanging out with my friends	I should handle this by working even harder
Searching for some newer words by listening to English songs.	To have a sense of right and wrong
To overcome obstacles and make the right decisions	What god planned for me
I want to achieve something in life.	I hate wasting my time

Table.4.8. Significant Collocational accuracies amongst Students from the Experimental and Control Groups

The graphic illustrations representing students' accurate and inaccurate use of lexical collocations are but a conclusive proof for students' lack of training in how words combine with their collocates. The time spent in high and middle school did not allow them to get equipped with enough word combinations. They might know or recognize some, but overall they have some serious deficiency in terms of collocational knowledge. This is partly due to teachers' lack of awareness of the usefulness of formulaic expressions in general, which is the direct result of their

post-graduate inappropriate training. Nevertheless, some participants from both the experimental and control groups could score better than those who presented some serious problems with word combinations. This could be explained by the fact that they do not content themselves with what is being provided to them in class. The learning process for them goes beyond the walls of the classroom. If some student has a keen interest in some particular target language, then nothing will stop him/her to achieve higher levels in fluency be it in speaking or writing. A statistical calculation of first-year students' accurate and inaccurate uses of lexical collocations has been provided in the table below demonstrating their significant weakness in terms of collocational use.

	The Experimental Group		The Control Group	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Accurate Lexical Collocations in Use	17	13.38%	15	11.62%
Inaccurate Lexical Collocations in Use	110	86.61%	114	88.37%
Total	127	100%	129	100%

Table.4.9 Statistical Findings of Students' Most Accurate and Inaccurate Lexical Collocations in Actual Use

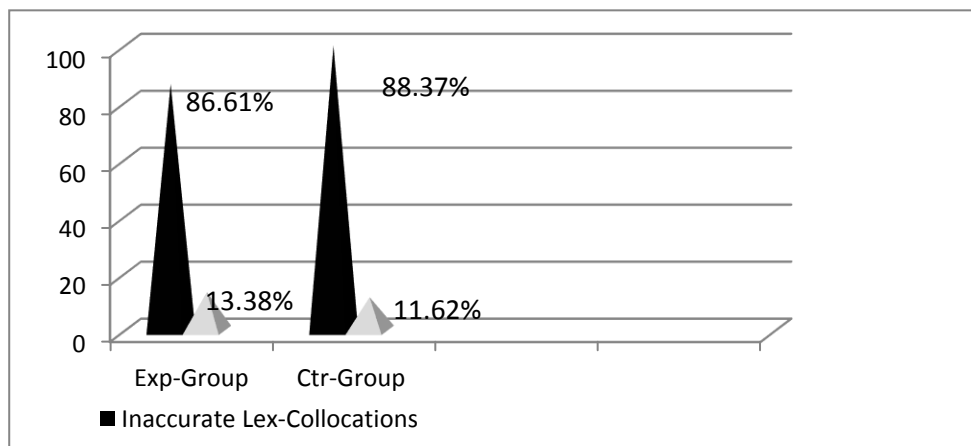


Fig 4.3 Statistical Findings of Students' Most Accurate and Inaccurate Lexical Collocations in Actual Use

Therefore, we can deduce that both the experimental and control groups share almost similar statistical results with regard to lexical collocations misuse and efficient use. The analysis of their speech samples revealed the underlying truth that the average number of word combinations use was insignificant compared to their so far attained proficiency level. The calculation of students' mean of collocational use gave the following results:

Type of the Equation	Mean = $\frac{\Sigma X}{\Sigma N}$
Significance of the Symbols	
ΣX	Score of Accurate Lexical Collocations
ΣN	The Subjects' Total Number in both the Exp-Ctrl Groups
The Exp-Group Mean	$\frac{17}{20}=0.85$
The Ctrl-Group Mean	$\frac{15}{20}=0.78$

Concerning the temporal factors that we have decided to emphasize among others, including mid-clause and end of clause pauses in addition to the mean-length of runs, they have simply been treated separately. Pause location has been the centre of interest of several studies (Skehan and Foster, 2005, and Takavolli and Foster, 2011), where it has been revealed that end of clause pauses are a very normal process in a native speaker's speech, by contrast to the mid-clause type, which is quite unusual and can be regarded as a dysfluency factor. It is true that such distinction between both types of pauses has no effect whatsoever on the findings of those former studies, as they have been explored together rather than one by one. However, in the case of our research study, this will help us determine whether our L2 students can cope with instant speaking effectively by placing pauses where they should be. In addition, mean length of runs has also been emphasized.

The analysis of the participants' speech excerpts has been a very daunting task as it has been calculated manually. Most of students' responses to the pre-oral test prompts totaled 50 to 60 seconds. Only three students spoke for 3.30 seconds probably the most motivated ones. Following Riggensbach (2000), silent pauses be it

a mid-clause or an end of clause have been restricted to 3 seconds. Moreover, for an efficient distinction of end of clause pauses, we have paid an undue attention to their placement in the stretches of speech samples. To this end, the occurrence of end of clause pauses has not been limited to its usual use wherein pausing between two clauses /utterances is used to mark the clausal ends, but also to natural breaks as it is the case with the following example: “What do I like ? -pause- I like being surrounded by my loving ones-pause- including my parents, brothers and sisters-pause- but also friends etc...” Furthermore, if pauses occurred prior to a conjunction as in the following: “I hate scary movies especially those where there is too much killing –pause- and –pause- also etc...”, then both pre and post pauses between conjunctions would be counted as end of clause pauses. In order to handle the third indicator namely that of mean length of runs, we calculated the number of spoken syllables between pauses. Once the necessary adjustments have been explained to the other instructors, we have proceeded to the statistical calculations phase wherein the mean of pretest scores of the three selected fluency measurement indicators has been computed. The tables below display the preliminary results of the pre-oral test with regard to speaking fluency.

Fluency Rating Indicators	Mean of the Pre-oral Test Score
Number of Syllables per seconds	2.70
Rate of end-of-clause pauses	9.65
Rate of mid-clause pauses	8.34
Rate of both mid and end- of clause pauses	12.90
Mean Length of Runs between pauses.	7.64

Table.4.10 Mean of Pre-oral Test Scores Prior to the Implementation of the Lexical Syllabus

It should be noted that the number of high achievers in terms of pausation placement and mean length of runs between pauses is quite insignificant by comparison to those who have delivered poorer performances. Indeed, more than 70% of our participants were counted amongst the low achievers as their rate of

pauses surpassed the normal rate which is estimated to 3 seconds. The graphic illustration below demonstrates the statistical findings.

Achievement Groups	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
High Achievers	2	10%	1	5.26%
Moderate Achievers	4	20%	6	31.57%
Low Achievers	14	70%	12	63.15%
Total	20	100%	19	100%

Table 4.11 Students' Achievement Scores in terms of Oral Fluency

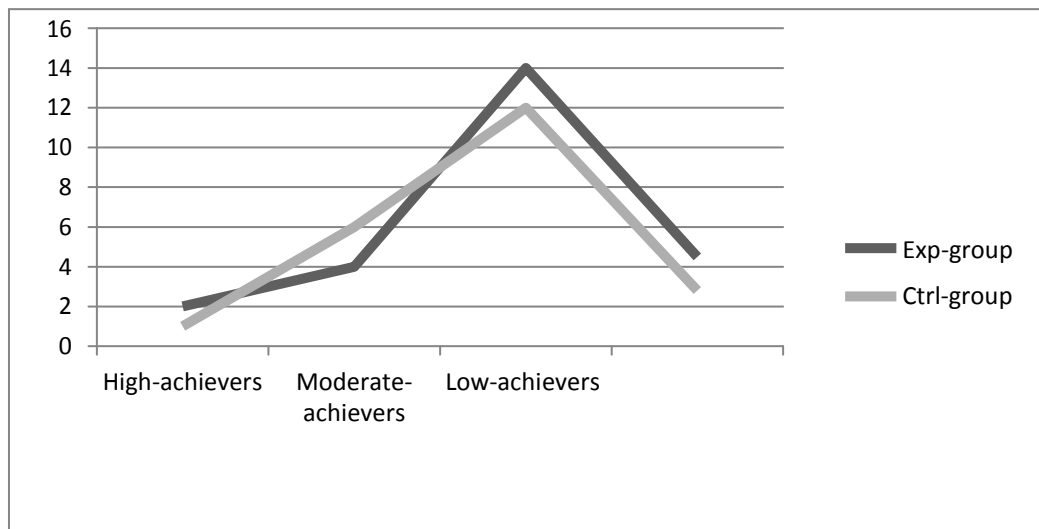


Fig.4.4 Students' Achievement Scores in terms of Oral Fluency

Results' Summary

It is common knowledge that grammar has always been granted greater consideration than vocabulary due to some interfering factors. In fact, a good mastery of grammatical structures has always been the prime target to be achieved in the EFL classroom. Such premise has been passed on from one generation to another, which explains why the idea of emphasizing grammar over vocabulary is still persistent even at a university level. Gaining accuracy in both grammatical and lexical use is achievable provided that an integrated approach is to be utilized.

Integrating rules of grammar and lexical collocability is to the benefit of students as this will have a direct impact on their overall language proficiency and will strike a balance between their grammatical and lexical competence, which should develop simultaneously. The analysis phase, where the speech samples excerpts of 39 first-year students have been analyzed, indicated that grammar as a language component had a devastating impact on students' speech delivery, but not as much as lexical deficiency. Indeed, the inappropriacy of the selection of word combinations used by the students was a serious hindrance to deliver smooth stretches of speech that combine both grammatical and lexical accuracy.

For the greatest majority of the students, lexical collocations were a mere fusion of words combined randomly and based on the false impression that rules of collocability are the same for all foreign languages. Their speech samples revealed how they generalize rules from the Arabic and French languages and apply them to the English language resulting in a real confusion. This could be vividly perceived in students' instances of those pseudo-collocations. It is quite obvious that such phenomenon stems from their unfamiliarity with the concept of collocations itself, but also from the fact that they are unaware of the patterns of organization that govern the English language, which are not based on randomness but rather on convention. If natural use of the target language is to be attained, then students' attention should be drawn to those lexical combinations by deploying some specialized resources. It remains to see whether the implementation of the suggested program has any positive impact on first year students' oral fluency or not. This is going to be revealed in the next phase.

The Treatment Phase

So as to introduce students to lexical collocations and their correct use, we have designed a lexically-based syllabus meant to teach how words combine with each other in a native-like fashion. Our primary goal was to direct students attention to those word combinations that most of us encounter on a daily basis when watching TV serials, movies, YouTube videos, songs etc..., and that some of us are not even aware of their existence. In addition to raising students' awareness with regard to the utility of lexical collocations, we also aimed at assessing the potential impact of such

type of syllabus on first year students' fluency level, which was deplorable even after seven years of intensive instruction. To this end, we have instructed 39 students divided into an experimental group (the one which has received the treatment) and a control group (receiving no special treatment whatsoever) during 6 months.

Each group was lectured in a three-hour weekly class. Treatment sessions were essentially based on class work, wherein participants have been introduced to some of the most commonly used collocations all gathered into a 24-unit program, but only half of them has been fully explored due to time constraints. Each of those concocted units presented students with a selection of lexical collocations stemming from an array of referential sources namely: key words for fluency (2004, intermediate level), Key Words for Fluency (2005, post-intermediate level), Using Collocations for Natural English (2010), Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Students of English (2012), and the Online Corpus Concordance English v.8.

Proceedings of the Work Classes

The Control Group

By contrast to the experimental group, the non-experimental one received an ordinary instruction that can be found in any typical oral expression session. Debate topics were chosen and suggested by the instructor so that students get the time to get prepared beforehand. Besides, in order to promote teacher-student collaboration, students' suggestions were also taken into consideration with regard to topics of discussion. During class, students were expected to achieve effective interaction/communication by showcasing their skills in convincing, arguing for or against, explaining, justifying, criticizing, also comparing and narrating some personal anecdotes in relation to the topic or providing facts including statistics, polls etc... Obviously, most topics were adapted to the students' level. A typical session included a question- answer process wherein students were assigned some question type to which they were expected to return the answer in the most effective way. At this stage, no undue focus was directed to grammatical accuracy as this would compel students to abstain from speaking, which is not the intended goal. Regarding vocabulary, and like most teachers, we have adopted an individualistic approach

where newer items were learnt isolatedly. Hence, lexical collocations were completely disregarded with the control group.

In sum, the control group was meant to develop its interactional skills without following any particular syllabus whatsoever, added to the fact that vocabulary was taught based on the traditional method rather than drawing their attention to the formulaic nature of the target language by incorporating lexical collocations.

15.2 The Experimental Group

Unlike the control group, participants from the experimental one have been instructed with a lexically-based program, which has been devised by the researcher herself. The classroom environment was marked by its focus on lexical collocations which were presented directly to the students through meaning-visual aids association. To put this in other words, the presentation phase was elaborated in a way that students had to recall the meaning of some topic or word-related collocations through direct visualization. In some other instances, patterns of lexical collocations were incorporated into short chunks of explanatory texts in order to familiarize the students with their imbedded meanings. Prior to the implementation of the suggested program, participants have been made aware of the significance of lexical collocations and their potential impact on L2 oral fluency.

Delivery of Classes

Both the experimental and control groups had the same hourly volume per week. However, each division has been instructed according to some pedagogical method. While the latter has received a rather traditional instruction, the former was taught with a lexically-based syllabus highlighting lexical collocations. During class participants were supposed to complete three phases. First, the presentation phase wherein a number of topic-related collocations were introduced to the students through direct visualization. To strengthen motivation, celebrities' pictures have been used. An excerpt from the suggested syllabus has been provided below for a better projection of the presentation phase:

Unit one: People/ Physical Appearance

Note⁶: The description of somebody's facial features includes the face, eyes, nose, lips, hair, eyebrows and even the ears and eyelashes.

a. The word face collocates with several adjectives. The diagram below illustrates some of the most commonly used types.



Oval

Square

Round

Oblong

Heart

Diamond

Source: Speak So That I May See You (p3)

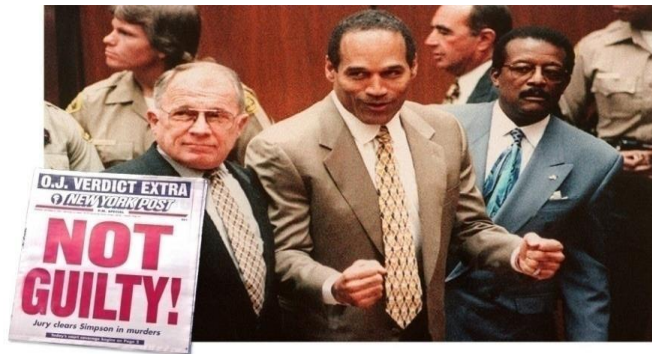
It is worth noting that not all lexical collocations could be associated with their corresponding pictures. It is for this reason that we had recourse to textual clues from which the meaning of word combinations could be deduced. While units such as: Physical Appearance, Food and Lifestyle, Housing, Clothing etc... were based on instant deduction, others as it were the case with Crime, Education, Illegal Immigration required the incorporation of related lexical collocations within short chunks of texts. Though deemed unnecessary, pictures have also been used with those units as they provide a colorful presentation. The sample that follows illustrates how formulaic expressions were presented using this method.

Unit Eight: Crime and Punishment

Note⁴: When a criminal is **brought to justice**, a panel of judges in addition to two juries decides on the kind of **punishment** he/ she should be **meted out to**. **The handed down sentence** will depend on whether the crime committed is of a low-high level type. Generally, if **the criminal act** is of a petty type, the convict **serves a jail term** ranging from one to five years. However, if it is an aggravated felony, he/she will be sent to prison where longer sentences are carried out.

Source: Speak So That I May See You (p150)

Note⁵: **Capital punishment / Death penalty** is generally inflicted on dangerous murderers. However, **getting justice for** the hapless victims is not always possible because of some legal loopholes that many criminals can take advantage of. As it were the case with OJ Simpson, an American football player, who purportedly killed his wife and **won acquittal** though all evidence pointed at him as being the real killer.



Source: Speak So That I May See You (p150)

As it can be seen from the excerpts above, the collocations brought into focus were all written in bold to avoid to the students the burden of skimming through the texts in order to figure out which phrases fall into the category of word combinations and which ones do not. Besides, all sessions have been conducted with the aid of a data show for a vivid visualization of the pictures. Hand outs were also handed over in order to be kept for immediate or later use. During this phase, students were expected to get a good grasp of topic-related-words and their corresponding collocates. In addition to solid grasping, they were also urged to retain those newly encountered expressions through immediate use. For example, during the presentation of the descriptive features of people's physical appearance, students

were engaged into a question-answer activity, trying to find out which type of face, nose, lips etc... corresponds to theirs. And this applies to all the content units of the suggested syllabus. Such purposeful and preparatory activity contributed tremendously to the retention of those collocations prior to the practice and production phase. Obviously, the immediate implementation of the syllabus could not be done without having held an introductory lecture about collocations and their different patterns. These latter were presented through explanatory examples that could be easily assimilated by the students.

In the ensuing phase namely 'Practice makes perfect', participants had to put the majority of the introduced lexical collocations into practice so as to stimulate the transition of the already provided input into intake. Most of the implemented activities were meant to tap and sharpen students' mnemonic strategies and obeyed to two main criteria namely accessibility but also gradation. Visual aids were a key component in this phase too. A range of practice activity- types has been employed to be part of the suggested syllabus; these latter included sentence completion as in the following:

Unit Two: Recreational Lifestyle/ Food and Drinks
Practice Makes Perfect

Task one: What do you think the people on the pictures below should/ should not- can/cannot- must/must not do?

- P1. That man should g.....
- P2. Kids should not be allowed to eat j.....
- P3 That woman should think twice. She must s.....to a v.....
- P4. We can avoid n.....by replacing our unhealthy e.....h..... with healthier ones.
- P5. That kid has a h.....
- P6. Sugary food should be.....
- P7. That woman should not s.....
- P8. We mustn't s.....
- P9. The woman must be t.....
- P10. We must not twith unhealthy food.
- P11. The man in the white blouse must be a w.....
- P12. V.....can easily lapse into a buying fever.

Source: Speak So That I May See You (p72)

It is quite obvious that in order to facilitate the quick retrieval and guessing of the corresponding collocations, students were provided with hints as shown in the previous activity. MCQ's have also been incorporated in the program.

Unit Two: Recreational Lifestyle/ Movies and Series

Practice Makes Perfect

Task three: Choose the correct answer.

1. Movies are made with a

- a. Surveillance camera
- b. Polaroid camera
- c. Motion picture camera

2. Avatar is a

- a. White and black movie
- b. Colored movie

3. Who is responsible for budgeting, scheduling, scripting and marketing a film?

- a. A film production company
- b. A business corporation
- c. A trading company

4. A movie is also called a

- a. Documentary
- b. Motion picture
- c. TV soap

4. What venue serves for viewing films?

- a. Movie theatre
- b. Auditorium
- c. Amphitheatre

5. How do we call the commercial that is shown before the exhibition of a feature movie at cinema?

- a. Movie trailer
- b. Movie review
- c. Movie plot

6. When do movie premiere's take place

- a. During the opening night
- b. During midnight
- c. During the Oscars season

7. Newly produced films are watchable once they officially

- a. Come over
- b. Come in
- c. Come out

Source: Speak So That I May See You (p97)

It should not go unnoticed that those sample activities were not exclusive as they have been used along some other varieties such as mistake correction and answering questions.

Unit One: People/ Personality Traits

Practice Makes Perfect

Task two: How would you describe your college roommate/housemate?

**Is he/she purrefect?
to be true?**

Is he/she too good



Is he/she your nemesis?

Source: Speak So That I May See You (p25)

The last phase was devoted to the efficient reintroduction of the previously-learnt collocations into students' final oral assignments wherein they were expected to demonstrate their full understanding of the formulaic expressions they have been introduced to. This phase provides students with additional practice so as to reinforce and ensure the temporary entrenchment of the collocations brought into focus. It is no strange fact that the passage from short term to long term memory leading to automatization goes beyond classroom practice. It is for this reason that we have instructed students to avoid showing contentment with classroom assignments and that some personal endeavour was needed in order to achieve a high-level memorization of the language components they have encountered throughout the oral expression sessions. Thus, the totality of the implemented practice activities

including those of the third phase is deemed insufficient for a successful acquisition of the introduced collocations; extra practice is required.

Most of the implemented tasks in the production phase were purely conversational, in the sense that students were meant to engage in dual talks, classroom debates, or simple monologues depending on the suggested topics. The majority of the content units required a selection of optional conversational topics from which students had the freedom to choose the situation or topic that inspired them most. Once their choice was made, they were given a time limit for preparation before acting out their dialogues in class. However, due to the complexity of some topics, which required internet use, students were allowed to get prepared at home too. Here are some illustrating samples:

Unit Five: Attitudes and Opinions

Time for some more practice:

Task three: 1. Timothy Donner is a seventeen year old teenaged boy, known for being America's most famous polyglot. Despite his young age, he has a special knack for learning foreign languages. When interviewed by the New York Times magazine, he admitted having a clear preference for learning languages since he was five. Watching cartoons, listening to music, and most of all coming into close contact with natives were his main learning methods. Uptil now, he is able to speak more than twenty foreign languages at different levels of fluency. He aspires to learn more as nothing provides him with sheer enjoyment. What about you? Have you developed a particular liking for a certain hobby? and why?

2. When Maria Schriver, Arnold Schwarzenegger's ex wife, found out about her husband's affair with their Guatemalan housekeeper, she immediately filed for divorce. She could not get over his infidelity and give her broken marriage a much-needed fresh start to rekindle their romance all over again. By contrast, Hilary Clinton preferred to stay with her cheating husband Bill after six months of reflection and separation. Do you approve or disapprove of women who tolerate marital infidelity? And do you think that cheating husbands should be given a second chance?

Source: Speak So That I May See You (p130-131)

The Post-oral Test Description

The post-oral test was meant to measure the degree of efficiency of the suggested program and whether it had any significant statistical impact on first year students' oral fluency after having received instruction for about six months. To this end, two criteria have been taken into account to ensure its validity. First; quality in the sense that it should combine adaptability, accessibility in addition to being well-defined. A successful completion of the test required the application of the already encountered collocations in class into students' oral performances in the most efficient way possible. The second criterion is none other than quantity implying that students should be able to strike a balance between idiomaticity and creativity. To

put this in other words, there has to be a harmonious fusion between creative and idiomatic speaking just like in native speech.

Objectives of the Post-oral Test

Unlike the pre-oral test which was meant to diagnose the participants' actual level of oral fluency, the post-oral one targeted the program's successful fulfillment of its initial goals. It has been devised with the intent of obtaining an objective evaluation of the experimental group's achievements in oral expression. It was mainly prepared to help the researcher in answering the following question: Would the implementation of a lexically-based syllabus to the oral expression class have any significant impact on the deficient fluency level of first-year English students? So as to get this question properly answered, the test was designed to:

- assess students' ability to use seven types of collocations in their oral performances.

- demonstrate whether there are any subsequent statistical differences between the pre-and post-oral test results (before and after the treatment phase differences and correlations).

It is quite obvious that the post-oral test has been administered right after the treatment phase wherein the suggested syllabus has been put into practice with the experimental group.

Preparation of the Post-oral Test

In the pre-oral test three main fluency indicators have been stressed upon. Likewise, the same measurement features have been maintained for the post-oral test. These latter included mid-clause and end of clause pauses added to mean-length of runs, but above all accuracy in combining words with their corresponding collocates. The post-oral test construction went through a piloting phase. In fact, we had to consult a panel of teachers on what to include and exclude from this decisive test so as to be able to turn students' oral performances into countable figures to be later compared with results from the pre-oral test. After the consultation, we have been recommended to group sub-topics into more comprehensive topics to which participants could respond at length. For instance, sub-topics from the very first unit from the syllabus under the name of 'people' have been combined and treated as one

rather than being dealt with separately. Henceforth, the number of conversation topics constituting the post-oral test was about 12. The use of visual aids was imperative especially with topics wherein students were expected to provide a detailed description of someone or something with the slightest detail. Here is the list of topics that built up the post-oral test:

Content Unit	Topic
People	<p>-Look at the three following pictures, and then describe them thoroughly based on the physical features of the people they depict? (the pictures represented an Asian, a European and an African).</p> <p>-Who amongst the three is physically more attractive and why?</p> <p>-Here is a picture depicting Angela Merkel’s apartment and Donald Trumps’ house. What does this tell you about their personalities?</p> <p>-Here is another picture depicting Angelina Jolie during her visit to a refugee camp and that of the Lebanese singer Nancy Ajram. What do you think?</p>
Recreational Lifestyle	<p>“Embellish your house’ or ‘Zain Darek’ is an Algerian TV show where participants are given the opportunity to redecorate one or two rooms in their respective houses on account of their personal tastes. If you were the lucky winner of such TV show, which part of your house will you completely refurbish?</p>
Food and Drinks	<p>The Algerian version of Top Chef has premiered on Echorouk TV in 2016; its very first winning finalist was a twenty-two year old law student turned chef. What do you think of people who abandon their respective professional careers to fulfill their passion especially if this latter relates to cooking? Is it worth taking the risk?</p> <p>-What do you think of the Algerian chefs hosting their TV shows on Samira and Echorouk TV? Do they meet</p>

	<p>the professional international standard in cookery? Who's your favorite chef? And what recipe of his or hers do you prefer?</p>
<p>Sports and Fitness</p>	<p>Look at the following pictures and then answer the questions below: (the pictures show handicapped people practicing different types of sports)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -What kind of emotions do they inspire? -Which kinds of sport are being practiced? And which one is Algerians' favorite? -In spite of its endless benefits, Algerian people do not have a sports culture. For instance, if a man or a woman is seen running outside early in the morning, they would encounter blatant prejudice. What about you? Are you sporty? And do you have any favorite sport in particular? -A fitness club is the only place where you can find a wide selection of sport equipments. People abroad and even here in Algeria join in and are ready to pay exorbitant membership fees so as to lose weight or shape some particular part of their bodies. What is your favorite sport equipment? And why? (students are shown pictures of the sports equipments that they have already been introduced to during class as a reminder.)
<p>Health and Sickness</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Eating healthy, drinking healthy and breathing healthy is the only way to remain healthier for as long as we can live. Most physicians recommend their patients to go on a healthy diet and have a good workout on a daily basis, but most patients are viewed as undisciplined as they usually go against their physicians' recommendations. What about you? Have you ever fallen sick? Was it a minor or a chronic disease? After the medical checkup, did you literally follow your doctor's recommendations? - Do you think people should have regular annual

	<p>check-ups even when they are not sick? Why?</p> <p>-What do you think of Algerian doctors? Are they competent enough?</p> <p>- Cancer targets the strongest and weakest of people, alike. Nobody is spared even athletes, who are a role model for most ordinary people. Diana Golden was a Ski legend who fought cancer till her last breath. She had a breast cancer due to which she needed to undergo a bilateral mastectomy. She succumbed to the disease after a long uphill battle. What if you or one of your relatives were diagnosed with such a fearsome disease, how would you react? Will you embrace the disease as if it were a transient and short-term cold, and fight it off till your full remission? Or will you simply give in to your ill-fate and do nothing about it?</p>
<p>Movies and Series Music and Books</p>	<p>-Gone with the wind, an adaptation of Margaret Mitchell's novel of the same name is the highest-grossing movie of all time. It features the very gorgeous Vivien Leigh along with the charismatic Clark Gable in the leading roles. Over the passing years, no movie could topple its box-office record.</p> <p>-What do you think of nowadays movies by comparison to those of the golden era? What movie have you watched recently? Was the plot of the movie quite immersive? Can you share it with us?</p> <p>-2Pac was a very famous American rapper, who was shot to death twenty years ago. Despite his outward appearance, he was said to be such a voracious reader. Are you an avid reader? What kinds of books do you usually read? In your leisure time, do you prefer to get engrossed in a book or listen to a piece of music?</p> <p>-How do you find Algerian music? Is it worth listening to or do you have any reservations? What about</p>

	<p>worldwide music? How would you rank the following types: English, French, Indian, Egyptian, Lebanese and Khalidji?</p>
<p>-Liking and Disliking</p> <p>-Praising and Criticizing</p> <p>-Agreeing and Disagreeing</p> <p>-Claiming and Denying</p>	<p>-Do you have any soft spots? What about your petheeves?</p> <p>-Do you approve of people who mock someone because of his/her physical appearance/ sickness/social standing?</p> <p>-It is common practice in India that a soon to be bride should offer the man she is due to marry a large dowry before the wedding ceremony. If she does not, her life will be at stake as she might be immolated with kerosene. What do you think of people who extort a substantial dowry from their in-laws regardless of their financial situation?</p> <p>-Steve Jobs is one of the few celebrities who denied his daughter's paternity because of a long-standing rift with his ex-wife, who incessantly claimed that Lisa was his and no one else's daughter. Do you think that parents should involve their children in their personal arguments? Justify your answer.</p>
<p>Conversation/ Discussion</p> <p>Computer and Internet</p>	<p>-Whom do you usually like to hold longer conversations with, your on or off-line friends? And why?</p> <p>-What conversation topics do you usually cover? Campus problems, Politics, personal issues, sharing new videos, jokes, personal anecdotes etc...</p> <p>-What are the advantages of befriending people from the virtual world? Are they as trustworthy as the ones from the real world?</p> <p>-Do you have any computer skills? What do they include?</p> <p>If your computer crashes during the weekend, will you be able to handle it? And what about the Internet sudden</p>

	shut down, which might exceed a few days? Can you grapple with this?
Crime, Punishment and Justice	<p>-Algerians are viewed as very hot-tempered people. They are easily taunted and pick up fights for very trivial things. In the heat of the moment, some of those fights can escalate into a horrifying crime as it were the case with a twenty- something youth who killed his best friend for a modest sum of money. Such type of crime has become very recurrent in our Algerian society. Why? Is it due to the society's moral breakdown/ ethical degradation? Are there any other interfering factors?</p> <p>-How can we do justice to the innocent victims and their grieving families?</p> <p>- How fair is our penitentiary system? Is it as transparent as in the occidental world? Justify your answer?</p>
Education and Technology	<p>- Do you think that education goes beyond the acquisition of knowledge? How so?</p> <p>-It is claimed that the standard of education amongst Algerian students has witnessed a serious downfall in spite of all the ensuing reforms that have been implemented since the early nineties. What do you think?</p> <p>-Are you a fervent supporter of the LMD system? What do you already know about it? -Does it really promote productivity and creativity as far as technological innovations are concerned? And were there any significant innovations designed by Algerian scientists?</p>
War and Peace	<p>-What do you think of the following quote ‘ basic rights are not offered, they are snatched instead’? What does this imply?</p> <p>-How do you usually solve your own personal problems? Are you the kind of person who gets irritated</p>

	<p>for the slightest thing? Or do you take matters lightly however the circumstances?</p> <p>-A decade ago many Arabic countries starting from Egypt and Tunisia have suppressed a long-simmering rebellion against their corrupt governments, which has eventually set off in 2010 resulting in toppling several presidents counting Hosni Mubarak, Zine el Abidine and El Quadafi. However, some other countries such as Syria could have never imagined that what started as a pacific protest would ever culminate and turn into a civil war instigated by the USA at the very first place as a token of support to the Syrian Tyrant president Bachar el Assad. Consequently, many people found themselves homeless, penniless, restless, orphaned, famished and unwanted since no other country other than theirs could host them all except for some two or three neighboring countries such as Turkey, Lebanon and Germany. Do you think that political issues should be solved peacefully or forcibly i.e by waging wars and deploying weapons?</p> <p>-Considering the dire consequences that ensued due to the Arab Spring, some other Arabic countries such as Algeria preferred to isolate themselves and remain apart from the increasing and unresolved conflicts that led to bringing down several governments. How so? Was it an act of cowardness? What could have happened if the Algerian people decided to protest against their actual government at that time?</p>
<p>Illegal Immigration Unemployment And Poverty</p>	<p>-What are your future plans once you will graduate from the university? Do you intend to pursue a professional career in teaching? Would it be easy to find a job? Have you ever considered immigration as another option for landing up a full-time job? If you had it in your power,</p>

	<p>would you immigrate legally or illegally? And why?</p> <p>-Illegal immigration took on a whole new dimension worldwide. Thousands of youth mostly originating from developing countries risk their lives every day to reach their coveted destinations thinking that this will give them a new lease on life. Most of the conducted surveys revealed that the main reason behind such common phenomenon is the persistent bad living conditions including grinding poverty. In Algeria, for instance, most of the risk-takers have barely hit adulthood with ages ranging from 16 to 35 year-old. Their motives are all the same- reaching Europe so as to settle down. Expecting to find better job opportunities especially for the degree holders, they come to the harsh realization that they will have to make plenty of compromises in order to amass money for survival. What do you think of those people, who leave everything behind them to hanker for a dream that may or may not come true? Is illegal immigration worth the risk?</p>
<p>The Global Financial Crisis</p>	<p>Ten years ago, the world has witnessed the worst economic crisis ever. Neither the developed nor the developing countries could be spared from its dire consequences. It all began when American banks started granting loans to people who were normally deemed unfit as they were all stuck in dead-end jobs and had no stable financial earnings. As a result, the lives of hundreds of thousands of Americans took a downturn. Karim Ullah was one of those down on their luck people who could have never imagined that someday they will find themselves begging on the streets. Many bank debtors like him who due to having defaulted their loan payments, found themselves evicted from their dream houses. What do you think of people who take out</p>

	<p>loans because they are bent on having bigger houses and fancy cars knowing that their financial situation might be deplorable?</p> <p>When do you think people should take out loans?</p> <p>-From a religious perspective, how are bank loans regarded?</p> <p>-Abroad many students apply for loans in order to finance their studies. Years afterwards, they find themselves sinking into a whirlpool of debts. Others prefer to take two or three part-time jobs in order to make ends meet. What are the side effects of such phenomenon?</p>
<p>Corruption /Bribery/ Money Embezzlement and Extortion</p>	<p>-Corruption is a widespread phenomenon that can be found even in the fairest and most transparent countries. However, its intensity pales in comparison with most developing countries especially the major oil-producing ones. How so?</p> <p>Which of those fields is the most corrupt: politics, economy, sports, justice or education? Justify your answer by providing examples of yours.</p> <p>What kind of people is easily corrupted? And why?</p> <p>In spite of being implicated in high-profile corruption affairs, many officials including politicians and company executives have never been stripped off their positions. While lowly menials are unjustly sentenced to long jail terms for crimes that are essentially committed to fend for their families. What do you think of the Algerian legal system? Does it handle corruption affairs with an utmost impartiality?</p> <p>-Some law enforcement representatives and counselors go to great lengths in order to proclaim the innocence of their clients even if they had to resort to some malpractices such as bribery. The legal system in general is embedded in such corrupt acts. In your opinion, can</p>

	<p>we eradicate such phenomenon? How?</p> <p>-Some other malpractices such as money embezzlement and extortion can be found in the least unexpected places such as the virtual world of Facebook? Have you ever witnessed such kind of crime?</p>
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Table.4.12. Suggested Topics for the Post-oral Test

Results and Discussion

So as to avoid any possible bias towards the posttest results, we have been assisted by two other raters from the English department. Obviously, the same rating method used for the pre-oral test has been maintained and applied to the post- oral one. First, we needed to establish an elaborate comparison between the participants’ use of lexical collocations after the treatment phase. The tables that follow illustrate the final results.

	The Experimental Group			
	Before the Treatment Phase		After the Treatment Phase	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Accurate Lexical Collocations in Use	17	13.38%	94	71.21%
Inaccurate Lexical Collocations in Use	110	86.61%	38	28.78%
Total	127	100%	132	100%

Table.4.12. Statistical Findings of the Experimental Group’s Most Accurate and Inaccurate Lexical Collocations in Actual Use

	The Control Group			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Accurate Lexical Collocations in Use	15	11.62%	19	16.81%
Inaccurate Lexical Collocations in Use	114	88.37%	104	92.03%
Total	129	100%	113	100%

Table.4.13. Statistical Findings of the Control Group’s Most Accurate and Inaccurate Lexical Collocations in Actual Use

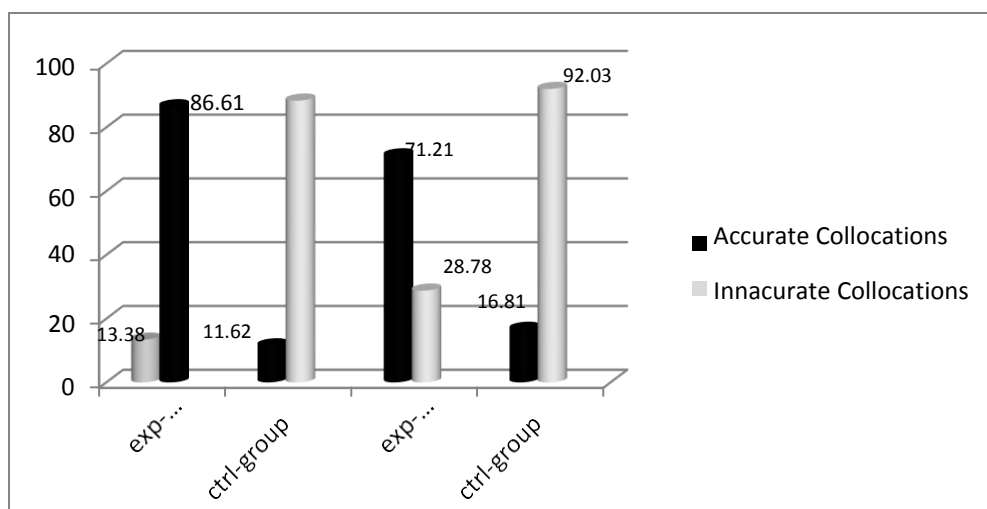


Fig.4.5 Statistical Findings of Students' Most Accurate and Inaccurate Lexical Collocations in Actual Use after the Treatment Phase

It is quite obvious from the collected data that the experimental group has made a noticeable progress by contrast to the control group. The subjects who have received a special training on lexical collocations started using them in their own oral performances. This implies that they have developed an undue awareness of their importance, and that their collocational competence is no longer deficient as it used to be at the very beginning of the year. However, it should be noted that the kind of training they received tackled some specific topics and their related collocations. Hence, so that their collocational competence does not stagnate at some point, students need to explore some other possible ways to acquire lexical collocations by themselves. With regard to the control group which received no formal instruction about lexical collocations, its results remained disastrous. They were still struggling with their streak of miscollocations. The tables below represent students' accurate and inaccurate uses of lexical collocations amongst both the experimental and the control groups.

The Experimental Group	The Control Group
-I wish I had a snub nose.	-My closest friends are the ones I confide in first.
-People with stick out ears are usually laughed at.	-Bollywood movies are very entertaining.
-Forging a strong bond with all of your family members is not something that you can achieve easily.	-I spring out of bed early to avoid my teacher's scolding.

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Most women dream of getting rid of their spare tire. -Every time I want to go on a diet etc... - I don't think I can deal with finicky and pompous people. - We live in a four-roomed flat. -Hazardous sports are adrenaline-fuelled. 	
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Table.4.14. Accurate Samples of Lexical Collocations from the Post-oral Test

The Experimental Group	The Control Group
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -A little nose -I want to build a big family -Nowadays there are no confident people. -Algerian movies do not collect success as the Western ones. - I have a deep preference for football. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -My parents will never offer me their blessing. -I know that it wants efforts. -My true friend is god. -to arrive to my dreams so as to make happiness to my parents. -I do not carry grudge on people.

Table.4.15. Inaccurate Samples of Lexical Collocations from the Post-oral Test

It is revealed from students' samples that the experimental group has surpassed the control group in its use of lexical collocations. As shown in table 4.14., participants have already acquired a nice big stock of lexical collocations that they started incorporating in their oral performances whereas those from the control group were still relying on word to word translation from Arabic to English as in 'to arrive to my dreams' or 'I do not carry grudge on people' whenever they get stuck. Only a few from the control group could use some accurate samples of English collocations, but they remain insufficient as the majority of them have scored badly in terms of collocational use, which had a direct impact on their oral performances during the post-oral test. Those from the experimental group, however, have provided better performances given that they have been instructed with a lexically-based syllabus wherein lexical collocations are at its core. Yet, some participants were prone to

miscollocations despite having received a basic training on accurate collocational use. This indicates that not all students were fully and seriously engaged in the treatment phase, which explains why some of them combined words with their wrong collocants, even though they have already been exposed to their correct use in English.

Just as in the pre-oral test, students' speech samples have been analysed in terms of effective pausation with an undue focus on mid-clause and end of clause pauses in addition to the mean-length of runs. This helped us check whether there was any significant statistical difference between the mean scores of the treatment group in the pre- oral and post-oral tests. Obviously, the effectiveness of the suggested program was statistically measured by the Statistical Package of Social Studies. Students' speech excerpts were as long as those from the pre-oral test, which means that they did not exceed four minutes in duration. The calculation procedure was similar to the one adopted to data from the pre-oral test. Findings from the post-oral test were calculated individually and then compared to those from the pre-oral test so as to see if the implementation of the suggested syllabus had any considerable impact on students' oral fluency or not. The tables below demonstrate the accumulated results from the post-oral test in terms of mid-clause and end of clause pauses in addition to the mean-length of runs.

Fluency Rating Indicators	Mean of the Post-oral Test Score
Number of Syllables per seconds	3.05
Rate of end-of-clause pauses	9.04
Rate of mid-clause pauses	7.91
Rate of both mid and end- of clause pauses	12.07
Mean Length of Runs between pauses.	6.89

Table.4.16 Mean of Post-oral Test Scores Prior to the Implementation of the Lexical Syllabus

Fluency Rating Indicators	Mean of the Pre-oral Test Score	Mean of the Post-oral Test Score	Statistical Differences	T-value
Number of Syllables per seconds	2.70	3.05	0.35	1.401
Rate of end-of-clause pauses	9.65	9.04	0.61	1.491
Rate of mid-clause pauses	8.34	7.91	0.42	1.421
Rate of both mid and end-of clause pauses	12.90	12.07	0.83	1.638
Mean Length of Runs between pauses.	7.64	8.36	0.45	1.441

Table.4.17.Mean of Post-oral Test Scores after the Implementation of the Lexical Syllabus

Significant at $p > 0.01$

The main hypothesis of the study stated that the implementation of a lexically based syllabus to the oral expression class would have a potential impact on first year English students' oral fluency if only a little. The tables from the previous page indicate that there is a slight statistical difference between the oral performances of the treatment group in favor of the post-oral test. In fact, the analysis of students' scores in both the pre-oral and post-oral tests show that there has been a positive development in terms of pausation starting from mid-clause and end of clause pauses in addition to the mean-length of runs. Regarding the first indicator, findings reveal a statistical difference of 0.35s, which is not negligible. We assume that subjects' familiarity with the topics' corresponding lexical collocations has permitted them to save time, which explains why the number of syllables per seconds has increased. They had plenty of possible combinations to be used, and there was no need for them to have resort to their mother tongue or the French language in order to find some other lexical options. Also, rate of end of clause and mid-clause pause have been statistically influenced with differences ranging from 0.61s and 0.42s. This reveals that there has been a positive impact on language processing, which is usually slower due to lexical deficiency and many other factors such as stress, time constraint, unfamiliarity with the conversation topic etc...

Moreover, the mean length of runs has increased from around 7.64s in pre-oral test to 8.36s with a statistical difference of 0.72s. This further indicates that participants' undue reliance on L1 to L2 transfer has diminished tremendously as they have acquired enough collocations to use where necessary. The long string of lexical collocations they have been exposed to for more than five months allowed them to develop a leveled collocational competence, which was almost inexistent before the treatment phase. The development of such type of competence had had a direct impact on students' oral performances, which were less fragmentary than they used to and sounded more or less steady. In sum, it seems that the suggested syllabus had in one way or another impacted students' oral fluency by advancing the importance of lexical collocations over individual words. The following table compares the experimental and the control groups' achievement scores in terms of oral fluency.

Achievement Groups	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
High Achievers	5	25%	2	10.52%
Moderate Achievers	9	45%	6	31.57%
Low Achievers	6	30%	11	57.89%
Total	20	100%	19	100%

Table.4.18 Students' Achievement Scores in terms of Oral Fluency

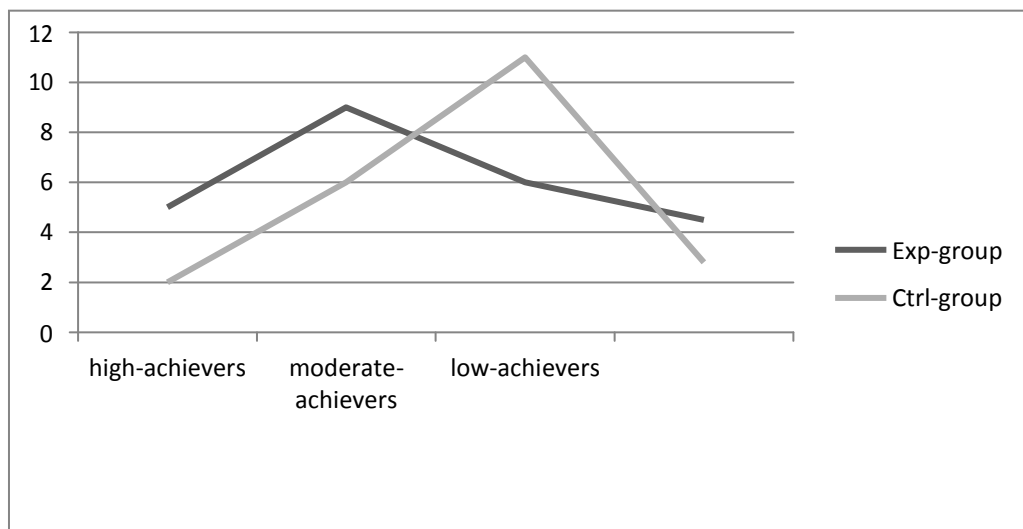


Fig.4.6. Students' Achievement Scores in terms of Oral Fluency

It is worth noting that the control group has been assessed according to the conventional method wherein students are marked according to three main criteria namely grammatical accuracy, fluency and pronunciation. Since they have received no experimental treatment whatsoever, it seems that there has been no significant improvement in their oral skills. Only 10.52% from the total majority have outperformed themselves against 57.89 % who did not score very well added to those having attained the minimum average with 31.57%. This indicates that conventional methods are not as useful and efficient as they seem to be despite the fact that they are meant to foster students' interactional skills. This calls for the adoption of an eclectic approach where several teaching techniques are implemented with the intent of developing students' speaking skills to a higher level of self-efficacy. The experimental group, however, has substantially enhanced its oral performances with 25 % of high achievers, who could take full advantage of their training in lexical collocations which are a basic native-like aspect that should not be overlooked if a high level of oral fluency is to be attained. Moreover, 45 percent of the students counted among the moderate achievers who despite it all could achieve acceptable scores. The number of low achievers has fallen by 40% in the post-oral test as only 30% of the greatest majority performed badly during the assessment phase, which is partly due to their enhanced collocational competence. The next section will be devoted to some significant recommendations and suggestions that EFL teachers should take into account.

Recommendations and Suggestions

Our research study has brought into focus the importance of developing collocational competence so as to achieve a high level of oral fluency which approximates that of native speakers. The status quo shows that lexical collocations have always been marginalized in the EFL classroom and dismissed at the expense of grammatical structures, which consume the total time of teacher instruction. This went on as a long-standing tradition that stood the test of time despite the drastic changes brought to the foreign language teaching curriculum since the implementation of the competency based approach. We have already provided valuable insights about the usefulness of incorporating the teaching of lexical

collocations into the EFL classroom from various empirical researches conducted by renowned scholars. In the two last chapters, we could confirm our hypothesis stating that there is a positive correlation between collocational training and oral fluency development through the devising and implementation of a suggested syllabus based on the tenets of the lexical approach. In the light of the findings of our research study, the following recommendations should be taken into account.

4.21.1. Combining Grammatical and Lexical training

Traditionally, the linguistic focus of the lesson has always been directed towards structural accuracy. Instructors' professional drive could not be detoured from the assumption stating that grammar should be put above all other considerations. Attaining the height of grammatical accuracy was the main target and assessment criterion in the EFL classroom. This persisting belief of the superiority of form over vocabulary kept on being promoted till the early nineties during which the Lexical Approach has been developed by Michael Lewis (1993). This latter explored the possibility of teaching grammar through lexis. Most orthodox teaching methods emphasized grammar neglecting the importance of vocabulary in negotiating meaning. According to Lewis, more attention should be paid to lexical chunks which combine two important criteria namely accuracy and acceptability. These latter are very typical of native speech in which speakers use a set of easily retrievable formulaic expressions including collocations, phrases, idioms, phrasal verbs etc... along with their inherent ability to create long stretches of speech instantly.

It is for this reason that Lewis insists on their inclusion to the EFL classroom. Students should be made aware of their frequent occurrence into the English language so as to be able to combine individual words correctly. This is only attainable when lexical collocations are brought into focus. Several research studies have come to realize that higher degrees of language fluency are found among students who have the ability to use word combinations proficiently (Nattinger and DeCarrico, 1992; Bahns, 1993; Nesselhauf, 2003). So rather than stressing grammar at the expense of lexis, teachers must seek creative ways to combine both as rightly stated by Lewis (2000:45): "practice should be directed towards helping students to collocate words and grammaticalize from words to sentences." Thus, grammaticality

can be acquired through exposure to the rules of words' collocability because the more students' collocational competence evolves; the more accurate they will become moving from one or two collocations to longer and more complex syntactical structures that will mirror their new acquired ability to combine words with a high level of accuracy. Consequently, EFL teachers should consider those implications and train their students to use lexical collocations inside and beyond the walls of the classroom.

4.21.2 Collocational Competence and its Development

Effective communication requires more than a set of grammatical rules to be combined. It is true that grammar shapes one's stretches of speech and pieces of writing with full asymmetry; however, vocabulary is embedded in meaning. Hence, it is impossible to achieve successful meaning negotiation without vocabulary. Most EFL teachers have a tendency to stress grammar over vocabulary on the pretext of laying the basis for a better use of the target language, neglecting vocabulary acquisition in the process. This latter is generally learnt from reading comprehension texts subconsciously without too much insistence on the crucial role it serves in communicative efficiency. This is why it should be treated with particular regard. To do so, teachers must raise their students' awareness of its central importance in conveying meaning. Vocabulary learning should be an integral part of their daily lives and at the core of the classroom lesson. Students should go beyond their ability to mix vocabulary (individual words) up in order to form an infinite number of phrases or sentences. They should also develop a large inventory of lexical collocations that will help them sound more like a native. Their acquisition will have a direct impact on their overall lexical competence which will improve gradually affecting their language proficiency in a very positive way.

It has to be stated that students should not eternally rely on a set of structures and a separate store of individual words to make their messages come across, they should also have a collocational competence of their own. Unfortunately, most EFL teachers neglect the formulaic nature of the target language and give no undue attention to the notion of lexical collocations in their lectures, which explains why most students have a very deficient collocational competence. To reverse the

situation, teachers must adopt some adequate vocabulary learning strategies which are consistent with the main principles of the Lexical Approach. This includes the introduction of common and less common lexical collocations into meaningful contexts to facilitate their retention. Students will get the chance to notice how words combine with each other in actual use. By doing so, they will gradually update their mental lexicon with those word combinations. These latter are rapidly accessible as they are learnt holistically unlike individual words. Besides, rather than wasting their time looking for which words can be brought together in a more or less native-like way, the acquisition of lexical collocations will spare students from falling into the trap of miscollocations. Henceforth, the more collocations are acquired, the less collocational errors are made. In sum, teachers must strike a balance between grammar and vocabulary teaching by setting priorities according to their students' needs. They should also be able to devise lessons fostering collocational knowledge as it contributes to developing fluent language production.

In fact, collocational competence relates to higher levels of language fluency. Only natives have access to this ability to 'produce acceptable and novel collocations' (Lyons,1977:265). Non natives, however, need to acquire this knack of combining words accurately and as proficiently as a native. This could be done through extensive reading and listening. Such an integrated approach has the added advantage of granting students exposure to massive amounts of collocations. The entrenchment of those word combinations occurs at a subconscious level. To put this in other words, collocations with a higher frequency are encountered most of the time be it in spoken or written discourse, this frequent encounter causes them to be retained subconsciously. They simply become part of the mental lexicon without even realizing it. Nevertheless, they can also be taught through practical lesson structures wherein lexical collocations are at the core. Thus, EFL instructors must not neglect the fact that collocational competence is an important prerequisite for a high-performing communicative competence.

The Advantages of Building Collocational Competence

Oral proficiency is only one facet of overall foreign language proficiency, but it is also the very first thing that is observed among EFL students and teachers. Indeed,

having a high level of speaking fluency is a real virtue, the opposite would be considered as a failing especially for someone who has been studying some foreign language for more than 12 years, seven years in both middle and high school and five years at a university level. Some gifted students are already worn up to develop higher levels of oral fluency whereas others are not. Interfering factors differ from one student to another depending on their intellectual intelligence including their ability to demonstrate great powers of concentration and memorization. Many graduate students find themselves facing the ugly truth of being unable to deliver a lecture without having their already established weaknesses coming to the surface. These latter relate to three main areas namely accuracy, pronunciation, but also vocabulary. EFL teachers, at a university level, should take it upon themselves to keep their students update with an array of methods to improve their oral proficiency on the long term.

Developing collocational competence has already been empirically proven to enhance fluency as stated by Lewis (1997:15) “fluency is based on the acquisition of a large store of fixed and semi-fixed prefabricated items.” This type of competence in particular has been completely dismissed in the EFL classroom as shown in the third chapter of this research study, which explains why many of our students have no basic collocational knowledge. It is for this reason that the time allotted to other language components such as grammar and pronunciation should be cut down to be devoted to the teaching of lexical collocations since they are part of native speakers’ proficiency and a major criterion for assessing students’ achievements in terms of language proficiency. Indeed, the acquisition of lexical collocations lifts the burden of language processing thanks to their composite nature. They are immediately retrieved as one single unit from the mental lexicon, and so there is no need to call for one’s ability to select and check which words combine with each other. According to Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992:32): “it is our ability to use phrases, in other words, that helps us speak with fluency. This prefabricated speech has both the advantage of more efficient retrieval and of permitting speakers (and hearers) to direct their attention to the larger structure of the discourse, rather than keeping it focused narrowly on individual words as they are produced.” This implies that not only do they grant lexical correctness, but also allow for more focus on

form/grammar. Thus, fluent speech is the product of stringing lexical chunks together.

Besides, an undue reliance on chunking enhances several temporal factors associated with high levels of fluency including speed of speech rate and pausation. The fact of being in possession of a large repertory of lexical chunks has the advantage of reducing the amount of planning, processing, and encoding due to their easy retrieval. This obviously permits the speaker to be more attentive about some other related tasks during the speaking process. Moreover, if students aspire to achieve native-like fluency, then they should be made aware of the concept of chunking by which they learn to distinguish “constituent bits within the whole” (Lewis, 1993:195). As argued by Pawley and Syder (1983:193), native speakers have the ability to convey meaning using language sequences that combine grammaticality and the quality of being viewed as native-like. It is hence very important that lexical chunking is prioritized as much as teaching sentence construction patterns. This could be done through skimming through authentic reading materials such as newspaper articles, TV movie reviews, magazines etc... in search for typical lexical patterns in the target language. Also, through watching dubbed movies with English subtitles, or surfing on ‘TV Calling Script Library’ which is a very interesting resource of everyday idiomatic expressions. Not only does it provide sample idioms, phrasal verbs, but also lexical collocations in context. As far as oral fluency is concerned, students should be able to complete several assignments revolving around the same type of formulaic sequences so as to ensure their entrenchment. Those sequences need to be used repeatedly, or else they will slip away like most new learnt vocabulary.

Moreover, teachers must guide their students to get them notice the linguistic wrapping of some specific message be it in spoken or written discourse. This will help them sharpen and heighten their sensory skills. Thus, it is to the benefit of students to improve their already established noticing skill, which might not have been properly explored at an earlier stage of their learning. It should be stated that noticing is thought to be an important prerequisite for foreign language learning. This could be due to the fact that sensory information is collected through advanced

noticing. This latter is processed by the brain and turned into intake. It is for this reason that it is the teachers' duty to direct their students' attention to the formulaic nature of the target language through noticing. This process starts in class through engaging students into practice activities wherein they learn to distinguish and identify plenty of lexical patterns by themselves. Once taught, students must put those newly learn items into practice through oral or written productive tasks. A teacher can for instance ask his students to analyze some particular word combination through segmentation (by dividing it into its constituent parts) and then reproduce a similar sample without casting a look again. Ultimately, they will have to establish a comparison between their samples and the ones they have been exposed to so as to check whether there are any necessary corrections (Woolard, 2000, and Frank Boers,2006). Accordingly, these output activities should be maintained beyond the walls of the classroom as homework. But students should also be made responsible for their own learning by making their own personal endeavors to avoid sinking into stagnation.

Pedagogical Implications for EFL Teachers

The implementation of lexically based teaching in the EFL classroom requires an undue consideration of the following points. First, teachers must draw their students' attention to the most basic types of lexical collocations. Those with high frequency occurrence need to be emphasized for an immediate use. For more efficiency, initial instruction has to be directed towards patterns that are frequently used by natives. Collocations marked with a lesser frequency occurrence can be introduced gradually. Second, teachers should avoid teaching unrelated lexical collocations randomly. They need to be grouped according to the topic that they cover. Their organization must be more systematic because this will facilitate their acquisition. However, students' interests and needs must always commensurate with the teachers' choices of the conversation topics and their corresponding collocations as this will induce students to take interest into what is being debated. Hence, teachers should always select their lexical collocations with high caution and organize them within a well-defined topic framework.

Third, extensive practice of the introduced items is required as this will result in their conversion into permanent intake to be called upon whenever related topics are encountered. It is worth noting that recycling is a distinctive characteristic of lexical teaching. It is for this reason that teachers must ensure not to neglect such an important point. A selection of collocation-centered activities can be relied upon so as to achieve a better acquisition. Nevertheless, they should combine two important criteria namely relevance and adaptability. In addition to the three preceding implications, teachers must learn how to design collocation exercises not necessarily as part of a syllabus. They can start reproducing practice activities from resources which are a framework of reference for lexical collocations' use.

Conclusion

The current study looks into the possibility of developing oral fluency through the implementation of a lexical syllabus to the oral expression class. The experimental phase has provided some satisfactory results regarding students' speaking proficiency development. It was revealed that the experimental group has outscored the control one in both its use of lexical collocations since they have been the object of a six-month training, but also in their overall fluency level. The fact that they had enough collocations to use contributed enormously to their ability to express themselves while being confronted to instant speaking wherein both a high level of creativity and idiomaticity are required. However, it should not go unnoticed that the set of collocations included in the suggested syllabus are just a drop in the ocean, and that an ongoing training is required for a further development of students' collocational competence, which is an important prerequisite for native-like fluency. Overall, our hypothesis speculating that a lexically-based syllabus would be very beneficial to English First-Year students at the University Centre of Relizane has been validated.

The General Conclusion

This longitudinal classroom-based study explores the potential impact of an implemented lexically-based syllabus to the module of oral expression on English first-year students over a period of six months at the University Centre of Relizane. It is an attempt to answer the following research question: To what extent do first-year students benefit from the implementation of a lexical syllabus? And does it really improve their oral skills? Henceforth, the main purpose of this investigation is to assess the efficiency of lexically-based teaching with a closer look at first-year students' oral fluency level.

The theoretical part revolved around two important concepts relevant to our research work namely the Lexical Approach and Lexical collocations. The very first chapter sheds light on the Lexical Approach as a language teaching approach that lays emphasis on collocation-based training for attaining a high level of fluency. It introduces LA as a resulting product of the nineties' developments in linguistics and corpora studies. A mine of databases of concordance information have been created shifting focus to lexical rather than grammatical structures at that time. Lexical chunking has been proved to be a substantial part of nativized speech. And individual words were no longer the only constituent part of the mental lexicon; there were also what came to be known as formulaic sequences, memory-based in nature, hence, ready for immediate retrieval. The principles underpinning the Lexical Approach have been put to the test by several researchers who could provide tangible evidence of its beneficiality.

For instance, Zhang (1993) indicated that his subjects have demonstrated a high level of ability in using collocations efficiently resulting in very sophisticated written scripts. Thus, the acquisition of collocations had a very positive impact on non-native juniors' pieces of writing. Sixteen years later, Zhang has conducted a similar study to find out whether there has been any correlation between L2 learners' oral fluency and collocational use. His findings were in favor of collocation use as many of his subjects became more proficient and expressed themselves with high efficiency. Similarly, Sung's study (2003) has explored whether L2 oral fluency correlated

positively with collocation use proving that her subjects demonstrated a significant improvement thanks to the collocation-based training they have undergone.

The Lexical Approach could be distinguished by its view of the indivision of grammar and lexis. According to Lewis, language is full of lexico-grammatical units that do not require any kind of restructuring. Rather than learning them individually, learners should memorize them as whole units. Consciousness-raising is another distinctive feature of the Lexical Approach. According to Lewis, successful noticing can be easily achieved through input-centered activities that help learners analyse and deconstruct lexical routines into their bare forms. This will help them develop a better understanding of those sequences and contribute significantly to their memorization. In addition to the two preceding distinctions, LA is characterized by the importance it attaches to collocational competence. Moreover, Lexically-based teaching rests upon the OHE (Observe-Hypothesize- Experiment) paradigm for the acquisition of lexical collocations. It is divided into three stages through which learners observe the language item under study, putting forward their own hypotheses about its structural construction in the process and then carrying out their own personal experiment through practice. Finally, reinforcement activities are a substantial part of the Lexical Approach. Without them the automatization process can never take place.

Obviously, the Lexical syllabus is based on those distinctions and is usually described as product-oriented and analytic at the same time. It is also multi-word patterns and structure-based highlighting lexical chunks over individual words. In addition, it prioritizes both micro and macro language functions such as asking for directions, making suggestions, agreeing and disagreeing and informal inviting. Furthermore, it is an independent syllabus that does not relate to any kind of methodology. Willis (1990) lexical syllabus sample obeys to all those rules, but also combines usefulness and conciseness. In terms of methodology, he relied upon a task-based approach to foster language use within the classroom in order to achieve meaning exchange. It has to be stated that an effective implementation of a lexical syllabus depends on a careful selection of the vocabulary to be incorporated. It is for this reason Willis had recourse to the resultant analysis of the Cobuild Project. In

spite of the several attempts made to polish its image, the Lexical Approach was widely criticized for not containing a detailed learning theory. Some researchers such as Thornbury (1998) claimed that due to its incoherent learning theory, the Lexical Approach should be denied the title of approach.

Since the Lexical Approach gives much priority to lexical collocations, the second chapter was completely devoted to them. Throughout our extensive exploration, we found out that several appellations could be associated with the word collocation namely prefabricated units, prefabs, phraseological units, lexical chunks, multi-word units or formulaic sequences. The word collocation itself is used to refer to a combination of a group of two or more words that should be acquired as a whole. However, such definition is not as comprehensive as it seems to be since there are two adopted approaches for their interpretation: the Statistical /Frequency-based/Phraseological Approach (Nesselhauf, N.2005:12) and the Traditional Approach. Unlike the Phraseological approach which applies a statistical criterion in its analysis of collocations, the traditional approach uses the lexical one. But it has to be stated that both approaches are complementary since they drew on from each other's results. Subsequent studies also led to the classification of collocations into several categories using a variety of dimensional criteria such as their strength, fixedness and structure also their non-compositionality, non-substantiality and non-modifiability.

Among the many categories within which collocations fit into, there are the grammatical and lexical types. According to Benson et al (1986), eight internal structures can be attributed to grammatical collocations: the noun+preposition, the noun+to+infinitive, the noun+that clause, preposition+noun, adjective+preposition, predicate adjective+to infinitive, adjective+that clause and collocational verb patterns. As to the lexical type, Benson identified seven combination patterns: transitive verb+noun/pronoun/prepositional phrase, verb+a noun, adjective+noun, noun+noun,adverb+adjective, and verb+adverb. Two further types namely the open and restricted categories have been distinguished by Cowie and Howarth (1996). The open type is less fixed than the restricted one as it allows the substitution of the node and its collocant without resulting in any kind of semantic change. In addition, the

weak and the strong collocations abide to the same dimensional variable which is that of fixedness. The weaker category collocates with a series of other words whereas the stronger type is dissociable from its collocant due its degree of exclusivity (Schmidt, 1977). The technical and academic types are bound to some specific field and register. They are considered as terminological units that are register-dependent as it is the case with ‘vigorous depressions and dull highlights’ which are mainly associated with the field of meteorology.

The pervasiveness of language collocations in nativized speech provide irrefutable evidence about their considerable relevance to language learning and teaching. Vocabulary teaching in general has always been relegated to a secondary position and regarded as a minor component due to the deep-seated views about the importance of grammar. It is years later that further research has proved that grammar by itself is not sufficient for the achievement of language proficiency. As a result, vocabulary teaching received avid interest during the eighties and nineties and started to stimulate more curricular attention than ever. At the very beginning only word for word combinations were emphasized; however, it was revealed that language production also involved an undue reliance on pre-constructed multi-word combinations. It is for this reason that more and more practitioners started to introduce them in their EFL classes as pedagogical tools that should never be deconstructed into their component parts as they obey to very strict combinatorial requirements. According to Palmer (1933), the best method for developing collocational competence is rote memorization.

In the practical part, the researcher incorporated both quantitative and qualitative techniques into the conducted study. This method is more commonly known under the name of mixed methods or multi-strategy research. An initial sample of 60 first-year students has been chosen to be the focus of research. It was divided into an experimental and a control group. Both consisted of 30 subjects each. However, due to some administrative changes, the total number of participants has been estimated to 39 only. The quantitative measure consisted at administering a questionnaire to the whole sample of informants before the treatment period. In addition, a set of interviews have been conducted with English university teachers

from the same department wherein the experiment has been carried out during the academic year 2016-2017. The questionnaire aimed at testing students' prior knowledge of lexical collocations and measuring their willingness and eagerness to improve their deficient collocational competence. The interview, however, was addressing English teachers who have been teaching for more than ten years. Their total number was about seven. Both measures have been conducted during the same period i.e. at the very beginning of the year.

Because the whole experimental sample did not exceed 39 students, we had to handle missing data by involving a group of second year students in the quantitative phase. Thus, the total number of participating students was about 62. Findings indicated that both the experimental and control groups presented a serious problem with lexical collocations and that they had not been trained properly in language formulaic sequences during secondary school. Besides, what most subjects' responses had in common was the insistence on the priority of grammar instruction over all other language components including reading and listening comprehension in addition to vocabulary. They all agreed upon the fact that they could not combine words accurately which explains why their English was more artificial than natural sounding. Moreover, they admitted that the unlimited number of miscollocations they made prevented them from attaining effective communication. Overall, they were all eager to know more about lexical collocations and enhance their collocational competence. Likewise, the majority of second-year students revealed not having a good grip of lexical collocations' use. Only a few were found to be more proficient and had considerable collocational knowledge. This led us to the conclusion that special attention must be directed to the teaching of collocations through the implementation of a suggested syllabus.

The results obtained from the teachers' interview indicated that despite their relevant experience in language teaching as they were all former secondary school teachers before joining the university, they did not pay undue attention to vocabulary teaching especially collocations. Instead, attaining high levels of grammatical accuracy was all that matters since it negatively affects the overall structure of students' spoken and written performances. Some of them admitted not being well-

versed in terms of lexical teaching and that they taught vocabulary using a more or less conventional method. Those who knew about it revealed that much of their classroom time was devoted to developing some specific patterns of interaction. Some collocations might be brought into focus without further analysis. Their main target was to help students move up the proficiency ladder in the most effective way. Nevertheless, they have all shown interest in teaching collocations in their respective classes.

The qualitative data for the research study came from two principal tools mainly a pre-oral and post-oral test in addition to the suggested syllabus which has been implemented during the treatment phase with the experimental group. Only twenty students of different proficiency levels mainly high, medium and low have received instruction in lexical collocations for at least six months. By contrast, the control group has been trained to develop its negotiation skills through interactive activities without an undue focus on collocational knowledge. Before the implementation of the program, both the experimental and control groups have gone through a pre-oral test to assess their oral fluency and their optimum use of collocations. Subjects from each group have been given the opportunity to voice their own thoughts and feelings through easily-digestible topics such as expressing likes and dislikes, talking about family and school life. The test was held in a stimulating classroom environment wherein students were put at ease so that they can engage in a conversation with the assessor without being haunted by stress and anxiety. Findings from the pre-oral test indicated that most participants had a very deficient collocational competence and that they combined words with great difficulty. Not did this have an impact on their oral performances, but also on their self-confidence. Most subjects delivered very halting and fragmentary stretches of speech, which after being analyzed closely revealed that the number of miscollocations exceeded that of grammatical mistakes. This implies that a special training into lexical collocations has to be envisioned as far as first-year students are concerned.

The treatment phase went on under fully satisfactory conditions. Participants were eager to acquire lexical collocations especially after being told that this will enhance their speaking proficiency and help them sound more like a native. The

suggested syllabus included a considerable number of formulaic sequences that were inaccessible to the students through secondary school language textbooks. Their presentation was eye-catching and quite motivating because of the attached visual aids. Every single unit comprised an unlimited number of a variety of lexical collocations that students were urged to notice first for a closer look at their constituent parts. Initial automatization was triggered through a set of tasks that were all meant to recycle the already introduced collocations. The reception of the content of the syllabus was quite positive which complies with Scherer, 1984; Schumann, 1997 stimulus appraisal models of language learning.

But it has to be stated that positive appraisal of the input could have never been achieved without the inclusion of pictures especially as these latter represented students' favorite celebrities. In addition, greater engagement has been seen among students with a high-proficiency level representing the greatest minority unfortunately. The remaining subjects mostly of a medium or low-proficiency level required greater cognitive effort to assimilate and accumulate what was being taught to them. Nevertheless, most students seemed to be motivated by the classes. Evidence from the post-oral test showed that the experimental group has benefited tremendously from the trial phase and that their oral performances have improved remarkably when being compared against those from the control group. This significant statistical change might be regarded as the result of the experimental phase wherein students have been subjected to collocation-based instruction through a suggested syllabus. This leads us to the conclusion that more consideration should be attributed to the teaching of lexical collocations. Thus, rather than holding on to the traditional assumption that vocabulary should be taught individually, more innovative methods should be adopted with an undue focus on the formulaic nature of the target language.

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Appendices

Appendix (1)

Students' Questionnaire

Dear student,

This questionnaire is part of a research work carried out in Relizane's English department. This research is expected to explore the potential impact of lexically-based teaching in developing English oral fluency. Your answers will only provide supplementary information for the fulfillment of the researcher's PhD dissertation.

The research reliability rests upon your absolute honesty and frankness, so please answer the following questions as honestly as possible by ticking the corresponding box to your answers or by filling in with information where necessary.

Section one: The Students' Profile

1. Age
2. Male
- Female

Section two: Background Knowledge

3. By the end of this academic year, how many years in total will you have been learning English?

-
4. Did you get into your first choice specialty?

- a. Yes
- b. No

5. Is English your first choice specialty?

- a. Yes
- b. No

Section three: Students' Perceptions of their Overall Oral Proficiency

6. How would you describe your speaking skills?

- a. Excellent
- b. Above average
- c. Average
- d. Minimal
- e. Inadequate

7. Did you use to have a formally- scheduled time for speaking practice?

- a. Yes
- b. No

8. In a typical school week from your previous learning experience, what percentage of class time was devoted to the following activities?

- a. Reading activities.....%
- b. Grammar activities..... %
- c. Vocabulary activities..... %

9. Did your former teachers give you out assignments involving any of the following?

- a. Vocabulary Practice
- b. Grammar Practice
- c. Reading Practice
- d. All of the above choices

10. How often do you stammer when you are asked to express yourself orally?

- a. Very often
- b. Often
- c. Rarely

11. In what cases is it very hard for you to speak smoothly?

- a. When you fall short of vocabulary
- b. When you fail to generate grammatically correct sentences
- c. Both cases

12. Do you think that lack of vocabulary affects your oral proficiency?

- a. Yes
- b. No

Section three: Students' Level of Recognition and Use of Lexical Collocations

13. Do you have an Oxford dictionary?

- a. yes
- b. No

14. If no, what kind of dictionary do you have?

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

15. How frequently do you use it?

- a. Always
- b. Sometimes
- c. Rarely
- d. Never

16. When you look up a word, do you pay more attention to

- a. Its definition
- b. Its phonetic transcription
- c. The words that collocate with it

17. Do you know what a collocation is?

- a.
- b.

18. If yes, how do you know?

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

19. Do you make mis-collocations?

- a. Yes
- b. No

20. If yes, is it because

- a. You make translations from Arabic to English
- b. You make translations from French to English
- c. You don't know

21. How much practical vocabulary have you gained from your previous learning experience?

- a. A great deal
- b. Some
- c. None

22. Do you think that new vocabulary should be learnt through

- a. Traditional vocabulary lists of isolated words
- b. Lists of common and appropriate collocates
- c. Both

23. Would you welcome the idea of spending much of your in-class speaking practice time on learning lexical collocations?

- a. Yes
- b. No

24. In your opinion, is it necessary to have a good stock of lexical collocations? Please say why?

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

Thank you for your cooperation and help

Appendix (2)

Teachers' Interview

- Q1.** “How worthwhile is the oral expression module in the official curriculum?”
- Q2.** “What are the best features of this module?”
- Q3.** “What assessment criteria do you rely on when assessing your students’ oral skills?”
- Q4.** “What are the greatest weaknesses of your students vis a vis their oral skills?”
- Q5.** “Where do you think improvements should be made in this module?”
- Q6.** “What teaching approaches do you adopt to increase your students’ vocabulary?”
- Q7.** “In your opinion, what degree of importance should be given to lexical collocations? And why?”
- Q.8** “Do you think that lexical collocations are a good means to develop students’ L2 fluency? ”
- Q9.** “How much do you know about lexically-based teaching?”

Appendix Three

A Selection of the Suggested Syllabus Content

Unit Title	Rubric	Task Number	Tasks' Main Objectives
Unit One	PEOPLE		
Physical Appearance	Practice Makes Perfect	Task One	To train students on the word combinations under study and check their memorization skills.
		Task Two	To ensure an effective use of the set of vocabulary focus.
	Time for Some More Practice	Task Three	To reinvest the already learnt items into communicative situations where both students creative and mnemonic skills are combined.
Personality Traits	Practice Makes Perfect	Task One	To test students' ability to anticipate one or some of people's personality traits by relying on some particular physical cues such as their smiles, eyes, or body posture.
		Task Two	To engage students in an elaborate description that will help them sharpen the use of the collocations brought into focus.
	Time for Some More Practice	Task Three	To dig deep into students' critical views about which moral traits are more important and need to be embraced by people in general especially the ones whom they share or will share their lives with.
Clothes and Styles	Practice Makes Perfect	Task One	To help students recycle the whole package of descriptive items they have been introduced to so far in the most efficient way.
		Task Two	To sharpen students' ability to make personal judgments and take firm standpoints about what is acceptable in terms of clothing and what is not.
	Time for Some More Practice	Task Three	To reinforce the learning of the topic-related collocations by engaging students into an active recycling where they showcase their ability to make good choices as far as clothing and fashion are concerned.
Family and Relationships	Practice Makes Perfect	Task One	To tap students' knowledge about their favorite celebrities private lives and respective families.

		Task Two	To make personal and realistic portraits of students' families at their epicenter by making use of the most adequate collocations.
	Time for Some More Practice	Task Three	To help students express their personal tastes and points of view regarding the kinds of prospective families they would like to have and in comparison to their respective families.
Unit Two	Recreational Lifestyles		
House	Practice Makes Perfect	Task One	To check students understanding of the newly introduced items.
		Task Two	To urge students to explore their full potential in using word combinations that relate to housing
	Time for some more Practice	Task Three	To assess students' ability to introduce appropriate collocations in their short stretches of speeches with a high degree of efficiency
Food and Drinks	Practice Makes Perfect	Task One	To train students to comment on pictures representing the already introduced collocations with a high degree of objectivity.
		Task Two	This task enables students to make complaints about the most irritating situations that people might experience in a restaurant.
		Task three	To sharpen students' ability to order different kinds of meals relying on the vocabulary focus.
	Time for some more Practice	Task Four	To evaluate students' ability in identifying the world's cuisines and their most appetizing recipes.
Sport and Fitness	Practice Makes Perfect	Task One	To sharpen students' visual memory.
		Task Two	To check students' understanding of the lexical items under study.
	Time for some more Practice	Task Three	This task provides students with the opportunity to identify and talk about some of their physical flaws that can be improved with regular exercising.
		Task Four	This task enables students to deliver pieces of advice that relate to how to lose weight relying on a wealth of lexis.

Health and Sickness	Practice Makes Perfect	Task One Task two	To enhance students' immediate retrieval of the target vocabulary through visual hints. To reinforce students' understanding of the collocations under study.
	Time for some more Practice	Task Three	To broaden students' lexical repertoire with medical terms associated with the most common diseases.
Movies and Series	Practice Makes Perfect	Task One	To strengthen the entrenchment of the lexical items brought into focus.
		Task Two	To tap students' knowledge about Hollywood celebrities and their fading or glittering professional careers.
		Task three	To bring students' attention to some specific collocations.
		Task Four	To assess whether students have developed an appropriate use of related collocations, which enables them to discard the false ones.
	Time for some more Practice	Task Five	To enhance students' ability to use the vocabulary focus communicatively.
		Task Six	To check students' ability to provide adequate descriptions of their favorite movies and TV serials through careful selection of vocabulary.
Unit Title	Rubric	Task's Number	Task's Main Objectives
Books and Music	Practice Makes Perfect	Task One	To have students recall some important key words that relate to music.
		Task Two	This task aims at testing students' ability to identify the missing parts of the collocations under study.
		Task three	To tap students' background knowledge about world music.
		Task Four	To check students' understanding of the collocations brought into focus by replacing explanatory cues with their corresponding lexical routines.
	Time for some more Practice	Task Five	To develop students' skills in sparking off debates and demonstrating their personal standpoints.
Attitudes and Opinions			
Liking and Disliking Praising and Criticizing	Practice Makes Perfect	Task One	To have students identify their favorite stars' soft spots and pet heaves.
		Task Two	To train students to rely on their mnemonic strategies to find corresponding context-bound collocations.

	Time for some more Practice	Task Three	To have students discuss their own likes and dislikes also give appraisal or express criticism using the vocabulary focus.
Agreeing and Disagreeing Claiming and Denying	Practice Makes Perfect	Task One	To enable students show their agreement or disagreement of some widespread societal/social issues.
		Task Two	To reinforce students' understanding of the functions under study.
		Task Three	To train students use contextual cues to place the appropriate collocations where necessary.
	Time for some more Practice	Task Four	To assess students' ability to express positive and negative personal views.
Social Networking			
Conversation/ Discussion Computer and Internet	Practice Makes Perfect	Task One	To assess students' assimilation of some key expressions.
		Task Two	To have students' reinvest all the lexical items they have been introduced and check whether they have developed effective memorization techniques. To urge students to identify the vocabulary focus through words that have similar meanings.
		Task Three	
	Time for some more Practice	Task Four	To assess students' conversational skills they have developed so far and have them explore the collocations under study to the fullest.
Talking about Social Issues			
Crime, Punishment and Justice	Practice Makes Perfect	Task One	To bring students' attention to different kinds of crimes through visual aids and boost their vocabulary recognition skills.
		Task Two	To tap students' background knowledge about celebrities' criminal record.
		Task Three	To reinforce students' understanding of the vocabulary focus.
	Time for some more Practice	Task Four	To have students recycle all the lexical items they have encountered in class to hold vocabulary-rich conversations.
Education and Technology	Practice Makes Perfect	Task One	To have students' identify some key expressions associated with education.
		Task Two	To sharpen students' memory learning of the collocations brought into focus.

		Task Three	To help students strengthen their pattern recognition skills through meaningful pictures.
	Time for some more Practice	Task Four	To assess students' ability to discuss challenging issues that relate to education with a high level of efficiency.
War and Peace	Practice Makes Perfect	Task One	To check students' understanding of the lexical routines under study.
	Time for some Practice	Task Two	To train students in making public speeches that combine lexical richness and eloquence.
Global Problem			
Illegal Immigration Poverty and Unemployment	Practice Makes Perfect	Task One	This task enables students to reinforce their understanding of the introduced word combinations through instant visualization.
	Time for some more Practice	Task Two	To assess students' interactional skills by focusing on how they make full use of the formulaic expressions dealt with in class.
The Global Financial Crisis	Practice Makes Perfect	Task One	To deepen students' understanding of banking procedures especially in terms of commercial bank lending.
		Task Two	To develop a high level of ability at recognizing corresponding collocations instantly.
	Time for some more Practice	Task Three	To train students at making in-depth researches about controversial issues that require a thorough enquiry and recycle the topic-related collocations.
Corruption/ Bribery/Money Embezzlement and Extortion	Practice Makes Perfect	Task One	To tap students' background knowledge about the woes of politics with undue focus on the most disgraceful politicians that the Arab world has ever known.
		Task Two	To help students further develop their critical thinking skills through triggering off instant reaction to derogatory comments about politics and corrupt politicians.
	Time for some more Practice	Task Three	To incite students to share their inner thoughts about the corrupt world of politics and how can the phenomenon of corruption be surmounted without causing any side effects.

Unit one: People/ Physical Appearance

I. Let's make things clear

Tip Box¹: The description of physical appearance involves a shift from general aspects to more specific details. Descriptive aspects are arranged into the following order: height, build, age and facial features.

1. Height:

Tip Box²: Both men and women can be: very, quite, unusually, or freakishly tall. They can also be average, medium, of middle height or simply short.



2. Body shape/ Build

Tip Box³: When describing real life body shapes, we can use any of the following adjectives to describe someone's figure.

Beautiful Bulky Built Curvy Chubby Fine Full Good Handsome Large Lean Lovely Muscular Stunning Slender Slim Stocky	F I G U R E
--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------	----------------------------------------

1. Age

Note⁵: Life stages start at infancy and end at old age. Below are some of the most commonly used words to describe age groups/range.

Baby



Toddler



Tween/Child



Teenager

Middle-aged

Adult





Elderly

4. Facial Features

Tip Box⁶: The description of somebody's facial features includes the face, eyes, nose, lips, hair, eyebrows and even the ears and eyelashes.

a. The word **face** collocates with several adjectives. The diagram below illustrates some of the most commonly used types.

Oval



Square



Round



Oblong



Heart

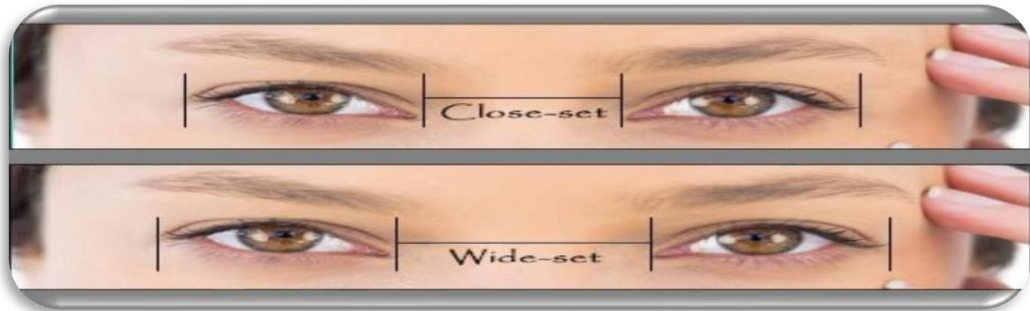


Diamond



b. Eyes are the most prominent feature that catches people's attention at first glance. Here is a diagrammatic illustration of eyes' shapes and colors.

1. Human Eye Shape Chart



Protruding

2. Human Eye Color Chart

Black Eyes



Green



Light/Dark Green

Blue



Dark/Deep/Light/Pale Blue

Brown



Dark/Light/ Chestnut/Chocolate/ Golden Brown

C. It is said that there is a strong link between a person's nose shape and his/her personality. Here are the basic shape categories into which most noses fall.

Snub

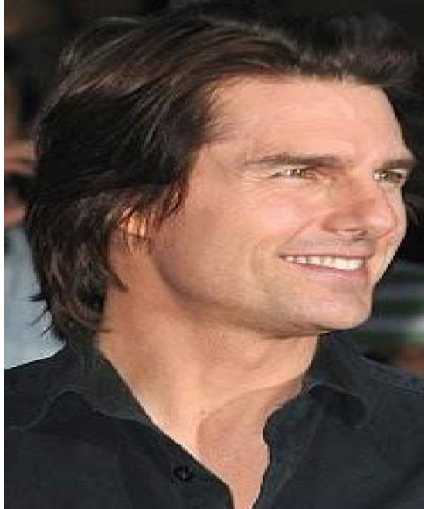


© ANDY HOOPER

Nubian



Hooked/Hawk



© Dominic Chan/WENN.com



Roman

Turned up

Greek

Button



d.Lips' shape is another appealing and eye catching feature that does not go unnoticed. The graphic description below provides a vivid picture of the most common shapes.

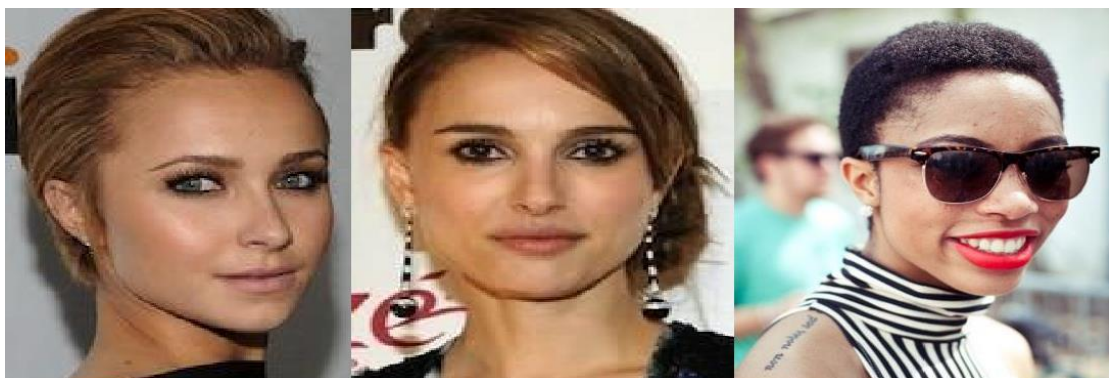
Full lips

wide lips

round lips



thin lips



Bow-shaped/ Cupid lips

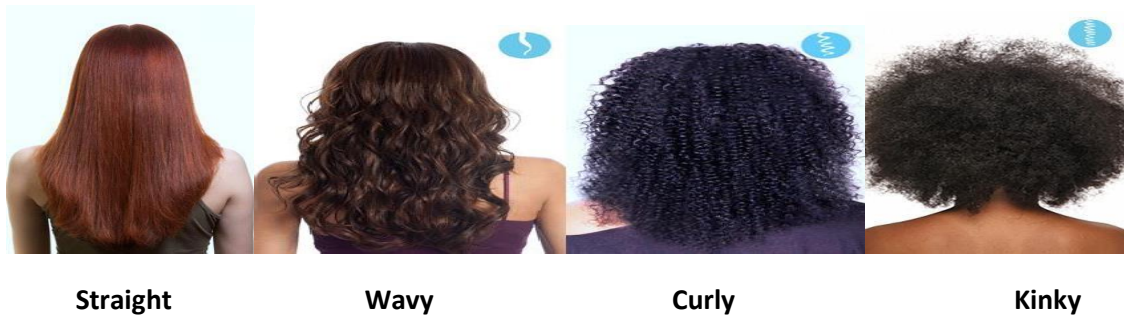
Downward-turned lips

Duck bills lips

D. Here are some other adjectives that collocate with mouth rather than lips.

<p>Big Cavernous Enormous Huge Small Tiny Perfect Rosebud Sensual Full</p>	<p>M O U T H</p>
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E. Long straight hair has always been considered as a timeless symbol of beauty. However, it is not the only identifiable hair type. Here is one of the most widely used hair typing chart.

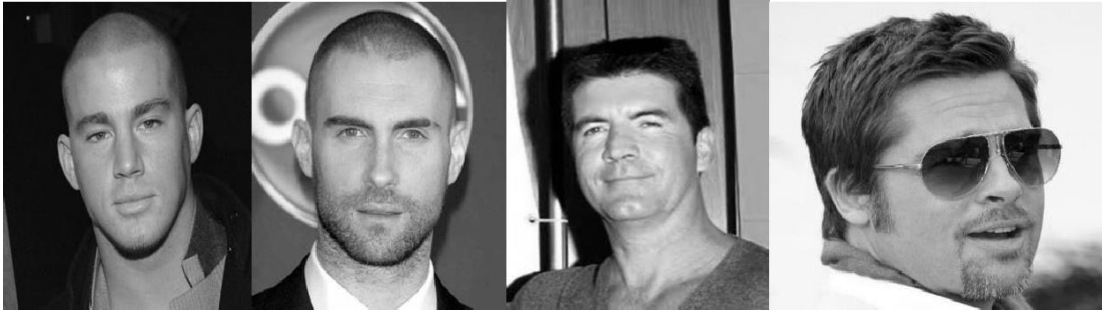


F. Men hairstyle trends vary depending on age and status. The pictures below depict the most popular and modern ones.



G. Here are some additional hairstyles for both men and women with some facial hair types.

Shaved head



Clean shaven

Stubble

Flat top

Goatee / Sideburn

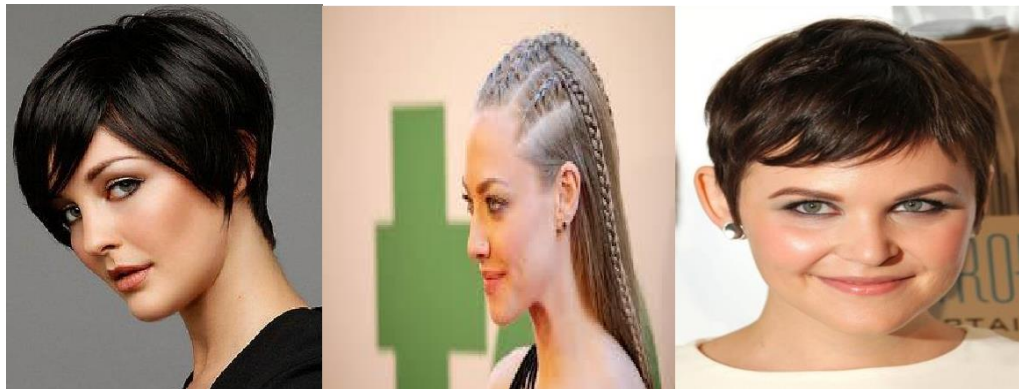


Bob

Dread locks

Perm

Layered cut



Bowl cut

Cornrows

Tomboy cut



Chignon

French twist

Bun



Braid

Pigtails

Pony tail



French braids

H. The chart below represents the main colors of human natural hair.

Auburn

Blonde

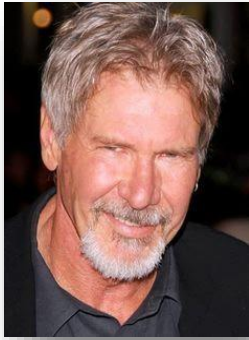
Black



Light Brown

Medium Brown

Dark Brown



Gray



Ginger



White

I. Big stick out ears are generally said to detract from attractiveness. However, the pictures below might prove otherwise, for many of our favorite and most attractive celebrities have them. Obviously, there are many other ordinary ear shapes.

Stick out



Pointy

Narrow

Square



k. A perfect eyebrow shaping is of a tremendous importance for most women because it creates an adequate frame for the eyes and illuminates them explaining why they get them plucked. However, there are five types of natural eyebrows. Men's eyebrows tend to be bushy, or shaggy. It is worth noting that Natural eyelashes are either thin or thick. Women with thinning lashes tend to apply natural looking false lashes to thicken them.



Unibrow



Thick

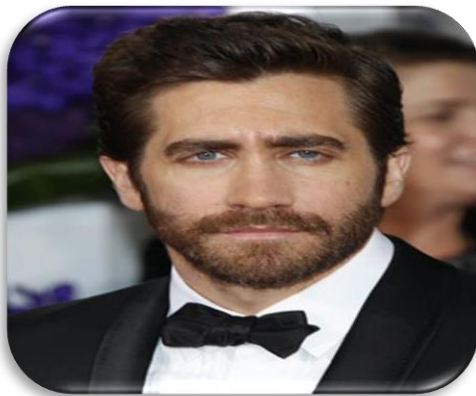


Thin



Flat

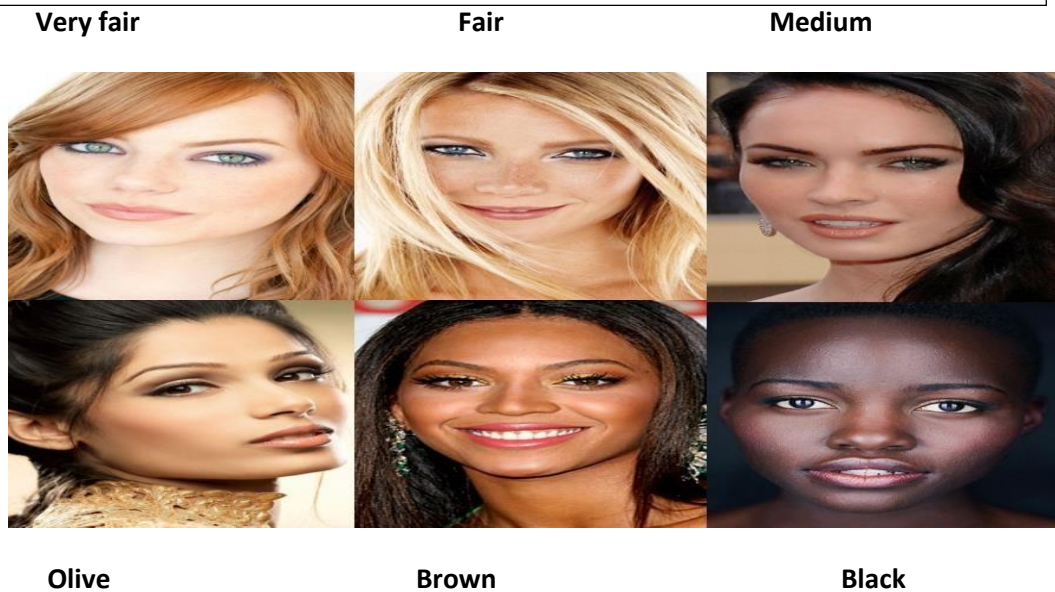
Arched /Crooked



Bushy / Shaggy

5. Complexion Type

Tip Box⁷: Humans show a wide range of skin tones, from almost white to very dark brown. The chart below describes the main tones of human skin.



Tip Box⁸: Here are some other expressions used to describe human skin.

<p>Glowing Radiant Smooth Soft Sagging Wrinkly Bronzed Colored Dusky</p>	<p>S K I N</p>
----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------	-----------------------------------

II. Practice makes perfect

Task one: This is a short physical description of the American actress and singer Hilary Duff. Follow the example that has been given to you and describe any of the following celebrities. Try to make maximum use of the previously studied vocabulary.



Hilary Duff is in her late twenties. She has an oval face and shoulder-length blonde straight hair that she usually wears down. Her protruding hazel eyes and her snub nose are her most striking features.



Task two: Fill in the gaps with any of the words that you have been introduced to so that you give contrasting meanings.

1. Madonna's figure is neither nor.....It is rather muscular.
2. Beyoncé has a nose, but Scarlett Johansson has a
3. Julia Roberts face is rather....., whereas Charlize Theron's is
4. Kim Kardashian's hair is not, nor is it..... Indeed it is dark brown.
5. Aishwarya Rai has gained worldwide appraisal for her eyes. Madhuri Dixit, on the other hand, got appraisal for her perfect..... lips.
6. By contrast to Woody Goldberb, Jennifer Aniston is mostly known for her.....
7. Mel Gibson is admired for his....., but he's also hated for his.....
8. Despite her....., Adele could conquer the world with her vocals and music. However, Breatny Spears could have never make it if it were not
9. Angelina Jolie's biological daughter is her mother's look-alike, and so she will grow to be a very beautiful woman. Aishwarya Ray's, however, took after her father and inherited her father'srather than her mother's
10. Gwineth Paltrow has always been said to bear sharp resemblance with the fifties actress Grace Kelly. They are bothand have..... However, when a biographical movie was meant to be made about Grace. Her character was embodied by noneotherthan Nicole Kidman.

III. Time for some more practice:

Task three: Choose one of the following situations.

Situation one: Imagine that you are one of the agents of the Crime Scene Investigation group, commonly known as CSI, and that you have been assigned the task of providing a preliminary sketch of the primary suspect based on an eyewitness' description. With your partner, write the conversation that took place between you and the key witness. Then act it out in front of your classmates.

Situation one: Jane has several physical flaws that make her feel insecure. At the prodding of her best friend Lucy, she decided to consult a plastic surgeon to get them fixed. With your partner, act out the conversation that was held during the medical consultation.

Situation two: Libby, a seventeen-year-old teenager, is obsessed with the looks of Scarlett Johansen. Much to her joy, she won 10000 dollars at the lottery, so she decided to consult a plastic surgeon that would shake his magic stick so that she can look

N.B. Use as many descriptive details as possible.



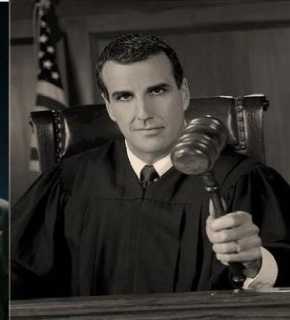
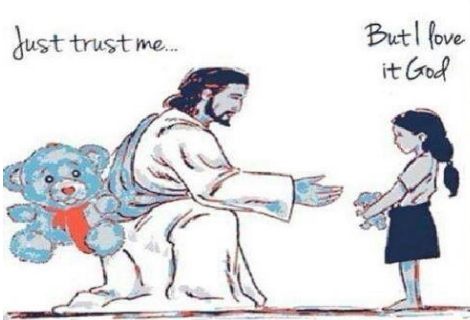
Unit one: People / Personality Traits

I. Let's make things clear:

Tip Box¹: One of the intricacies of being a human is to display paradoxical personality traits that it is sometimes difficult to classify a person into a single personality type. Here are some examples of positive and negative qualities used to describe people's personality traits with a possible combination to any of the following adverbs: extremely, highly, very, abundantly, excessively, overly, moderately, not at all...etc.

1. Positive Personality Traits

Adventurous-Fearless Contentious/ Principled Cultured/ Cultivated Confident/ Self-assured



Dependable/ Reliable/ Trustworthy/ Helpful

Ambitious-Persevering
Hard-working-Energetic

Fair- Impartial- Dutiful



Respectful-Suave



Friendly- Affable- Outgoing- Gregarious



Meticulous- Tidy

Obedient



Encouraging/ Motivating



Optimistic



Keen- Enthusiastic



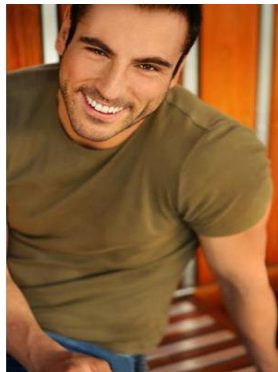
Imaginative



Humble- Discreet



Grateful/ Appreciative



Charming/ Appealing



Smart-Intelligent-Cunning



Kind-hearted/ Sensitive

2. Negative Personality Traits

Picky- Finicky- Fussy



Obnoxious/ Hateful/ Unfriendly



Arrogant-Pompous-Conceited

Blunt/ Rude/Boorish/Surly/Vulgar



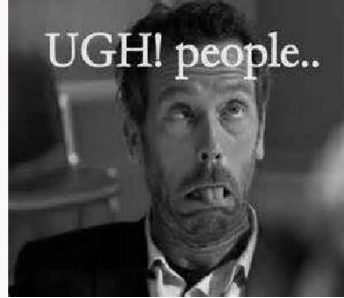
Quarrelsome



Malicious-Sneaky



Dishonest-Self-centered-Thoughtless



Sarcastic



Bossy- Domineering



Stingy



Messy



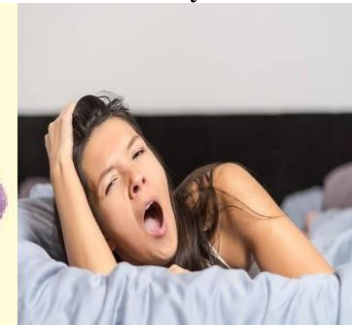
Unruly



Shy



Cowardly



Lazy

Surly/Gloomy



Hot-tempered/Impulsive



II. Practice makes perfect

Task one: What is your first impression of the people on the pictures below? Use any of the following expressions in combination with the previously learnt descriptive adjectives.

He/ she seems to be

He/ she looks

He/she appears to be



Task two: How would you describe your college roommate/ housemate?

Is he/ she purrfect?



Is he/ she perfect?



Is he/ she your nemesis?

III. Time for some more practice:

Task three: What moral and physical qualities would you like your lifetime partner to have?



Unit one: People / Clothes and style

I. Let's make things clear

Tip Box¹: Clothes fall into two main categories the usual and the unusual ones. Several adjectives and phrasal verbs can be used to add more details specific to a given item of clothing whichever type it belongs to.

Usual clothes:

1. Shirts can be:

Long-sleeved



Short-sleeved



Sleeveless



V-neck



Button-down



Collarless



Collared



Turtleneck

2. Trousers can collocate with:



Baggy



Tight



Flared



Camouflage

3. Jeans are the most popular kind of clothing in the world. They are worn by people of all genders and ages. Here are some sample jeans that are snagged quickly from the stores.



Blue



Faded



ripped



Cut-off



Skintight



Bell-bottom

4. Dresses might be:

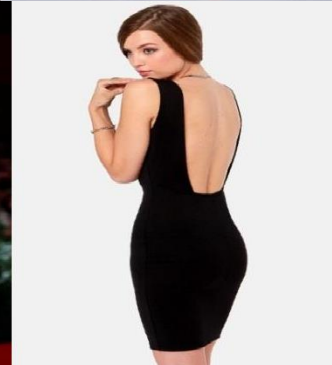
Ankle-length



Floor-length



Knee-length



Loose-fitting

Clinging/ Skintight

Backless



Off-the-shoulder

Sleeveless

Strapless



Flowing and Flowered

5. Jackets are usually :

Fitted



Loose



Thick and padded



Double-breasted

single-breasted



Belted and Zip up

6. Skirts vary in design and style, here are some examples:

Ankle-length



Calf-length



Knee-length



Circular



Pencil

Straight

Pleated

7. The best walking shoes should not only be comfortable, they should also be aesthetically pleasing. The pictures below illustrate some beautiful pairs of shoes.

Open-toed

Pointed

Flat

Low-heeled



High-heeled

Lace-up



Designer



Buckled



Strappy



Slip on

8. Suits have always been considered as something extremely elegant that should be worn on formal occasions only due to their impracticality for daily use. However, some of nowadays' suits are more practical than they used to be. Here are some examples:

One-piece



Two-piece



Three-piece



Smart

Tip Box² : One should always make sure that his/her suit fits him/her well, otherwise he/she will look utterly ridiculous.



Ill-fitting

Tip Box ²: It should not go unnoticed that shape is not the only descriptive element to be considered when describing any of the above kinds of clothing. In fact, other descriptive criteria should be highlighted too. These latter include: opinion-size-age-color-material-origin and purpose. Shape comes in the fourth position (i.e. right after the age of the item of clothing). The table that follows encompasses an extensive list of descriptive adjectives.

opinion	Size	Age	shape	Color	Material	Origin	Noun
Good	Small	Young		Pink	Wool	Floridian	Sweater
Bad	Tiny	Old		Red	Cashmere	American	Jacket
Lovely	Large	Baby		Orange	Silk	Spanish	Coat
Strange	Big	Babyish		Yellowish	Satin	Canadian	Trousers
Beautiful	Medium	Teenage		Army/ Reseda	Suede	Mexican	Goan
Nice	Gigantic	Ancient		Green	Cotton	French	Dress
Brilliant	Short	Antique		Blue	Denim	Irish	
Excellent	Long	Old-fashioned		Purple	Leather	English	
Awful		Youthful		Black		Australian	
Important		Elderly		White/Off White		Chinese	
Wonderful		Mature		Gray		Indian	
Nasty		Adolescent		Brown Tanned		Turkish	
		Infantile		Pastel Metallic			
		Bygone		Silver			
		Recent		Brick Red			
		Modern		Burgundy			
				Garnet			

Tip Box ³: Fabrics' patterns can also be added. The chart below represents the most popular ones.



Tip Box ⁴: The dressing style of any woman is incomplete without accessories. The most important accessory that women cannot do without is a handbag. The diagram below illustrates some of the trendiest types.



Tip Box⁵: It is impossible to talk about clothes without talking about fashion. Here are some useful collocations that should be fairly easy to remember.

COLLOCATION	MEANING	EXAMPLE
To come into fashion	To become stylish or fashionable	Long skirts are coming into fashion.
To fall out/ go out of fashion	To become less popular than usual	Black is the color that has never fallen out of fashion.
To come back into fashion	To become more trendy and fashionable again	Flared pants have come back into fashion.
Keep up with fashion	To continue to learn about the most fashionable trends in a regular way	Hollywood stars are always careful about keeping up with the newest and latest fashion styles.

Unusual clothes:

Tip Box⁶: Unusual articles of clothing can be sorted into two groups: clothing worn above and below the belt.

Clothing worn above the belt	Common collocations	Clothing worn below the belt	Common collocations
Hoody / A sweatshirt with a hood	Zip up / Plain	Clogs / a type of shoe made of wood, or with the top part made of leather and the bottom part of wood	Dressy/ Professional/ Rubber/ Wooden
Brooch / A small piece of jewellery pinned at the back	Cameo/ Annular/ Jeweled/ Stick pin	Trainers / a type of light, comfortable shoe that can be worn for sport	Low-top/ High-top/ Slip-on
Poncho / A piece of clothing with a hole in the middle through which you put your head	Rain/ knitted	Trunks / very short pants, esp. worn by men for swimming	Loose-fitting/ Tight
Tiara /a piece of metal in the shape of half a circle decorated with jewels that is worn on the head by a woman.	Bridal/ Rhinestone/ Swarovski	Tights / a piece of clothing made of thin material that covers the legs and lower part of the body below the waist, worn by women and girls	Sheer/ Opaque/ Fish net
Shawls / a large piece of cloth worn especially by women or girls over their shoulders and/or head	Pashmina / Double-faced	Leggings / very tight trousers made from a material that stretches easily, usually worn by women	Stirrup / Footed/ Calf-length
Waistcoat / a piece of clothing that covers the upper body but not the arms and usually has buttons down the front, worn over a shirt	Single-breasted/ Double-breasted		

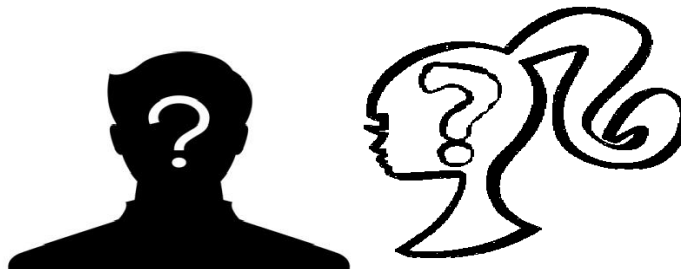


Tip Box7: It should be noted that all of the above types of clothing including the usual and the unusual ones are used in combination with some of the phrasal verbs below.

Pull on	Pull up	Slip on	Pull off	Pull down	Zip/unzip	Button up/unbutton	Lace up/unlace
a jacket a sweater/ shirt trousers/ pants tights	a dress a skirt trousers jeans	a pair of shoes a jacket	a coat a jacket a shirt shoes	pants a skirt	a coat a dress a jacket jeans skirt	a dress a jacket pants a shirt	boots shoes

II. Practice makes perfect

Task one: Choose a classmate to describe his/her outfit using the descriptive criteria that you have already been introduced to in their correct order. Then ask the others to guess whom you are talking about?



Task two: Say who is the fashion victim and the fashionista among the celebrities below?



III. Time for some more practice:

Task three: Choose one of the following topics

a. Imagine you are a famous fashion and makeover expert such as Cristina Cordula, host of ‘A New Look for a New Life’ on M6, which Algerian version has already been adapted and launched by ‘El Djazairia’ TV. What pieces of advice involving what to wear and what not to wear would you give to someone (man or woman) who needs fashion help?



b. What if you were a fashion forecaster like Aline Watfa, predict what colours, styles and shapes will be on-trend for this winter season.



a. Project runway is an American reality TV series where contestants face fiery design challenges to win a cash prize amounting up to 100000\$ in addition to a mentorship from a prestigious fashion house and a spot to display their latest clothing collections. In your view, who among the all male finalists of the Middle East version deserved to be crowned winner of the show? And why?



Unit one: People / Family and relationships

I. Let's make things clear:

Tip Box¹: The word family is formally used to designate “a group of people affiliated by consanguinity, affinity, or co-residence, and/or shared consumption/nurture kinship.” (Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia)

It actually collocates with several adjectives among which:

Close-nit



Dysfunctional



Supportive



lone-parent/single-parent



Royal/ Imperialistic/ Noble



Prominent/Affluent

Bereaved



Traditional



Blended



Extended/ Large



Immediate/ Small

Tip Box²: Parents including both fathers and mothers can be described as:

Overbearing/ Domineering



Ailing/ ageing

Abusive/ Violent/ unfit



Estranged



Loving/ caring/ devoted



Deceased



Prospective/ would-be/ expectant

Tip Box³ : When parents do not get along anymore, they either **split up or file for divorce**. A divorce might be **amicable or acrimonious**. Sometimes the mother and father **fight over custody of the children**. A judge can grant **joint custody or sole custody** to only one parent. For example, a judge might **award sole custody** to the mother, and the father has to **pay child support**. However, if they are a **perfect match**, they will stay together against all odds. And why not **celebrate their silver, ruby, golden and diamond wedding anniversary together**.

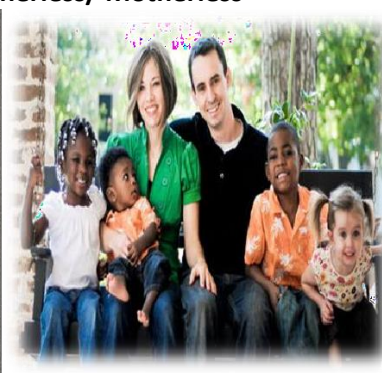


Tip Box⁴: Children are generally assorted according to social and personal criteria and can thus fit into several categorie

Biracial



Orphaned/ Fatherless/ Motherless



Adopted

Well-behaved



Unruly/ Wayward



Precocious / Bright

Underprivileged / Disadvantaged



Special needs



Disabled



Spoiled



Loving

Tip Box⁵: Children who grow up in close-nit families are more likely to have a carefree childhood than those raised in dysfunctional environments. They are also more liable to acquire/receive/ be provided with a decent/ high quality education. Over time, these latter might probably forge/establish a strong bond with their parents. Troubled children, on the other hand, usually sever all emotional bonds with their parents once becoming grown-ups. Family relationships in general might be stormy, close, failed, rocky, enduring or long-standing.



Tip Box⁶: When talking about one's family, we can use any of the following verbs: **be born into, come from, be part of, belong to, or marry into.** Parents might **give a proper, conventional, rigid, or religious upbringing to** their kids. If a medical condition or a talent is transmitted from parents to children, then we say that it **runs in** the family. Deceased parents might **bequeath/ leave a huge/ small legacy over** which their children might **feud** or simply **divide in** equal shares.

II. Practice makes perfect :

Task one: How much do you know about your favourite stars' families?



Task two: Here is a short description of George Clooney's family. How would you describe yours?



My full name is George Timothy Clooney. I was born on May 6, 1961, in Lexington, Kentucky, into a large and caring family. My devoted parents provided me with a decent education for which I am very grateful. When asked about me as a child, they usually describe me as a loving and bright kid. My parents and I had a very close family relationship, the reason why I have forged a strong bond with them. It is true that they did not leave me a huge legacy, but my real legacy is their love and support.

III. Time for some more practice

Task three: What kind of family would you like to have in the future?



Unit Two: Recreational Lifestyle/ Housing

I. Let's make things clear:

Tip Box1: When describing any kind of housing, there is a series of external and internal descriptive criteria that should be taken into consideration.

a. External descriptive criteria :

Tip Box2: It should be noted that a large variety of configurations are used in building houses. However, basic divisions include mainly the single-family houses and the multi-user dwellings. These latter encompass several sub-divisions.

1. Single- family houses:

Detached



Semi-detached



Terraced/ Row/ Linked/Town



Single/ Two/Multi story

Courtyard

2. The multi-user dwellings :

Duplex

Triplex



Multiplex



Low-rise apartment building



Mid-rise apartment building



High-rise apartment building/ Sky scraper

Tip Box³: Houses do not only vary in terms of configuration, they also differ in terms of architectural design/style and building materials.

Contemporary



A-framed



French Colonial



Traditional



Concrete



Mud and clay



Fired bricks



Timber



Stone

Tip Box⁴: Gardens are another important external feature which is very typical of bigger houses. They are usually **back or front, tiny or big, flower, herb, rose or vegetable**. Whereas external descriptive criteria focus mainly on the house's configuration, architectural design and building materials, the internal ones emphasize interior design and decoration.

b. Internal Descriptive Criteria:

Tip Box⁵: A house can include several levels and thus be a **single-story, two-story, or multi story**. It can also be a **one-roomed, two-roomed, or eight-roomed** etc... depending on its internal structure, which might comprise diverse room types such as **the reception room, the master bedroom, the bathing and utility rooms**. These latter might be **narrow or spacious, low or high-ceilinged, downstairs or upstairs, windowless, dimly lit or bright**. Distinct rooms are very typical of ordinary houses, the contemporary ones, however, favor **open spaces** where well

equipped kitchens with ultra-modern cupboards and appliances are connected to the living/dining room instead of being located off.



Open space



A four bedroomed house with distinct rooms

Tip Box⁶: A house might also be in general terms **derelict, dilapidated, small, cramped, magnificent, beautiful, palatial, or rambling.**

Cramped/ Small



Derelict/ Dilapidated



Palatial/ Rambling

Tip Box⁷: It should not go unnoticed that the interior of a house can be covered with different **brands of floorings: the tiled, marbled, parquet and carpeted** types are the most popular. In addition, a variety of **wall paint/paper**, varying mainly in color or design, is also used to embellish and refresh the **bare /faded walls**. **Household woodwork**, including interior doors and exterior windows, is another important decorative asset which can be presented in many different forms. Doors, for instance, can be **sliding, swing, glass-paneled, or folding**. Windows are more likely to be: **floor-length, floor-to-ceiling, barred, or shuttered**.



Tiled

Marbled

Carpeted

Parquet



Wall paint

Wallpaper



Sliding

Folding

Swing

Glass paneled



Armored



Floor-length

Floor-to-ceiling

Barred

Shuttered

Tip Box⁸: Interior design would be incomplete without **home furnishing**. Indeed, furniture is the key component that can give one's homes a complete makeover. It can be **antique, period, modern, cheap, second-hand or design**.



Antique/period

Modern

Cheap/ second-hand

Design

Tip Box⁹: When a family is looking for a **place of their own**, they tend to favor **affordable housing** rather than **the upscale neighborhoods**, which most of the time necessitate a **down payment** for their purchase and **the taking out of a mortgage** that probably takes a long time to be paid off.



Tip Box¹⁰: The word house collocates with any of the following verbs: **be built of, be made up of, count, comprise, own, rent, live in, move into/out of and renovate.** When talking about the exact location of a house, it is advisable to use: **be located in/ in the heart of/ within/** in combination with **leafy, quiet, affluent, comfortable, prosperous, wealthy, poor, middle-class, working-class, respectable, pleasant, industrial, residential** district.

II. Practice makes perfect:

Task one: Fill in the gaps with the correct word.

Our house is my father's creation. He is a professional architect who has already designed several multi-user- andfamily houses. When he designed ours, he got inspired from Hollywood stars homes, known for their ultra-sophistication and originality. It is a house built of Its modern façade and garden are its greatest asset from the outside. Besides, it is in the heart of a district which means heaven for light sleepers like me. My mother took care of the overall interior design by picking a flooring, windows and doors for most rooms. She even obliged my father to buy furniture which cost him a fortune. But I don't think he has an ounce of regret since it has been spent on his dream house.

Task two: What kind of house do you live in? Is it your dream home? What if you had a once-in-a-lifetime chance to refurbish your house by Martyn Lawrence Bullard, the British interior designer and host of the HOLLYWOOD ME show? What changes would you ask him to make so that it lives up to your expectations?



Time for some practice:

Task three: Act out a dialogue with your partner about the following topic. You are a real estate agent/ hunter who has been entrusted with the task of looking for the dream home of a newlywed couple. Ask them about the kind of dwelling they would like to have, the number of rooms, stories, type of flooring etc... and whether they have a MODEST or a LARGE budget so that you can meet their requirements.



Unit Two: Recreational Lifestyle/ Food and Drinks

I. Let's make things clear:

Tip Box¹: if water is what keeps us alive, food is the source of energy without which we cannot operate the reason why it should be carefully selected. There are mainly two basic types of food namely **the healthy and the unhealthy type.**

a. Healthy versus Unhealthy Food



Organic/ Nutritious/ Wholesome

Stodgy/ Sugary

Tip Box²: Our **eating habits** are our guarantee for an everlasting health in addition to exercising. That is why most physicians recommend their patients, especially those having a **healthy appetite, to go on a diet** and avoid **junk/processed food** which is full of **food additives**. A **balanced diet** includes **nourishing meals** in which all types of food should be **consumed in moderation**, but also requires a steely determination to stop **snacking between the meals**. People who **stick to that kind of diet** never have recourse to **nutritional supplements** as it contains all the nutrients their body needs.



Tip Box³: Several types of food diets can be identified: **the American, Mediterranean and Vegetarian**, which is perceived by most doctors as the healthiest of them all. Each diet adopts a number of cooking methods which are a huge determinant of our health.

American diet (fried or roasted)



Mediterranean diet (grilled or simmered)



Vegetarian diet (raw or blended)



Tip Box⁴: Normally, **the three-meals-per-day habit** is the norm for developing healthy eating patterns. However, most people nowadays tend to **skip their home-cooked meals** due to the nature of their jobs.

b. Types of Cuisines/ Cookery

Tip Box⁵: Because people have developed a huge tendency to eat out and because they are always on the hunt of some new flavors, several **types of cuisines** have emerged worldwide.

Local / Traditional Cuisine



Japanese Cuisine

Nouvelle Cuisine



Italian Cuisine



Indian Cuisine

Mexican



French Cuisine



Moroccan Cuisine

Tip Box⁶: It should be noted that all of the previously mentioned types of cuisines fit into the **Global Cuisine** which has gained an unparalleled success during the last decade as many people are more eager to try out some new recipes.

c. Food Preparation :

Tip Box⁷: The preparation of any kind of dish requires a number of skills that not only **well practiced chefs** should possess. Indeed, many home-cooking-haters show more readiness and willingness to acquire **basic cooking techniques** that every home cook struggles to master at the very beginning.

To debone

To gut

To mince

To chop or dice



To slice/crave

To grate

To marinate/ macerate

To batter



To knead

To roll out

To roll up

To stir



To whisk

To water down

To drain/ strain

To rinse



To simmer

To steam

To fillet



To sprinkle

To season

To salt

To sweeten



To mash

To roast

To grill

To fry



To thicken/ reduce

To oven

To bake

To garnish



To squeeze

To melt in a bain-marie

To brown

To blanch



To bread

To caramelize

To cream

To dough sheet

Tip Box 6: Making a **savoury dish** does not only depend on a good mastery of home-cooking techniques, it also necessitates some must-have **cooking appliances and utensils**.

d. Cooking appliances

Food Processor



Blender



Deep fryer



Mixer



Mini chopper





Kneading machine



Hand blender



Gas stove/ Cooker



Micro wave



Ice cream maker



Electric oven



Food juicer

e. Cooking utensils

Cooking pan



Frying pan



Sauce pan



Sauté pan



Mixing bowl



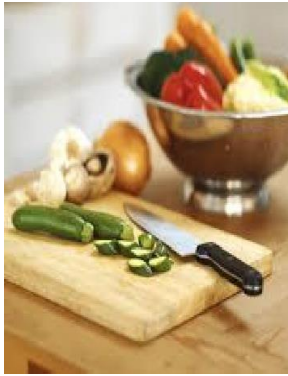
Steamer



Collander



Kneading trogh



Cutting board



Rolling pin



Grinder



Potato masher



Ladle



Spatula



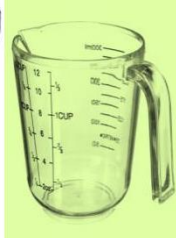
Box grater



Slotted spoon

Tong

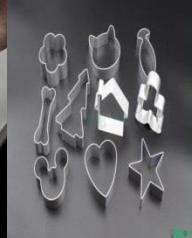
Measuring cup



Cake pan



Pastry bag



Cookie cutters



Pastry cutting wheel



Kitchen knife



Whisk



Sieve

f. Drinks

Note⁷: It is impossible to enjoy a **tantalizing meal** without a drink. Obviously water, **still or sparkling**, is the most consumed beverage. However, there are many other popular beverages besides water.



Mint tea



Black tea



Instant coffee



Real coffee

Freshly squeezed juice

Concentrated juice

Energy drink

Fizzy drink



Milky coffee



Milky juice



Iced water



Mixed drinks

Tip Box 8: There is a kernel of truth that – there is no better meal than a home-cooked meal. But **variety seekers** might not be of the same opinion. In fact, a huge tendency to eat out has been noticed among young and old people during the last ten years since many of them prefer to **tantalize their taste buds** by embarking on brand new gustatory experiences outside their home kitchens. It is worth noting that restaurants fall into five main categories based on menu style, food preparation, pricing and customer service.

a. Types of Restaurants:



h. Menu style:

Tip Box 9: Menu style differs from one restaurant to another depending on its type. Two main menu styles can be identified namely the **a la carte** and **table d'hôte**. In the former food items are individually priced and served. It is also elaborated in a way that customers choose from a large list of options. The latter serves a pre-established sequence of courses which are collectively priced.

A la carte

Table d'hôte



i. Food preparation, Pricing and Customer service:

Tip Box¹⁰: Food preparation, pricing and customer service are the three key elements to ensure the business continuity of any restaurant. That is why most restaurants try to **wait on their customers hand and foot** by offering them **adequate food preparation, affordably prices and an efficient service.**



Tip Box¹¹: Ordering food in a restaurant involves the use of some recurrent expressions that most natives employ when eating out. Here are some examples:

1. All ordering conversations start with a greeting

“Good morning Sir/ Madam! Can I get you something?”

2. When ordering, customers usually say

“Can I get/ May I have/ Do you have/ Can I order an instant coffee, please?”

3. The waiter’s answer might be as follows:

“Yes, you can. Anything else? / Yes, is that all for you today?”

4. The customer can conclude his order with:

“No, thank you.”

or ask for something else for here/ to go/ take out.

“Yes, I’d like the spaghetti and meatballs, for here please.”

“I’d like a pepperoni pizza, to go/ take out please.”

5. Once the customer finishes his meal, he will probably ask for the bill:

Could we have the bill, please?

II. Practice makes perfect:

Task one: What do you think the people on the pictures should/should not/can/ cannot/must/ must not do?





- P1. That man should **G**.....
- P2. Kids should not be allowed to eat **J**.....
- P3. That woman should not think twice. She must **S**..... to a **V**.....
- P4. We can avoid **N**..... by replacing our unhealthy **E**..... with healthier ones.
- P5. That kid has a **H**.....
- P6. Sugary food should be **C**.....
- P7. That woman should not **S**.....
- P8. We mustn't **S**.....
- P9. That woman must be **T**.....
- P10. We must not **T**..... with unhealthy food.
- P11. The man in the white blouse must be a **W**.....
- P12. **V**..... can easily lapse into a buying fever.

Task two: What are the people on the pictures below complaining about?



Task three: Team up with one of your classmates to role play through ordering a meal using the pre-designed menu below. You may switch roles.

A restaurant's a la carte Menu

Menu	
SOUPS	MAIN DISHES <i>all served with chips and salad</i>
Soup of the day £2.50	Plain omelette £4.95
Tomato soup £2.50	Tomato omelette £4.95
SALADS	Grilled sole £6.95
Egg mayonnaise salad £4.25	Fish in batter £4.95
Tuna and bean salad £4.95	Grilled chicken breast £6.59
Chicken caesar salad £4.50	Rack of ribs £7.25
Chef's salad £4.95	Mixed grill £7.50
PASTA	DESSERTS
Penne with vegetables £4.95	Apple pie £2.50
Basil and ricotta ravioli £5.50	Carrot cake £2.50
Pasta with seafood sauce £5.95	Sticky toffee pudding £2.50
Spaghetti Bolognese £5.25	Chocolate brownie £2.00
Spaghetti Carbonara £5.25	Lemon cheesecake £2.75
EXTRAS	Ice cream £1.95
Crispy onion rings £1.25	
Garlic mushrooms £1.25	
Side salad £2.00	
Tomato salad £2.00	

PIZZAS	PRICE	BURGERS	PRICE	SPECIAL SNACKS	PRICE
1 CAPSICUM CHEESE PIZZA	110.00	25 VEG. BURGER	60.00	48 VEG. DIZZY DOG	45.00
2 TOMATO CHEESE PIZZA	110.00	26 CHICKEN BURGER	65.00	49 CHICKEN DIZZY DOG	45.00
3 CAPSICUM TOMATO PIZZA	110.00	27 MUTTON BURGER	75.00	50 VEG. MANCHORRA (PER CUP)	50.00
4 ONION CAPSICUM PIZZA	110.00	28 PANNEER BURGER	70.00	51 CHILLY CHICKEN BUN	45.00
5 ONION CAPSICUM TOMATO PIZZA	110.00	29 MUSHROOM BURGER	70.00	204 VEG. KATTI ROLL	60.00
6 JUST CHEESE PIZZA	110.00	CHEESE BURGERS		205 CHICKEN KATTI ROLL	60.00
7 MIXED VEG. PIZZA	110.00	30 VEG. CHEESE BURGER	80.00	81 VEG. SPRING ROLL	55.00
8 HOT MEXICAN VEG. PIZZA	125.00	31 CHICKEN CHEESE BURGER	90.00	82 CHICKEN SPRING ROLL	55.00
9 HOT MEXICAN CHICKEN PIZZA	145.00	32 MUTTON CHEESE BURGER	95.00	177 CHICKEN PANICHA (PER CUP)	50.00
10 CHICKEN PIZZA	130.00	33 PANNEER CHEESE BURGER	90.00	175 GARLIC SLICES (PORTIONZ PIECES)	50.00
11 GINGER CHICKEN PIZZA	150.00	34 MUSHROOM CHEESE BURGER	90.00	176 FRENCH FRIES (PORTIONZ)	75.00
12 BUTTER PANNEER PIZZA	150.00	ROLLS		202 VEG. KABAB ROLL	45.00
13 VEG. PATAKA (BIG BYTE SPL)	160.00	35 VEG. ROLL	55.00	203 CHICKEN KABAB ROLL	45.00
14 CHICKEN PATAKA (BIG BYTE SPL)	160.00	36 CHICKEN ROLL	55.00	HOT PUFFS (PER PORTION 2 PIECES MINIMUM)	
15 CHILLY CHICKEN PIZZA	150.00	37 MUTTON ROLL	65.00	63 VEG. PUFFS	30.00
16 HAWAII PIZZA (PEPPERONI VEG)	150.00	SANDWICHES		64 EGG PUFFS	30.00
17 CHICKEN SUPREME PIZZA	150.00	52 VEG. BS SANDWICH	45.00	65 CHICKEN PUFFS	40.00
18 VEG. SUPREME PIZZA	150.00	54 PANNEER TIKKA SANDWICH	45.00	66 PANNEER PUFFS	40.00
19 CHICKEN ITALIAN PIZZA	150.00	55 VEG. TIKKA SANDWICH	45.00	BREADS (WE BAKE OUR OWN BREADS)	
20 VEG. ITALIAN PIZZA	150.00	56 CHICKEN BS SANDWICH	50.00	SANDWICH BREAD (WHITE BREAD SMALL & BIG)	
21 TANDOORI CHICKEN PIZZA	160.00	— GRILLED SANDWICH EXTRA	20.00	MILK BREAD (WHITE BREAD SMALL & BIG)	
22 PLAIN MUSHROOM PIZZA	125.00	CRISPY CUTLETS		FRUIT BREAD (WHITE BREAD)	
23 VEG. MUSHROOM PIZZA	145.00	42 VEG. CUTLET (PER PECE)	40.00	WHEAT BREAD	
24 CHICKEN MUSHROOM PIZZA	150.00	43 CHICKEN CUTLET (PER PECE)	45.00	WHEAT & OATS BREAD	
		44 MUTTON CHOP	50.00	MULTI GRAIN BREAD	
		SPECIAL SNACKS		RAAGI BREAD	
		45 CHICKEN BS (PER CUP)	50.00	GARLIC FRENCH LOAF (WHITE BREAD)	
		46 TANDOORI CHICKEN (PER PECE)	65.00	MASALA BREAD (WHITE BREAD)	
		47 CRISPY FRIED CHICKEN (PER PECE)	60.00	PAV BREAD	
				BUTTER SUGAR BUN	

A pizza restaurant menu

III. Time for some more practice:

Task four: Identify the different types of cuisines below then share their recipes with your classmates.



Unit Two: Recreational Lifestyle/ Sport and Fitness

I. Let's make things clear:

Tip Box ¹: Leading a healthy lifestyle is not only based on good nutrition but also on sport or physical exercise. Several types of sport might be identified.

a. Sport

Popular/ Spectator/Team

Minority

Contact/ Combat



Racket/Non-contact/

Hazardous/ Adventure

Grueling



Equestrian

Water

Motor



Cruel/ Blood

Tip Box²: All kinds of sport involve a **sense of competition**. In football, for instance, **successful teams** who have already played **home games** might be chosen to take part in **away games** at an **international tournament** so as to **win the championship**. During the matches and right after the competition clocks have been started, some competing teams might **have the lead**. However, their opposing teams might possibly **make a comeback** and **take the lead to win or tie the match**.



Tip Box³: Any kind of competition requires from the athlete to be **in good shape**. There are those who regularly exercise to attain **peak fitness** so as to be practically ready to **achieve a personal best** and why not **set a world record**. But there are also those, who in a desperate attempt to **win the first place**, they take illegal substances such as steroids in order to **enhance their performance**. Obviously, if they **fail the drug test**, they will be disqualified from participating.



b. Fitness

Tip Box⁴: More and more young people are seeking to get a **healthy fitness level** like their athletic idols, the reason why they enlist the help of professional trainers to get a **well-proportioned body**. Fitness workouts generally concentrate on **strength training**, stretching and **cardiovascular exercises**.



Tip Box⁵: While training, men focus mainly on the upper body parts such as the abs and biceps. Women, on the other hand, favor both the upper and lower body parts so as to **get rid of their spare tire**.



Tip Box⁶: A full body workout does not necessitate a gym membership. Indeed, many people can **tone their body** with nothing but their body provided that they conform to **the training instructions set out** by the professionals. Such training involves a **cardio, upper, midsection and lower body routines**.



Tip Box⁷: **Cardio routines** more commonly known as aerobic are meant to improve the heart health. **High-speed running** along with **low-speed jogging** are the most recommended activities in cardiovascular exercising. Stair climbing which consists at **running up and down the staircase** was also found to **strengthen the heart muscle**.



Tip Box⁸: Upper body routines **build up the muscles** of the chest, shoulders, and arms. Push-ups are the most overrated **chest-building exercises**. For a guaranteed efficiency they have to be **done in sets** i.e. more than once. Shoulders and arms can be worked through dips and curls. The former routine consists at focusing the majority of our body weight on one's arms so that they get strengthened. This can be done by bending one's arms and dropping one's hips straight down toward the floor using a bench. For better results, it should be done more than once. The latter routine namely curls cannot be done without dumbbells.



Tip Box⁹: To work the midsection body, a **standard vrunch** is what we need most. “It begins by lying with the back on the floor with bent knees, and then elevating both the upper and lower spine from the floor until everything superior to the buttocks is not touching the ground.” **Wikipedia resource**



Tip Box¹⁰: The lower body can be easily toned through a **body weight squat**. “This routine consists at standing up straight with one’s feet firmly planted on the ground approximately shoulder width apart , then lowering one’s body to a position where one’s thighs are almost parallel to the floor.” **Life hacker site**



Tip Box¹¹: It should be noted that a full body work out in a gym can be attained by using the following equipments:

Recumbent Stationary Bike



Electric Treadmill



Upright Stationary Bike





Stair Stepper Treadmill



Elliptical Trainer



Rowing Machine

Stability Ball



Weight-lifting Machines

II. Practice makes perfect

Task one: Classify the different types of sport below according to their broader categories.





Task two: Choose the correct answer.

1. Football teams that play house/ inside/ home games during the domestic season and finish at the top of their country's league are usually picked to play far/ distant/ away games in international classes/ concerts/ tournaments.
2. France **won** its first football combat/championship/row in 1998.
3. In 2014 world cup finals, Brazil lost two of its best players due to injury and dismissal which made things easier for Germany to **have** the power/ lead/ pressure from the very beginning of the game and **win the** clash/debate/match hands down.
4. During the qualifying competition for the 2010 FIFA World Cup, Algeria and Egypt had a playoff match in which the Algerian team took/ crook/ spool **the lead** and qualified for the World Cup final tournament in South Africa.
5. In 1966 World Cup semi-finals, Northern Korea was almost winning the match when it scored three goals against Portugal in the first half. However, the Portuguese team **made** a shocking playback/setback comeback in the second half and won the match.
6. A good coach instills a **sense of** competition/ treachery/ loyalty in his players prior to every game they play to ensure they reach their full potential.
7. Noureddine Morceli set/bet/hit **a world record** during the World Championships in Athletics when he **won the first** location /place/shelter in middle-distance running.
8. To outrun/flout/enhance **her performance** and **achieve a** public/personal/national best at the Australian Open 2008, Maria Sharapova doped and hence failed/gained/scored the drug test.
9. According to David Beckham staying in good/ strout/clout shape at the age of forty requires daily work out and a healthy diet.
10. World-number-one athletes train hard to attain top/peak/ summit fitness in a tournament.
11. Many women would spend a fortune to **get rid of their spare** bumper/tire/bonnet.
12. There is a huge probability for overweight people, who have attained a **healthy fitness** level/ percentage/degree after a long period of training, to gain weight again. This only happens when they do not regularly exercise.
13. A well-organized/well-proportioned **body** is the target of most nowadays young people.

III. Time for some more practice

Task three: a. Which of the three kinds of people below are you?

**You are as fit and as sporty
as Jason Statham**



**The one who has a disproportionate
body weight and never works out**



**You are as thin as a rake and all of your
attempts to gain weight were deemed useless**

b. What if you have been the lucky winner of a yearly membership in a gym, what most hated areas of your body will you work out and with what equipment?



Task four: John, Stacey and Pooja are three overweight kids who decided to take part in the Biggest Loser with the steely resolve of losing weight. Imagine you are one of the trainers of the TV show, what kind of exercising would you recommend to the young desperate candidates who would like to attain a healthy fitness level?



Unit Two: Recreational Lifestyle/ Health and Sickness

I. Let's make things clear:

Tip Box¹: There is a kernel of truth that **-health is better than wealth**. Indeed, **overall health** affords us the opportunity to do whatever we want the reason why we should do our best to maintain it by adopting a **healthy lifestyle**.



Tip Box²: It is worth noting that overall health includes **physical and mental/emotional well-being**. These latter are closely linked in a way that any negative effect on the former involves deterioration of the latter, which means that they are mutually dependent.



Tip Box³: It is in our hands to remain healthy and **increase one's life expectancy**. This can be done by **getting regular checkups to diagnose minor or serious diseases** in time. In case of a **minor ailment** like a headache, we can easily **alleviate the symptoms with an over-the counter medication**. However, if **the symptoms persist**, we need to **consult a doctor for a head-to-toe exam**. Sometimes, a total recovery might require a **prescription medicine**, but when we **suffer from a chronic condition**, a **life-long treatment** is needed.



Tip Box⁴: During **routine checkups**, doctors **measure the pulse and blood pressure** of their patients. They also **get their weights** and ask for a **blood and a screening test** to make sure that there is nothing suspicious. If the patient is **diagnosed with** a serious disease, he might **go under the knife**.

Right after the surgery, he might be **racked with pain** and **in bad shape**, the reason for which most operated patients are hospitalized and **nursed back to health**.



Tip Box ⁵: When the doctor **performs a successful surgery**, this will **give a new lease of life** to the patient and allow him to **recharge his batteries** all over again. However, in case of **surgical failure**, he might **experience near-death** or even worse live with some **permanent after-effects**.



Tip Box ⁶: In addition to regular checkups, **long-term health** can also be achieved when we **reduce stress**, **eat a balanced diet**, **get plenty of sleep** and **exercise regularly**. It's also possible to prevent diseases by **getting vaccinations/ immunizations**. But sometimes we **get/fall sick** despite having taken all these precautionary measures the reason why a **health insurance** is indispensable no matter how healthy we are.



Tip Box ⁷: Amazingly, there are people who eat nothing but unhealthy food and who still manage to **look the picture of health**. This only means that they have a **cast iron stomach**. There are also those who never exercise or **get a good night's sleep** and are as **fit as a fiddle**.



Tip Box⁸: As we age, our once-sharp senses might fade away gradually and so we might feel a bit **past our prime**. In fact, as we get older and older, we might probably become as **blind as a bat**, **hard of hearing**, and **susceptible to** some serious mental and physical diseases.



Tip Box⁸: Depression and cancer are the most prevalent illnesses all over the globe. Due to the overwhelming stress and pressure of everyday life, many people find themselves dragged into a whirlpool of negative emotions. Those who have **nerves of steel** can handle stress with no **damaging consequences**. However, the faint-hearted are more prone to **sink into a mild or deep depression**. **People with cancer** can also develop this kind of **mental disorder** when they are **terminally ill**.

II. Practice makes perfect:

Task one: Identify the medical tests below.



Task two: Look at the set of pictures below then answer the questions.



- 1 Jack is r.....w.....p..... and seems in b.....s...... What do you think he should do?
- 2 Anna has a splitting headache which is usually considered as a m.....a...... Does she have to buy an o.....the c..... or a p.....m..... to a.....the s... ..?
- 3 Betty has been d.....w..... Sarcoma, so she had to g....u.....the...... Her surgeon p.....a s.....s..... and managed to remove the tumor. How do you expect her to feel right now? And will this change her life?
- 4 Mary Jane's doctor found out that she had asthma. What kind of health condition does she suffer from? And what treatment will she need?



- 5 Rebecca e.....near d..... due to s.....f...... It is true that she is still alive, but she will have to live with some p.....a.....- e...... Do you expect her to be overwhelmed with joy?
- 6 Miss Smith, an overworked waitress, had a stroke that made her lose the use of her left arm and leg. Her doctor told her that she can easily recover provided that she gets proper medical care at home. However, she has no relatives to n.....her b.....to h...... Besides, her employer refuses to cover her medical costs. Will the hospital grant her a longer period of hospitalization?
- 7 Lilly's sister has been admitted to a psychiatric hospital. She was diagnosed with severe bipolarity, a m.....d..... that had a devastating effect on her personal life. Do you think she can overcome the odds and help her sister get back on her feet again?



- 8 Two years ago Angelina Jolie cut her breasts off and removed her ovaries. Why?
- 9 Peter was as f.....as a f..... before he developed Leukemia. After an uphill battle trying to combat the illness, his doctor told him that he was no longer responding to the chemotherapy and had only six months to live. How do we call people like him?
- 10 Brian is an emergency doctor who never g.....a g.....n.....s....., nor does he get the time to r.....his b.......... What risk does he run?
- 11 At only eight, Patricia weighs 39kg. During the last r.....c.....u..... her doctor g.....her w..... and confirmed her mother's worst fears: she was overweight. What must she do to stay within the recommended weight for girls of her age?
- 12 Sophie's brother will have to wear glasses and a hearing device for the rest of his life because he became as b.....as a b.....and h.....of h..... after a tragic car accident. How do you expect him to feel?

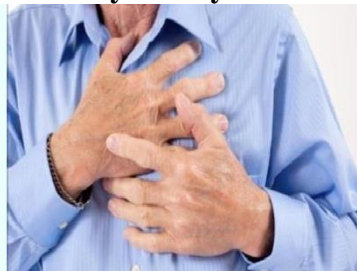
III. Time for some more practice:

Task three: What if you were Travis Lane Stork, host of the doctors TV show or one of the members of his panel. Pick any of the following diseases and carry out an in-depth research about it. Then answer your classmates' questions by providing them with easily digestible explanations and useful pieces of advice to limit the risks of contraction.

Kidney Stone Disease



Coronary Artery Disease



Lung Cancer



Inflammatory Bowel Disease



Toxic Nodular Goiter



Breast Cancer

Unit Two: Recreational Lifestyle/ Movies and Series

I. Let's make things clear:

Note¹: Thomas Edison's invention of the first **motion picture cameras** and the establishment of several **film production companies** such as Universal Studios and Paramount Pictures have marked the beginning of filmmaking in the 1890s. The first movies were produced with no spoken dialogue and were under a minute long due to the limits of the adopted technology of that time.



Note²: Since then, the world of filmmaking did not remain stagnant and underwent a dramatic metamorphosis in terms of equipment and production. Indeed, nowadays film production companies produce **color and sound movies** rather than **white and black films** with no synchronized sound at all. In addition, contemporary movies are longer with a running time of about 2400s and more. They also fit into a variety of genres according to the theme that they explore. Adapted from Wikipedia resources





Note³: Modern movies are not only characterized by their extended duration and diverse genres, but also their presentation techniques for captivating an exceedingly demanding audience. Before the official exhibition of a **motion picture** in **movie theatres**, for instance, a **movie trailer** is used for advertisement. When the **movie** officially **comes out**, an enthusiastic audience is expected on **the opening night**.



Note⁴: If the movie **enjoys considerable success** among the audience and garners positive **film critics' reviews**, then it might be **nominated for an award** namely the Bafta or the Oscars. It might also become a **box-office hit** if it **grosses huge theatrical revenues** domestically and internationally.



Note⁵: When a movie does not garner much notice and acclaim, then it is viewed as a **box-office bomb/ box-office flop**. It is worth noting that both **low and high- budget movies** are prone to utter failure even when they **star** the most **sought-after actors** for **leading roles**. Cat woman, for instance, **played by Halle Berry, an Academy Award-winning actress, flopped/failed at the box office** despite its \$100 million budget. Slum dog Millionaire, however, which **production costs** did not exceed \$15 million dollars, **outperformed at the box office** by grossing \$377.9 million. Besides, it starred two unknown actors.



Note⁶: Smash-hit movies are generally fictional, based on a true story or adapted from a novel. The science-fiction blockbuster the Matrix features Neo played by Keanu Reeves, a computer programmer, who sparks off a rebellion against the machines that subdued the human race to use their body's heat and electrical activity as a source of energy. Sandra Bullock's Blind side is a semi-biographical drama film that depicts the life of a disenfranchised black teenager whom she pulled from rock bottom to top of the world. The Twilight Saga is an adaptation of Stephanie Meyer's four novels namely Twilight, Twilight Saga: New Moon, Eclipse and finally Breaking Dawn.



Note⁷: The success of a high-grossing movie depends on the expertise of the producer, the quality of the storyline and the characterization of the actors.



Note⁸: Unlike motion pictures made exclusively to be shown in movie theaters at the first place, but which can be viewed by larger audiences when they are no longer premiered, series are produced for TV broadcast only. These latter vary in genre as much as movies.



Crime

Comedy

Drama

Documentary



Talent Contest



Reality



Magic

Note⁹: Good movies and series pull in appreciative audiences that might react positively and find them original, entertaining, first-rate, moving, intriguing, hilarious, absorbing, engrossing or thought-provoking. The most-hated ones, on the other hand, are received negatively because they either have been too dull, banal, ordinary or disappointing.



II. Practice makes perfect:

Task one: Classify the following movies/ series according to their genres.



Task two: Who among the stars below is an academy award- winning actor/ actress?





Task three: Choose the correct answer.

1. Movies are made with a
 - a. surveillance camera
 - b. polaroid camera
 - c. motion picture camera
2. Avatar is a
 - a. white and black movie
 - b. colored movie
3. Who is responsible for budgeting, scheduling, scripting and marketing a film?
 - a. A film production company
 - b. A business corporation
 - c. A trading company
4. A movie is also called a
 - a. documentary
 - b. motion picture
 - c. TV soap
5. What venue serves for viewing films?
 - a. Movie theatre
 - b. Auditorium
 - c. Amphitheatre
6. How do we call the commercial that is shown before the exhibition of a feature movie at cinema?
 - a. Movie trailer
 - b. Movie review
 - c. Movie plot
7. When do movie premieres take place?
 - a. During the opening night
 - b. During midnight
 - c. During the Oscars season
8. Newly produced films are watchable once they officially
 - a. come over
 - b. come in
 - c. come out

Task four: Cross out the incorrect collocations then correct them.

1. **Pretty Woman** is an American romance comedy that attracted considerable success during the 1990s. It starred Robert Gere and Julia Roberts whose acting career has taken off since then to become one of the world's highest paid actresses.
2. James Cameron is the producer of the two most lucrative movies worldwide namely **Avatar and Titanic**. Upon their theatrical release, both movies lived up to Cameron's expectations by picking huge theatrical revenues.
3. The sequel of the **Fantastic Four** movie was a box-office tomb. It was hailed with negative film critics' previews for the superficial characterization of the actors and the mediocrity of the storyline and script.
4. **Kate Blanchet** was called for an academy award for the very first time in 1998. Her vivid portrayal of Queen Elizabeth earned her an Oscar, a Bafta and a Golden Globe award.
5. **Jean Claude Van Dame** was one of the most fought after actors for heading roles in action movies during the 1980s and early 1990s. However, his popularity decreased widely with the coming of some new promising stars such as **Jason Statham, Jet Lee, and Vin Diesel**.
6. Until now no other movie could surpass **Gone with the Wind** in the top ten of the highest-grossing movies worldwide. It remains the only feature film that outlived the box-office with its \$3,440 billion dollars gross.

7. Despite being gamed by one of the most renowned actors in Hollywood namely **Will Smith, Ali**, the biographical sports drama film that recounts **Mohamed Ali's** life, was considered as a tremendous disaster as it crumbled at the box office.
8. **Catch me if you can** is an American hit and run movie that was based on the true tale of **Frank Abagnale**, one of the most famous impostors in America.
9. In 1995 **Lindsay Doran**, an American film producer, hired **Kate Winslet and Emma Dashwood** to star **Sense and Sensitivity** which was mused from Jane Austen's 1811 novel of the same name.
10. **Harrison Ford** made a long-awaited comeback with his blockbuster Science prediction movie **Star Wars: the force awakens**.
11. **My Name is Khan** has pulled back appreciative audiences from the very first week of its release.

III. Time for some more practice :

Task five : Like Raya Abou Rached, you are the host of a weekly box office chart show, comment on the top five newly released movies by answering the questions below :

- What categories do they fit into ?
- Who stars them ?
- What are they about ?
- How much did they gross in the box office ?



Task six: Have you ever watched any of the following movies or series? How did you find them in terms of characterization and storyline?





Unit Two: Recreational Lifestyle/ Music and Books

I. Let's make things clear:

Note¹: Music is "the art of combining vocal or instrumental sounds (or both) to produce beauty of form, harmony, and expression of emotion" (Concise Oxford Dictionary 1992). This means that the common and core components of any piece of music include the singer's **vocal techniques** that generally range from singing to rapping fused with a variety of **musical instruments** in addition to **emotion intensity**. However, it should not go unnoticed that there are purely **instrumental or vocal pieces** too.



Note²: Different **musical genres** can be identified. There are those which have no considerable appeal worldwide and which do not fit into world music. But there are also those which have **gained widespread popularity** among their **target audience** that they have been distributed to larger audiences through the **music industry**.



Latin

Hip Hop

Country

Electronic



Rai

Khalijee

Taarab

Indian

Note³: The music industry is “the business of performing, recording, and selling music through a number of different methods” (wise Geek). It comprises the songwriters and composers who write and compose new musical pieces as well as the singers and musicians who **perform the music**, but also the sound engineers and **music producers** who **record the music** and organize concert tours and finally the distributors who sell the recordings.



Note⁴: Recording artists, under contract with a given record label, **make records** assisted by music producers and audio engineers. Fifty years ago, **recording sessions** used to take place in **recording studios**, however, the latest advances in recording technology granted both producers and artists the opportunity to create their own **home recording studios**. Once the album is completed, **the record companies**, who have initially paid for the recording costs, handle the manufacturing, distribution, promotion and marketing of the new recordings.



Note⁵: To ensure a proper running of a recording session, an arranger, a vocal coach and a band of studio musicians are mobilized. The former namely the arranger reconceptualizes the composed work by making it sound different from its original version. The vocal coach for his part helps the singer to get prepared vocally

for a high-quality recording. And finally the musicians perform the composition by viewing a **sheet music**. A variety of **musical instruments** is utilized during the recording session.

Electronic Piano



Acoustic Guitar



Grand/Studio Piano



Electric Guitar



Studio Drum



Button Accordion



Electric Bass Guitar



Piano Accordion

Flat back Mandolin



Bowl back Mandolin



Classical Violin



Electric Violin



Trumpet



Saxophone



Orchestral Harmonica



Side-blown/ End-blown Flute



Headless Tambourine

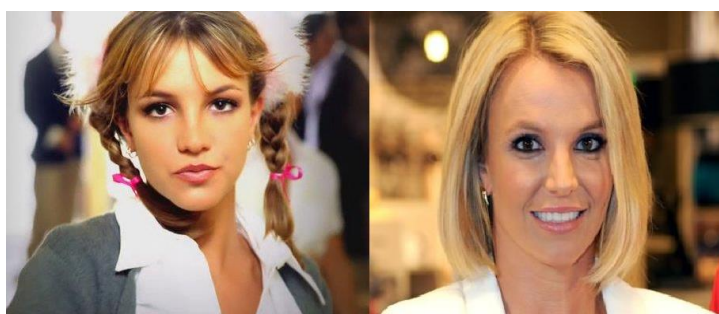
Note⁶: To **undertake a singing career**, a singer has to be **musically gifted**. Singers such as Prince **compose their own music** and **write song lyrics**. However, that is not a general rule. Mariah Carey, for instance, is known for her **beautiful singing voice** rather than her songwriting talent.



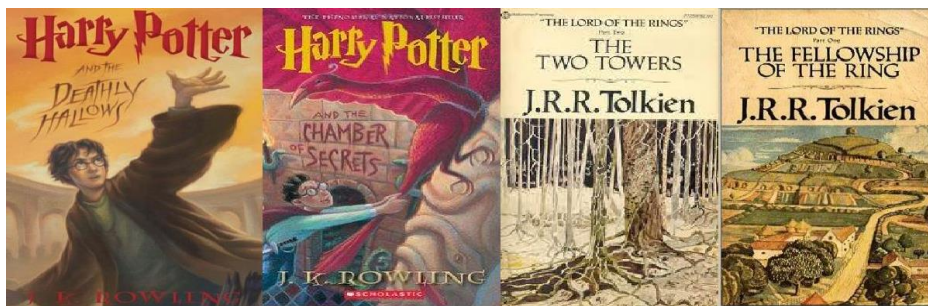
Note⁷: Most **professional singers** had a hard time before they could **break into the music industry** and see their **singing careers take off**. Madonna, the queen of pop, started out **playing gigs** in bars and clubs to attract a **sizable following** before she could finally **record her debut album**. The **lead single** of the album namely Like a Virgin was a **massive hit** in the late 1980s.



Note⁸: In addition to the royalties paid by the recording company, singers make money by **going on tours** wherein their vocal talent is put to the test. Britney Spears, who had a tremendous success thanks to the **catchy tune** and **upbeat tempo** of her **debut single** Baby hit me one more time, is constantly blamed for **singing off-key** during a live concert.



Note⁹: Music and movies are not the only means of entertainment to **while one's time away**. Likewise, books are also enjoyable and diverting. Just as much as movie and music addicts, **voracious readers** can derive immense pleasure from reading. Moreover, they ensure a proper intellectual and cognitive development by **immersing themselves in** a book from time to time. Books in general **cover a variety of topics** ranging from fiction to non-fiction. Fictional stories **stir up the readers' interest** more usually than the non-fictional ones. In fact, most of the **best-selling books** are a figment of the author's imagination wherein **central characters** lead an uphill battle against evil.



II. Practice makes perfect

Task one: Answer the questions below.

1. What do recording artists and musicians do?
2. How do we call the period of time devoted to recording music in a studio?
3. Where do recording sessions take place?
4. What task is the music producer charged with?
5. How is the printed form of music notation referred to?

Task two: Complete the collocations below with their missing parts.

1. "**Albinoni's Adagio**" is not a piece of music but rather an composition.
2. Despite approaching her fifties, **Celine Dion** did not lose her voice.
3. In five years only, **Shakira's Waka Waka** has amassed more than a billion views on YouTube thanks to its catchy and upbeat.....
4. **Michael Jackson** undertook a soloin his early twenties. His debut Don't Stop Till You Get Enough became a massive..... upon its release in 1979.
5. Rapping is a completely different vocalfrom singing as it uses spoken words that are rhythmically chanted.
6. Opera singing requires a high intensity of.....**Maria Callas**, the Greek goddess of opera, was known for her emotional performances on stage.
7. As she grew older, **Miley Cyrus** lost her targetconsisting mainly of tween-agers.
8. Prior to her death in 2003, twenty two- years- old singer **Aaliah** has already gained widespread..... for her acting debut in **Romeo Must Die**.
9. Most struggling singers agree upon the fact that it is no easy feat tointo the music
10. **Adele** is a musicallysinger who does not only.....her music but who also writes her
11. **Kelly Clarkson's** participation in American Idol earned her the opportunity toher debut.....
12. **Universal Music Group, Inc.** is the largest and the most coveted..... company in the world. Most recording wish to conclude a contract with it.
13. **Mariah Carey** was underwith Sony Music Entertainment before her divorce with Tommy Mottola, who was its top executive for more than 15 years.
14. **Michael Jackson** was intending to a world tour to reconnect with his fans after a decade-long absence from the stage. However, his untimely death hindered him from fulfilling the dream of setting fire on stage as in the old days.
15. Many amateur singers play and release their videos on YouTube to attract afollowing with the hope of getting noticed by a music.....
16. **Lady Gaga's** singing career spectacularly by working with the talented songwriter Red One.
17. Anysinger who suffers from acute laryngitis is prone to sing

Task three: Identify your favorite stars' musical genres and what instruments they play.



Task four: Replace the bolded expressions with synonymous collocations.

Anna is an **avid reader** who **spends her leisure time engrossing** herself in books of **all genres**. Nothing **thrills** her more than a good fictitious story. Many of her readings **achieved the highest sales** worldwide. Recently, she bought Suzanne Collins' teen novel The Hunger Games Trilogy. She has already watched its filmic version, and now she wants to deep dive in the **leading characters'** dystopian world for more exiting details as many of them were overlooked in the movie.

III. Time for some more practice:

Task five: choose one of the following topics.

Topic one: Kelly Clarkson and Mohamed Assaf were the eventual and lucky winners of American Idol and its Arabic version. They won the singing contest hands down surpassing all the other participating competitors. In your opinion, what assets contributed to their remarkable success? And was their path to stardom strewn with obstacles?



Topic two: Barbra Walters is an American broadcast journalist known for her scoop interviews with the most influential celebrities in the world. She had the privilege of interviewing Michael Jackson along with many other superstars. If you were hosting a similar interview-show and had the opportunity to meet your longtime idol, what questions would you ask him/her?

Unit Five: Attitudes and Opinions

- I. Let's make things clear
- a. Liking and Disliking

Note¹: Taste preferences differ from one individual to another. In fact, no two people share the same likes and dislikes, the reason why it is said that **there is no accounting for taste**. Many expressions can be used to talk about our music, hobbies, movie, culinary, or clothing preferences. Some of them are highlighted below. When expressing one's affinity with a certain music genre or musical artist, we must indicate the degree of our admiration and the reasons behind it. Example: I am **a life-long fan** of Michael Jackson. He is such a down to earth artist. That is why I **hold him in the highest regard**. Our movie preferences can be shown in the same way too. For instance: I am a **great admirer** of Angelina Jolie. Watching her movies provides me with **sheer enjoyment**. She's not only an amazing actress but also a fervent philanthropist to whom the fleeting pleasures of fame and fortune are of no concern.



Note²: As children, we might **develop a particular liking for** a certain hobby. Maria Sharapova, for instance, **had a clear preference for** tennis since she was four. According to her father, Yuri Sharapova, nothing could make her happier than gripping a tennis racket. It was a real source of enjoyment. Extensive practicing and her "exceptional hand-eye coordination" earned her the opportunity to turn her great love for tennis into a professional career.



Note³ : Our culinary or clothing preferences can be indicated with any of the following phrases :
I have a strong leaning towards/ I am fond of/ I am so into/ I am keen on/ I am crazy/mad about/ I enjoy/ adore eating/wearing sth etc...



Note⁴ : Any of the below expressions can be used to express ones dislikes :
To take an instant dislike to sb/sth. Ex : I took an instant dislike on Trump since the very first time I saw him on TV.
To have nothing but contempt for sb/sth. Ex : I have nothing but contempt for superficial people.
To develop a strong aversion to sb/ sth. Ex : Jane developed a strong aversion to dogs
To hate sb/sth with passion. Ex : Peter hates spinach with passion.



Note⁵ : When we neither like nor dislike something, we may say : **I don't mind/ I don't really care either way/it's all the same to me.**

b.Praising and Criticising

Note¹ : **Gaining one's parents' approval** on whether to follow one's path and undertake the career of our choice is no easy feat. As it were the case with Alfred Nobel who was **hit by a barrage of criticism** from his father, Emmanuel Nobel a Swedish inventor and engineer, after he told him about his passion for writing. Not accepting his son's choice, Alfred's father sent him on an educational trip to learn chemical engineering in the hope that he would follow in his footsteps. However, despite Alfred's achievements as a scientist, he remained committed to his first choice and continued writing poems, novels and plays behind closed doors. Unfortunately, none of them was published.



Note²: Florence Nightingale, the founder of modern professional nursing, has also received **scathing criticism** and encountered **strong disapproval** from her parents. She was born into a wealthy Victorian family. Her mother, a dedicated socialiste, expected her to marry a man of means. However, much to her parents' dismay, Florence **countered their criticism** by following her passion and taking up nursing as a profession. Despite their strong objection and intial reluctance, her father and mother had no other alternative but to concede and **give their blessing** as they realized how much their daughter loved nursing.



N.B. Florence Nightingale was a devoted nurse who took her work very seriously. During the Crimean war, she used to make several rounds through the camps at night to check on the wounded soldiers who nicknamed her 'The Lady with the Lamp'.

Note³: Just as Nobel and Nightingale, Katy Perry, the British pop singer, was opposed by her pastor parents to follow a musical career. By contrast to what many people might guess, Perry had a religious upbringing where movies, magazines and dancing parties were prohibited. She was an evangelical christian. At sixteen, she rebelled against her parents' strict religious code of conduct and released her first album. Her mother could not hide her anger and **fiercely criticized** her. But Katy totally **dismissed her criticism** and went on to fulfil her dream of becoming a music icon.



Note⁴: Celine Dion was luckier than Perry and had her parents' **wholehearted approval** from the very beginning. Her mother, Colette, was the first to take notice of her daughter's god-given talent and offered her **enthusiastic support**. She stood by her till she could give her first stage performance which **garnered rave critical reviews**. Critics were extremely impressed and moved by her vocals as she was only fourteen. Many of them **warmly congratulated** her and **spoke highly of** her outstanding performance.



II. Practice makes perfect :

Task one: Identify the likes and dislikes of the celebrities below.





Task two: Complete the sentences below with the appropriate collocations.

1. Mary Kate Olsen loves riding horses by contrast to her twin sister, Ashley, who hates them. This just goes to show that
2. Bill Gates is.....for having donated 28 billion dollars to the AGRA foundation. (Alliance for a Green Revolution in Africa)
3. In addition to his unquestionable acting skills, Hugh Laurie has always had a..... for music. He is an amazing piano player and a gifted guitarist.
4. Celine Dion is aand aof Barbra Streisand from her earliest childhood. In 1997 she had the privilege of performing a duet with her idol. The result of their musical collaboration was simply breathtaking.

5. Having reached the pinnacle of her acting career, Angelina Jolie turned toward philanthropy and humanitarian issues. Helping underprivileged children worldwide did not only provide her with but also gave more meaning to her life.
6. Despite having pursued a legal career as a public defender for almost two years, Andrea Boccheli had for professional opera singing since his senior year.
7. Prince Charles was hit with a for his passionate and longstanding liaison with Camilla, Duchess of Cornwall. His mother, Queen Elizabeth, did not approve of their relationship at the very beginning, so he had to fight long and hard till 2005, where he could finally her..... to formalize their engagement.
8. Steve Jobs was known for being very blunt. He used to direct to his employees.
9. Despite being heavily criticized for her obesity, Adele the media's..... by establishing herself as a pop diva armed with nothing but her vocal talent.
10. In a face-to-face interview, Oprah revealed that the reason behind her irreversible decision not to have kids of her own was her mother. She claimed having a of motherhood because she had not been mothered like any ordinary child.
11. With a wide majority, the American population its..... to Barack Obama so that he can serve for a second term as a president in 2013.
12. When Hilary Clinton announced her candidacy for presidency in 2015, her husband and former president of the United States of America, Bill Clinton, along with many of the delegates of the Democratic party expressed their to her initiative. They had pledged during her campaign till she was officially nominated for the 2016 presidential elections.
13. Bajirao Mastani, the Indian epic historical romance, starring Deepika Padukone and Ranveer Singh did not only emerge as a commercial success with its 52 million Dollars in gross revenues at the box-office, it has also Upon its release, critics the direction, costumes and acting performances particularly those of Singh and Chopra, who was also part of the cast portraying Bajirao's first wife.
14. Amy Winehouse was by her family and friends since she began dating Reg Ariss in 2010. However, she..... and maintained her relationship with him.

II. Time for some more practice :

Task three: Choose one of the following topics

Topic One: Timothy Donner is a seventeen year-old teenaged boy, known for being America's most famous polyglot. Despite his young age, he has a special knack for learning foreign languages. When interviewed by the New York Times magazine, he admitted having a clear preference for learning languages since he was five. Watching cartoons, listening to music, and most of all coming into close contact with natives were his main learning methods. Uptill now, he is able to speak more than twenty foreign languages at different levels of fluency. He aspires to learn more as nothing else provides him with sheer enjoyment. What about you? Have you developed a particular liking for a certain hobby?

Topic Two: When Maria Shriver, Arnold Schwazneger's ex-wife, found out about her husband's affair with their Guatemalan housekeeper, she immediately filed for divorce. She could not get over his infidelity and give her broken marriage a much-needed fresh start to rekindle their romance all over again. By contrast, Hilary Clinton preferred to stay with her cheating husband Bill after six months of reflection and separation.

Do you approve or disapprove of women who tolerate marital infidelity? And do you think that cheating husbands should be given a second chance?



Unit Five: Attitudes and Opinions

- I. Let's make things clear
- b. Agreeing and Disagreeing

Note¹: When two people share the same opinion or feeling, we say that they **totally/ completely** or **strongly agree** with each other. Strong agreement can also be expressed with: the adverb **wholeheartedly** in combination with the verb to **agree**. Ex: I agree wholeheartedly with you. Expressions such as **agree up to a point/to some extent** are used to refer to partial or tactful agreement.



Note²: Disagreement can be either minor or major. The former is expressed with any of the following collocational phrases: **I see your point, I respectfully disagree, I'm afraid I disagree** etc... The latter, on the other hand, is shown with: **I vehemently/ profoundly disagree**.



Note³: To **settle a disagreement** especially if it is a **long- running dispute**, we might have recourse to the help of a third party. The role of this latter is to make the conflicting parties **reach a compromise** despite their **difference of opinion**.

c. Claiming and Denying

Note⁴: When people are wrongfully accused of something, they usually **deny the allegations** and do their best to **substantiate their claims** by providing evidence. But, if they have no proof for their innocence, then their **claims** will be perceived as **unfounded**.

II. Practice makes perfect:

Task one: To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following.

<p>Sectarianism</p> 	<p>Sexism</p> 	<p>Marital abuse</p> 
 <p>Bullying</p>	 <p>Algeria's reliance on oil revenues</p>	 <p>Encouraging foreign investment</p>
 <p>Privatisation of higher education</p>	<p>Algeria's sanction laws against swindlers, embezzlers and imposters</p>  <p>Fiscal belt-tightening policies</p>	

Task two: What are the people on the pictures below trying to do?



Task three: Fill in the gaps with correct collocations.

In pursuit of justice, counselor Jane Bingum was ready to face disbarment and lose her law license. Rather than for having defended a scammer who wanted to rip off an insurance company with the help of a fraud doctor, she preferred to be disbarred. At the very beginning of her trial, the panel of juries found her..... Fortunately enough, her boss Parker, who took on her case, provided sharp evidence thatof her innocence, and so she was cleared of all charges.

Time for some more practice

Task Four: Discuss the two following topics.

Topic one: Twenty three years ago, Michael Jackson, the king of pop, was accused of molesting a thirteen year-old teenaged boy. The child’s allegations featured the lead story in most American newspapers and tabloids for months. The eruption of the scandal threw Michael into an emotional turmoil especially after he was strip-searched by the local police with a view to checking the accuracy of the accuser’s description of his genital parts. During his trial, Michael kept on proclaiming his innocence till he was officially acquitted of all charges for lack of persuasive evidence. His attorney cracked the case by negotiating an out-of court settlement with the child’s family for \$22 million. According to David Finkelhor, director of the Crimes against Children Research Center: ‘1 in 5 girls and 1 in 20 boys is a victim of child sexual abuse.’ (Child Sexual Abuse Statistics) Their abusers either remain unpunished because no complaints are filed against them, or are sentenced to imprisonment. Recently in Algeria, the case of an assaulted four-year old girl named Nihel brought the question of death penalty for child abusers to the fore. The public opinion was so moved that they called for applying capital punishment to deter child assault. Do you agree or disagree with that?



Topic Two: The establishment of ISIS in Irak and Syria and its attempt to plunge the western world into terror, urged the USA to forge new alliances so as to extinguish its members once and for good. France, America's most reliable ally, deployed thousands of soldiers to hold off their vicious attacks. When ISIS expanded across Libya, the Algerian government preferred to avoid an armed intervention and chose to protect its borders without being militarily involved in the Lybian crisis. In your view, did the Algerian sovereignty take the right decision? And what about Francois Hollande? Was his involvment in the distruction of ISIS a wise choice?

Unit Seven: Social Networking Networking

I. Let's make things clear

a. Conversation/Discussion

Note¹: Social media including Facebook, Tweeter, Instagram etc... allow for computer-mediated-communications. People from around the world get in touch with each other through instant messaging, email, chat rooms, online forums etc..., which are the main format of those computerized correspondences. During the last ten years, Socializing through the internet has gained so much popularity among the youths and even older adults. In fact, according to Statista, the Statistics Portal, almost two billion people **strike up/hold conversations** on Facebook hoping to find a soul mate, better friends, or reconnect with estranged relatives or old fellows.



Note²: Lengthy pleasant conversations are not the only option offered to Facebook users, they can also hold group discussions that centre on multiple issues.



b.Computer and Internet

Note³: Fifty years ago **accessing Internet** was impossible as it was completely monopolized by the American federal government, whose scientific experts were first to develop the idea of a global network of computers that allows information sharing. Hopefully, this monopoly has been broken up thanks to computing researchers from UCLA, Harvard and Utah universities who popularized the use of internet worldwide. Now, we can **browse the web** and use its most popular **search engines** whenever and wherever we want to.



Note⁴: Before the launching of Facebook, Yahoo was once the leading name in instant messaging until 2005. Though it has lost its appeal as a medium of synchronous (real-time) communication, it remains people's first choice for asynchronous messaging which involves **firing off and replying to emails** to which personal **files can be attached** too. To avoid the clogging of a mailbox, excess email messages should be **deleted** when they are no longer needed. These latter can be easily **recovered** from the trash bin or **archived** for an unlimited time. It is worth noting that it is impossible to **log in/on** an email account when **the website is shut down** for **routine/scheduled maintenance**.



Note⁵: During the last ten years, an array of high-tech gadgets got into the market to increase and facilitate internet access. But computers especially laptops remain the most coveted, not only because they are easy to **start up** and **shutdown** but also for their storage capacity and the unlimited number of tasks they perform including **burning cd's**, printing documents etc.... Meanwhile, their safety system is still weaker than that of iPads which makes them more prone to hacking.



Note⁶: The longevity of a computer rests on **the installation of an anti-virus program to run periodic scans for viruses and spyware**. If it is kept unprotected, then it can easily **get infected and lock up**. However, a good repair technician can fix the damage and **reboot the computer**. Generally when a pc **crashes**, it is irrecoverable. Adapted from Wikipedia the free encyclopedia

II. Practice makes perfect :

Task one: Answer the questions below.

1. What do we use Facebook for?
2. How can we safeguard one's computers from viruses?
3. What tasks can computers complete that iPads can't?
4. What usually happens when a computer is dropped and hits the ground?

Task two: Fill in the gaps with the correct answers.

1. Amy's laptopseverely, for she forgot to renew her Kaspersky subscription. It's only after it..... that she hired a computer technician to repair it.
2. Seven-year-old Jenna wanted an iPad for her anniversary. To please her, Tom her father, bought her the latest iPad Mini. Now, he is teaching her how it.....and
3. Harvey was trying towhen his PC suddenly shut down. Fortunately enough, he could.....it and resume the interrupted task.
4. The 4G modem provides a fastto the.....
5. It is impossible towithout the Firefox or Internet Explorer icon.
6. Despite the creation of new competing web such as Yandex in Russia and Baidu in China, Google and Yahoo remain the most popular in the world.
7. Josh was intending toa follow up email to Mr. Mackintosh whom he had a job interview with two days ago. However, he could not to his mailbox because Yahoo wasfor.....
8. Because of his urgent need for updated documentation, Abdrahmane, an Algerian PhD student, sent hundreds of emails to renowned professors in the field of Biology abroad. Quite unexpectedly, two of them replied andsome.....which were related to his dissertation theme.
9. I rarelyemails except for the most important ones.

Task three: Replace the bolded words with the most appropriate ones.

Isabella is a Mexican-based woman who has always been contented with her life as a florist. However, when her store went bust, Javier, the eldest of her sons, decided to relieve his mother of the burden of responsibility and support the whole family. He was ready to go to any extent to find a high-paid job. Unfortunately, when all of his plans went awry, one option remained : illegal immigration. So he embarked on a perilous journey for the purpose of getting a better job opportunity in America with the help of a smuggling network. Before leaving, his mother made him promise that he would get in touch with her once he would settle down. A year has passed, and nobody heard from him. His family was worried sick and feared the worst

since none of their emails were **answered**. Till the day when Javier made a surprise visit to his mother, who went wild with joy to see him alive. He was overwhelmed by his family's warm-hearted welcome, then found himself beset with questions about the reason of his long silence. He explained that his journey was no easy feat and that he went through hurdle after hurdle before he could finally acquire citizenship thanks to Lilly, his wife. Then, he went on adding that his mailbox was clogged and that most of his emails were automotaically **omitted** and could not be **regained**.

III. Time for some more practice :

Task five: Kadirou and Mohamed are two small-town boys who grew up in the same rural area and attended elementary school together. Despite the fact that they were two complete opposites, they had forged a very strong bond which lasted for two decades. They were simply inseparable. Till the day when Mohamed, the smartest and the nicest of the two, got the chance to find a good match on a matrimonial site. His soon-to-be bride had everything a man could ever want: beauty, money and the Canadian nationality. So he could not slip that chance by. Obviously, his marriage aroused intense jealousy among the youth of the village including his childhood friend Kadirou, who made a resolution to learn how to use a computer so as to hit the jackpot like him. Act out a dialogue with any of your classmates where you impersonate kadirou and the so called guru who will train him?



Unit Eight: Talking about Social Issues

I. Let's make things clear

a. Crime, Punishment and Justice

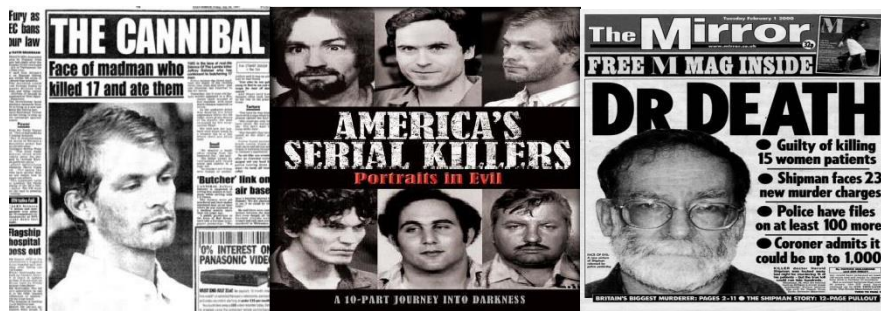
Note¹: During the last ten years the world has witnessed a massive **crime wave**. Every day hundreds of thousands of **barbaric crimes are committed** ranging from personal to property or inchoate felonies. The former type encompasses 'Offenses against the person' such as **brutal murder, savage rape and physical assault**. The latter namely the property type relates to 'Offenses against the property' including theft, robbery, embezzlement, false pretenses etc...It is worth noting that unlike the two former major offenses, inchoate crimes are incomplete acts in which a person might have the intent to murder, kidnap or rob but does not go through with it. All crimes without exception are punishable even the **petty** ones, however, they vary tremendously in terms of penalties and sentencing. Adapted from legislation.gov.uk



Note²: Generally, when a **crime is reported**, an investigation ensues to find out the identity of the **escaping criminal**. The solving of the case will depend on the police's savoir-faire. Any investigation starts with a thorough examination of **the crime scene** from which **forensic evidence can be gathered**. **Eyewitness accounts** are also taken into consideration provided that they come forward to testify what they have seen. Based on the collected evidence, **primary suspects** are arrested. These latter can **prove their innocence** by **providing an alibi**, if they have any.



Note³: **Law breakers** can fit into two main categories: **first-time offenders** who have never had a run-in with the law before and **recidivists** who already **have a criminal record**. There are also more **notorious criminals** known by the media and the world for **aggravated felonies** such as **serial/ psychopathic killers**.



Note⁴: When a criminal is **brought to justice**, a panel of judges in addition to two juries decide on the kind of **punishment he/ she should be meted out to**. The **handed down sentence** will depend on whether the crime committed is of a low or high- level type. Generally, if the criminal act is of a petty type, the convict **serves a jail term** varying from one to five years. However, if it is an aggravated felony, he/she will be **sent to prison** where longer sentences are carried out.



Note⁵: **Capital punishment/ Death penalty** is generally **inflicted on** dangerous murderers. However, **getting justice for** the hapless victims is not always possible because of some legal loopholes that many criminals can take advantage of. As was the case with OJ Simpson, an American football player, who purportedly killed his wife and **won acquittal** though all evidence pointed at him as being the real killer. Adapted from wikipedia the free encyclopedia



Note⁶: **Crime motives** differ from one individual to another. Some people kill for money or seek personal vendetta/revenge while others commit the unspeakable act for the sake of honour or narcotics. Property disputes, class conflicts and urge to protect can also lead to devastating consequences.

II. Practice makes perfect :

Task one: What kind of crimes do the following pictures refer to?



Task two: Who among the celebrities below is a first time offender or a rebel with a heavy or lengthy criminal record?



Task three: Fill in the gaps with the correct collocations.

1. Because of their incapacity to contain the alarming that hit Chicago since 2011, the police department has redoubled its efforts to incarcerate morewho threaten stability.
2. Most of the murder cases cracked during the last five years in Caracas have a common : drug trafficking and lure of limitless power and fortune.
3. To identify and capture, police investigations rely mainly on but most importantly on
4. The investigating officers could have caught theIf the.....had beenon time.
5. Marilyn Monroe died due to barbiturate overdose in 1962. Uptill now, many of her relatives and closest friends are convinced that the has been staged to make her unexpected and suspicious death appear like a suicide.
6. In 2009, Keanu Reeves was falsely convicted of having raped and impregnated one of his fans. Fortunately, he could..... thanks to the DNA test which confirmed that he was not the father of the complainant's child.
7. Ted Bundy is one of the most..... in America. He has murdered more than thirty young women between 1974 and 1978 and has been executed by electrocution in 1989.
8. Had he nota good....., John would have never been disculpated of his ex-wife's murder.
9. Ted Harris' book 'The Silence of the Lambs' has been adapted into a film in 1991. It recounts the story of a..... known as the buffalo bill who skins his female victims to make an outfit for himself.
10. In an unprecedented scandal in Arabs' world of music, Moroccan singer, Saad Lemdjared, was arrested for the of attempted rape on October, 26th, 2016. He was supposed to give a concert in Paris when police authorities detained him for questioning. According to the media, he might face up 20 years in prison if the charges filed against him are not dropped.
11. Despite the efforts of the LVPD to solve the murder of Tupac Shakur, the American rapper, his murderer could not be identified and was never
12. Wrongfully convicted of arson murder, Cameron Todd Willingham, a victim of the American justice system, was unjustlythe harshest punishment ever :
13. Being the sole suspects of their daughter's and servant's murder, Dr. Rajesh and Nupur Talvar were a life imprisonment
14. Wesley Snipes, commonly known for having portrayed Marvel Comics' character Blade, was to in 2006 toa two years'for federal income tax fraud.
15. Due to lack of evidence, Dominique Strauss Khan, the French politician, for attempted rape in 2011.
16. Baby Brianna case received big media coverage in America for the atrocities that she has been through. She was only a few days old when both her father, mother and uncle started abusing her till she passed away five months later. Inspectors who conducted the investigation were so moved by her death that they made a vow to.....herby imprisoning the culprits till they rot in jail.

III. Time for some more practice:

Task Four: What if you were a police officer whose hometown has been hit by a string of inexplicable disappearances and murders. What will you do to track down the culprit and bring him to justice? Act out a

dialogue where you question the victims' family members and eyewitnesses who would possibly help you solve the case?



N.B. Here are some additional collocations related to justice:

To appear in court/ to stand trial/ to reach a verdict/ to appeal a verdict / to overturn a verdict/ to uphold a verdict/ to present inconclusive or irrefutable evidence/ to pay a fine/ to do community service.

Unit Eight: Talking about Social Issues

I. Let's make things clear

b. Education and Technology

Note¹: All parents without exception expect their kids to have some **decent or a first-class education**. However, this only happens when both public and private educational systems pay due attention to learners' learning needs.

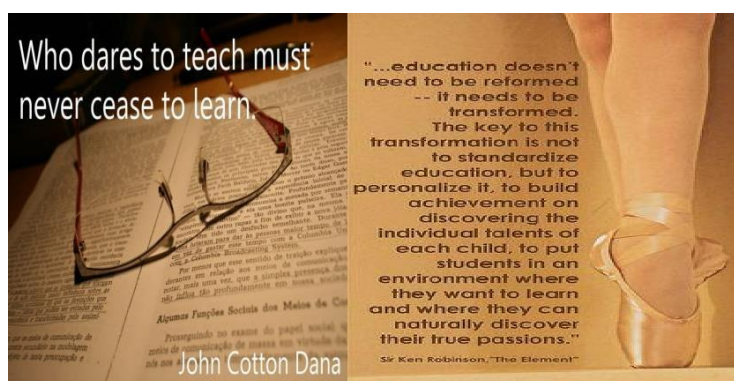


Note²: Schools are generally organised into three main educational stages namely elementary, middle and high school. The division of schoolers into grades is made by sorting them by age groups that range from kindergarten and first grade for young children up to the twelfth grade, after which it is possible **to further /continue their education** at the university to **obtain a degree**.

Note³: According to the the Pearson/Economist Intelligence Unit 2014 report, all of the United Kingdom, Canada, the USA, Germany and France have the best and the most well-developed educational system in the world. The secret behind their success is that they spend lavishly on education. Expenditures include teacher training, an array of sophisticated materials and **curriculum reforms**. Adapted from wikipedia the free encyclopedia



Note⁴: Curricula are **designed** by professional didacticians and experienced teachers who are expected to use their best endeavour to come up with efficient pedagogical tools. Ten years ago, **significant educational reforms** were **adopted** in many developing countries including Algeria. These latter were meant to deal with the deterioration of teachers' expertise and learners' poor academic performances. However, none of these reforms yielded visible results.



Note⁵: It should be noted that school policies and procedures are almost the same for most parts of the world. School/Academic years are divided into terms or semesters by the end of which students **sit for/take exams**. **Classes** including lectures and tutorials **are held** in separate rooms holding up to thirty or forty students. **Academic subjects** vary from one stream/ branch to another, each of which has a particular programme to stick to. As to uniforms, they are not always compulsory. **Academic grading**, on the other hand, differs tremendously from one country to another. Some countries such as the USA adopt a five letter grading system, whereas others rely mostly on a 20-point grading scale. Adapted from wikipedia the free encyclopedia

Teaching Tips from BLOG.HSLDA.ORG

100-98	A+
97-95	A
94-93	A-
92-90	B+
89-87	B
86-85	B-
84-82	C+
81-79	C
78-77	C-
76-75	D+
74-72	D
71-70	D-

20	Excellent
19	Great
18	Very Good
17	Good
16	Above Average
15	Average
14	Lackluster
13	Below Average
12	Not Recommended

Note⁶: To enter **tertiary education/post secondary education**, high school students have to sit for a **matriculation exam** such as the A-level, Matura or the International Baccalaureate Diploma. University admission depends crucially on the average obtained at those exams. Prospective students who **pass them with flying colours** are spoilt for choice, by contrast to those who just **scrape through**. In some particular countries such as the USA, students apply for college entrance after having passed the SAT (Scholastic Assessment Test) and filled out an application form that is notified by the college admissions staff. Once

admitted, applicants can enrol in a four year Bachelor of Arts program or an integrated Master's degree.

Adapted from wikipedia the free encyclopedia

Note⁷: Because of their **poor education**, none of the developed countries could **create advanced technologies**. Yet, every year thousands of innovative advances see the light of day in the western world.

II. Practice makes perfect

Task one: Answer the questions below.

1. John has withdrawn all of his savings to send his only daughter to Oxford University. Why ?
2. Betty, an English graduate student, has applied for a Phd Engineering Scholarship program in Japan. What for ?
3. Researchers from the university of South Africa have noticed that a third of their students drop out of their courses. They came up with the conclusion that an urgent change should be brought about. How ?

Task two: Choose the correct answer.

1. Algerian Minister of Education, Nouria Benrabrit, has recently adopted
 - a. some new policies
 - b. new educational reforms
 - c. new instructional strategies
2. Ethiopia, the most populous landlocked country in Africa, is known for its
 - a. cutting-edge advances in technology
 - b. modern infrastructure
 - c. poor education
3. With 8042 universities, India is one of the top countries where students are offered ample opportunities for
 - a. employment
 - b. tertiary/post secondary education
4. Stars of Science is the only Arabic TV show that prompts contestants to
 - a. showcase their skills in acting
 - b. enthrall people with their singing talent
 - c. create advanced technologies
5. Like the International Baccalaureate Diploma, Abitur is
 - a. a talent competition
 - b. a matriculation exam
6. Linguistics, Phonetics, Written and Oral Expression are
 - a. Academic subjects
 - b. Teaching approaches
7. Every year hundreds of thousands of high-school students in Algeria
 - a. graduate from medical schools
 - b. sit for the Baccalaureate exam
 - c. enlist in the army

Task three: What collocations can be associated with the pictures below



III. Time for some more practice :

Task four: Express yourself about the two following topics.

Topic One: Three months ago, Benghabrit's reforms made the headlines and sparked a media frenzy all over the country. She was fiercely criticized for taking snap decisions without involving professional educational consultants in the transition process. In your view, what reforms would bring radical change in Algeria's educational system?



Topic Two: Kenny Ray Carter is an American former high-school basket ball coach who made the headlines in 1999 for having benched his entire undefeated team for their poor academic performance with the intention of teaching them the importance of education. If you were in his position, would you be as gutsy as he was and act the way he did?



Unit Eight: Talking about Social Issues

I. Let's make things clear

c. War and Peace

Note¹: When Syrians went out to protest against President Bashar el Asad and ask for his removal, nobody would have ever suspected that a peaceful rebellion would turn into an ongoing **civil war**. Since its outbreak in 2011, six million refugees **sought asylum** in neighboring countries such as Turkey and Lebanon while others opted for **internal displacement** and resettled away from their respective homes. The UN attempts **to negotiate a ceasefire** between the government and rebels were in vain as both sides **violated the truce** mediated agreement and continued fighting resulting in more **civilian casualties**. Adapted from wikipedia the free encyclopedia



Note²: Even when the Russian government braved the odds and intervened **to restore peace and bring stability** to the area, its attempts were doomed to failure. Up to this day, the war is still going on despite the sustained efforts **to establish permanent peace**. Thirteen years ago, Iraq has also suffered a similar fate to that of Syria. In 2003, President George Bush **deployed 20000 soldiers** for its invasion, which lasted from 20 March to 1 May of the same year. During this period, Saddam Hussein's government was toppled for good as he and his partisans were suspected of **stockpiling weapons** in addition to be involved in a nuclear program. Adapted from wikipedia the free encyclopedia

II. Practice makes perfect

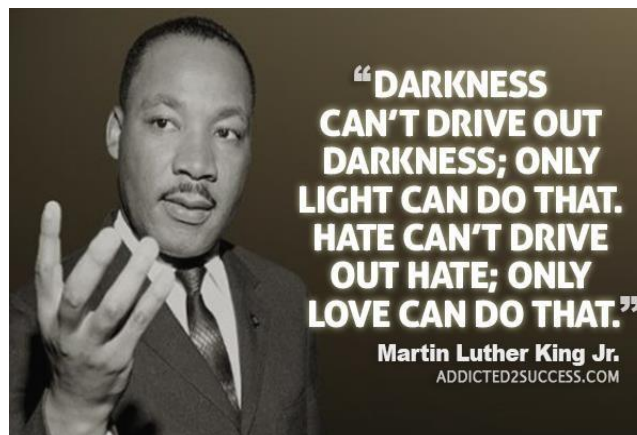
Task one: Choose the correct answer.

1. Hundreds of thousands of Palestenians **sought vindication/ asylum** in Jordan after Sabra and Shatila massacre.
2. America's **civil/ political war** between its northern and southern states lasted from 1861 to 1865.

3. Algeria has suffered **heavy civilian/ mayoral casualties** during the revolution against the French coloniser.
4. After having lost most of their possessions and for fear of being killed, many Syrians had no other alternative but **internal/ external displacement**.
5. Despite the time and effort invested in solving the Syrian crisis, the UN could not **negotiate/ detonate a complete ceasefire** between Bachar el Assad and his opponents.
6. Following the terrorist attacks of January, 13 in Paris, France **fired/deployed thousands of soldiers** to **bring/ keep stability** to its capital.
7. Fearing for their internal stability, both Algeria and Egypt joined forces to **restore/ instill peace** in Lybia.
8. The establishment of **permanent/ ongoing peace** in Palestine seems to be a far-reaching goal for most Arabic countries.
9. UN observers reported that warring factions in Syria **violated the contract/ truce** two days after its negotiation.
10. Convicted of **stockpiling/ collecting weapons** of mass distruction, Iran was placed in a state of economic siege for more than ten years.

III. Time for some more practice:

Task two: Martin Luther King is known for being a peace partisan, but also for his moving oratorical speeches that go straight to the heart. What if you had the chance to give a speech in public about world peace, how would you proceed?



Unit Nine: Global Problems

I. Let's make things clear

a. Illegal Immigration/ Unemployment/ Poverty

Note¹: Due to the severe restrictions on legal immigration, thousands of youth prefer to **migrate illegally**. This widespread social phenomenon has reached alarming proportions during the last ten years. It is no longer restricted to the poor illiterate working classes but also to the most educated and cultivated ones. Indeed, more and more people ranging from 13 to 40 opt for this risky one-way voyage, leaving everything behind them including family and friends in the hope that better job opportunities are to be found in the host country. Consequently, the emergence of such phenomenon led some profit-seeking criminals to **establish**

smuggling-networks that take advantage of people’s inability to cross the borders through legal migration channels. Adapted from Wikipedia the free encyclopedia



Note²: It should be noted that **border crossing** is not the only option for the ‘illegals’ to get to their intended destinations, other methods such as **sham marriages** and **overstaying visas** are also used. Underlying reasons for illegal immigration are mainly financial as most of the **undocumented/unauthorised immigrants** come from developing countries, where half of the population **faces grinding poverty** and is **hit by large-scale unemployment**. Adapted from Wikipedia the free encyclopedia



Note³: Despite the dire consequences that might ensue from illegal immigration including death, injury and illness, slavery, prostitution, **forcible repatriation** and even penal sanctions, thousands of youth continue to pour over developed countries. According to UN estimates “there were 232 million people living outside their country of birth in 2013, roughly 3.2% of the world’s population.” Adapted from Brilliant Maps, 2015



Note⁴: Being the world’s most powerful countries, America, France, Australia and UK have become immigrants’ favourite destination. To reduce the flow of aliens, these latter have taken drastic security measures. Dozens of attempts are thwarted by their **water police directorates** on a daily basis. Other measures involve the reliance on a quota system that establishes numerical limits on immigration. However, these procedures proved to be insufficient to stop the flood of migrants as many countries were ravaged by war and hit by the global financial crisis during the last decade, compelling their natives to seek shelter within other territories where they might start afresh. Adapted from Wikipedia the free encyclopedia



Note⁵: To alleviate the problem once and for good, UN advisors suggest imposing strict regulations on the companies that discard employment legislations by favouring illegal immigrants over native-born citizens whose costs are three times higher than those of the illegals. Another suggestion is to create financial incentives within their countries of birth to promote stability. Adapted from Wikipedia the free encyclopedia

II. Practice makes perfect :

Task one: What collocations do the pictures below remind you of?



III. Practice makes perfect :

Task two: According to the Algerian League for Human Rights, over 100 illegal immigration attempts have been thwarted in 2016. More than 338 youth have been intercepted by the Navy Coast Guards between August and September 2016. Many of them were simply repatriated, others were presumed dead, whereas few of them could set foot in the European continent. What if you were a reporter and had the chance to conduct an interview with one of the surviving youth, what questions would you ask them?



Unit Nine: Global Problems

I. Let's make things clear

a. The global Financial Crisis

Note¹: Most experts agree upon the fact that the 2007-2008 financial crisis led to a global **economic downturn**. Starting from the **world's power epicenter** namely the USA and shifting to other industrialized countries, what came to be known as the global financial crisis spared no country on the globe. It resulted in a **systemic banking collapse** that brought down several international investment banks in America such as the Lehman Brothers, which granted massive loans to **subprime borrowers** knowing that it might be too risky and inadvertently marking the beginning of the crisis. Others that also came within the whisker of bankruptcy such as Freddie Mac, Fannie Mae, Royal Bank of Scotland, Bradford & Bingley, Fortis, Hypo and Alliance & Leicester were bailed out by the government to prevent **debilitating recession**. Adapted from Wikipedia resources



Note²: However, despite American emergency governmental measures, the great recession was inevitable. Underlying reasons behind it can be traced back to the heavy flow of foreign money into the US banks. Its main source was none other than China, which witnessed a **booming economy** during the last decade thanks to its manufacturing skills and its world trading performance. Thus, due to abundant liquidity, American

financiers sought new potential borrowers in people with a tarnished credit history disregarding the **high-lending standards** used by most banks. As a result, **unfit borrowers** were granted high-interest loans to purchase unaffordable properties. In an attempt to make them more profitable, subprime loans were bundled up with those of **the prime borrowers** and sold to foreign investors who in turn were expecting to bring in huge profits. When the subprime borrowers were unable to maintain a regular repayment, damaging consequences ensued. Adapted from *Balancing the Banks: Global Lessons from the Financial Crisis*



Note³: The impact of the crisis was most keenly felt in America before it could expand to other neighboring countries. In fact, the subprime mortgage crisis sustained financial losses in trillions as many of the indebted clients defaulted their mortgages forcing lenders to reclaim the purchased properties that represented the collateral. This led to a succession of **forcible evictions and foreclosures**. Nearly 700000 American citizens became homeless overnight, not to mention the unemployment rate which peaked at 9%. Developing countries have also been seriously affected as many of those relying mainly on MEDC’s donations to sustain food and health care received less funding than they used to. Others, more known for being world leading oil exporters, recorded a tremendous **drop in income** due to a collapse of the **global trading market**. The ones that had a more diversified economy could withstand the impact of the crisis. Adapted from *The Effect of the Financial Crisis on the Third World/ Development Goals* site
 N.B. MEDC stands for more economically developed countries

II. Practice makes perfect:

Task one: In your view, who among the people below could be a prime or a subprime/unfit borrower?





Task two: Choose the correct answer

1. Up to this moment, none of the emerging powers including Russia, the European Union and India could dethrone the United States of America of its position as :
 - a. the world's manufacturing and exporting hub
 - b. the largest producing country of agricultural commodities
 - c. the world's power epicenter

2. Eighty six years ago, the great depression, which also originated in America resulted in an/a/ø:
 - a. massive economic developments
 - b. economic downturn
 - c. high-tech advances

3. Most of the largest investment banks in the world such as the Industrial and Commercial Bank of China and the JPMorgan Chase & Co are subjected to:
 - a. average-lending standards
 - b. strict regulations
 - c. high-lending standards

4. When the United States housing crisis reached its highest point, it triggered a :
 - a. mass banking investment
 - b. systemic banking collapse

5. Because of the exorbitant prices of high-quality products, third-rate Chinese merchandise inundated :
 - a. the global trading market
 - b. Walmart supercenter
 - c. America's biggest hypermarket chains

6. Gross domestic product, investment spending, household income, business profits, and inflation fall in addition to unemployment rise and bankruptcies are all indicators of a
 - a. budding economy
 - b. debilitating recession
 - c. healthy economic activity

7. Tourism demand has decreased significantly after the deadly terrorist attacks on Paris, one of the world's favorite tourist destinations. As its economy rests mainly on tourism revenues, this resulted in a serious
 - a. large budget
 - b. drop in income

8. When a borrower misses several mortgage payments, he is said to be in default. The bank notifies him and gives him a grace period during which he is supposed to clear his accumulated debts. If the undisciplined borrower persists, he will face
 - a. forcible eviction and foreclosure
 - b. an extended grace period

9. Thanks to Echeikh Benzaid efforts to achieve economic diversification, Dubai is no longer an oil-reliant country. Indeed, unlike Saudi Arabia and many other Arabic countries, only 5% of its annual revenues derive from oil. U.S. global consulting firm, Mercer rated it as the best place to live in the Middle East as a result of its
 - a. flagging economy
 - b. booming economy

III. Time for some more practice:

Task three: Choose one of the following topics.

Topic One: Oil prices have plummeted significantly. Having peaked at \$115 per barrel in June 2014; they slumped to \$35 at the end of February 2016. According to experts, such a drop goes back to a collapse in demand from oil-importing advanced countries such as China and many others. In your opinion, what effects will this have on Algeria's economy?



Topic Two: *Zone Interdite* is a French TV show based on Investigative journalism which 'is a form of journalism in which reporters deeply investigate a single topic of interest, such as serious crimes, political corruption, global problems, or corporate wrongdoing. An investigative journalist may spend months or years researching and preparing a report.' [Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia](#)

With the help of one of your classmates, choose a controversial topic and make an extensive report about where, when, how and why it made the headlines.

Unit 10: Corruption/Bribery/Embezzlement

Let's make things clear:

Note¹: For some reason or another, most developing countries are led by governments which are embedded in **massive corruption**. Their incentives are almost the same since the only thing they care about is lucrative gains and political power. According to the US News World Reports, Nigeria, along with Colombia and Pakistan are the most corrupt countries in the world. Corruption can be found among the highly ranked politicians and executives as much as with the lowly menials.



Note²: Political corruption is perceived as one of the most mounting crimes up to the present time. This latter can be defined as “any action that circumvents the established rules for conducting government business” (source: Law Office of James Alston). Many unscrupulous politicians have been **involved in corruption** cases such as the former French president Nicola Sarkozy and many other famous political figures such Berlusconi, the Italian prime minister, who in turn has been brought down by a **corruption scandal**. Some officials, not necessarily presidents, **resort to bribery** for personal gain or personal agenda. For instance, a local building contractor may go to great lengths to get a new development contract by offering a payoff to the city council member so as to be chosen among the other potential candidates.



Note³: It should be noted that corruption covers many other unethical acts other than bribery, as it is the case with **money embezzlement**, another unprincipled practice, mostly found among elected officials who have access to large sums of money, and who rather than overseeing that money for high-budget local projects such as building renovation or development contracts, they divert some of it to their bank accounts. In this case, they are said to have committed an act of graft or embezzlement (adapted from: Law Office of James Alston).



Note⁴: Blackmail and extortion is another type of corruption. It mainly consists at using power and influence to force someone to do something without his/her full consent. Due to their high positions, only prominent officials can coerce some other elected representatives into doing whatever they want by employing threats and incriminating information. Far beyond the political field, some organized crime groups make lots and lots of money out of extortion/blackmail. They run brutal **extortion rackets** against businessmen with untold wealth or even corrupt politicians by offering them protection in exchange for money or property (adapted from: Law Office of James Alston).



Note⁵: Addressing these issues so as to get them eradicated is no easy task. In fact, despite **the anti-corruption efforts**, many of those unethical acts are still persisting. Be it in business or politics, greater transparency is viewed as the only way to reduce the widespread of those malpractices as they ruin any investment chances especially in countries relying on foreign investors to build their economy.

Practice makes perfect:

Task one: Identify the political and business figures below and their related/alleged crimes.



Task two: Comment on the pictures below.



Time for some more practice:

Task three: V for Vendetta is an American movie about corporate corruption. It is set against a dramatic political backdrop as it portrays how the life of hundreds of thousands of British people has been affected by the corrupt neo-fascist regime, which subjugated the United Kingdom in an alternate future. The main protagonist, Vendetta, is one of the few rebels who vie for freedom. Singlehandedly, he could ignite a rebellion against the government and its representatives by committing terrorist attacks. In your opinion, is violence the best way for fighting corruption? Justify your answers with real-life examples.



Glossary

Approach: An approach to language teaching is the set of beliefs on which that teaching is based. The beliefs cover what language is, how it is used and learnt. From these beliefs a set of teaching practices are built. The terms *method* and *approach* are sometimes used interchangeably, with *approach* being used nowadays more commonly than *method*, perhaps because it implies a less rigid set of teaching practices than *method*, e.g. The Lexical Approach v the Direct Method.

The lexical approach: is a method of teaching foreign languages described by Michael Lewis in the early 1990s. The basic concept on which this **approach** rests is the idea that an important part of learning a language consists of being able to understand and produce **lexical** phrases as chunks.

Accuracy: a term used to describe the ability to write or speak a foreign language without making mistakes or errors. These mistakes/errors may be of grammar, lexis, spelling, or pronunciation.

Accuracy order: Learners learn and produce the L2 with varying degrees of accuracy at different stages of development, perhaps corresponding to the acquisition order.

Active Vocabulary: The words and phrases which a learner is able to use in speech and writing.

Authentic Language: Real or natural language, as used by native speakers of a language in real-life contexts; not artificial or contrived for purposes of learning grammatical forms or vocabulary.

Authentic Materials: Unscripted materials or those which have not been specially written for classroom use, though they may have been edited. Examples include newspaper texts and TV broadcasts.

Authentic Task: A task which involves learners in using language in a way that replicates its use in the 'real world' outside the language classroom. Filling in blanks, changing verbs from the simple past to the simple present and completing substitution tables are, therefore, not authentic tasks. Examples of authentic tasks would be answering a letter addressed to the learner, arguing a particular point of view and comparing various holiday brochures in order to decide where to go for a holiday: See pedagogic task.

Authentic Text: A text which is not written or spoken for language teaching purposes. A newspaper article, a rock song, a novel, a radio interview and a traditional fairy tale are examples of authentic texts. A story written to exemplify the use of reported speech, a dialogue scripted to exemplify ways of inviting and a linguistically simplified version of a novel would not be authentic texts: See simplified texts; text.

Assessment and testing: These terms are sometimes used interchangeably to refer to the collection of data about and awarding of marks to learner performance. Sometimes, however, testing is used just to refer to evaluation involving tests, whereas assessment encompasses not only tests but also other means of assessment such as observation, portfolios, case studies, interviews etc.

Assessment criteria: These are levels or qualities of performance that markers use consciously or unconsciously to grade learners' performance. To prevent assessment criteria being used randomly or unreliably and to guide markers, assessment criteria are very often written out in the form of analytic or holistic.

Assessment for learning: This kind of assessment is often contrasted with assessment *of* learning. It aims at promoting and encouraging learning rather than just evaluating or assessing it, seeing assessment as a means of identifying what learning needs to be focussed on next. It often takes the form of **formative assessment** during lessons and encourages learner autonomy as a way of achieving its purposes.

Awareness-raising: A technique used by teachers to make students aware of features of language or of language learning strategies. Becoming aware of something is part of noticing it.

Colligation: A type of collocation in which words are linked together at the level of grammar rather than meaning e.g. in a hurry, what about sending an email (what + about + gerund). Michael Hoey says ‘The basic idea of colligation is that just as a lexical item may be primed to co-occur with another lexical item, so also it may be primed to occur in or with a particular grammatical function. Alternatively, it may be primed to avoid appearance in or co-occurrence with a particular grammatical function.’ (Hoey 2005:43).

Example

"Students sometimes make mistakes of colligation, for example: I know what do you mean; I don't mind go work on Sundays."

Collocation: Two or more words that occur together more often than on a random basis are said to collocate or to be collocations. Collocations may be strong e.g. *blond hair*. In strong collocations the words can rarely, if ever, be replaced by other words. Other collocations are weaker or weak e.g. grey hair. The term is sometimes used interchangeably with *chunk*. In this sense *collocation* can cover e.g.: phrasal verbs, compound words, idioms, fixed expressions. Others use *collocation* to refer mainly to two- or three-word groups that frequently occur together. Corpora making use of concordance programmes have helped linguists find collocations in language and realise how very common they are.

Example

"To have a shower is a collocation in UK English and Australian, whereas to take a shower is a much more common collocation in the USA."

Curriculum: This term is used to refer to syllabus, learning objectives, methods of assessment, teaching methods and materials. The term is also sometimes used synonymously with *syllabus*.

Common Core: The central part of the course or syllabus; or the elements of a language vital to any teaching program.

Concordances (or concordance lines): A list of authentic utterances each containing the same focused word or phrase e.g.: “The bus driver still didn’t have any change so he made me wait. I really don’t mind which one. Any newspaper will do. I just ...know what they are saying. Any teacher will tell you that it’s”.

Concordancer: A computer program that counts and lists the occurrences of a given term, showing examples of its use from a corpus (or body) of text.

Corpus (s.): Corpuses. Corpora (pl.): A corpus is an amount of collected texts, held in a computer, which can be accessed and analyzed by means of a concordancer. Corpuses can be based on spoken text, or on written text. Well-known corpuses are the British National Corpus, and the COBUILD Bank of English corpus.

Chunk: words that are often understood or learned together as in fixed phrases; "chunking" means to organize learning into manageable amounts.

Exposure: This refers to the beneficial effect of being surrounded by spoken and/or written language. A child growing up in a monolingual environment normally has a large amount of exposure to their native language. Many language learning experts believe that learners must be exposed to adequate amounts of language used naturally and in context for acquisition to take place.

Fluency: is the ability to "get one's message across", without undue hesitation when formulating ideas caused by difficulties such as unknown words or fear of inaccuracy. So, for example, the learner who says He live here since two year is clearly inaccurate, but comprehensible and fluent. The learner who says I went to the ++ to the ++ er the shop++ I don't know the name ++ to buy a ++ erm ++ no, I don't know has clear fluency problems despite the accuracy of what s/he actually says.

Idiom: An idiom is a formulaic expression with one overall meaning. It is often not possible to work out the meaning of an idiom just by looking at its individual words, as idioms often carry a lot of cultural meaning, for example *she made a real dog's breakfast of her homework; a little birdie told me you've had some very good news*. There are several different kinds of idioms such as phrasal verbs, similes, metaphors, proverbs and euphemisms.

Needs assessment: is a process in which teachers determine the needs and abilities of the learners in their class in order to plan a program appropriately; usually takes place at the beginning of a course.

Language proficiency: The level of competence at which an individual is able to use language for both basic communicative tasks and academic purposes.

Learner autonomy: This refers to the learner's ability to take charge of and direct their own language learning without relying on the teacher. It is believed that if a learner is autonomous, they take responsibility for their own learning and that this is a good thing, as it allows them to learn independently (and hence more deeply) and to go on learning. Many teaching approaches, materials and courses contain a focus on strategies that help to make the learner more autonomous e.g. how to work with a dictionary, developing proofreading skills, deciding what to learn next. Some learners appreciate the freedom and responsibility autonomy gives them, while others may prefer the teacher to remain in charge. Learner autonomy is also referred to as self-directed learning.

Learning aim: A learning aim is something that the teacher intends her students will learn during a lesson, and that she designs her lesson around in order for that learning to take place. It may also refer to the learning goals of a course or syllabus. The term is often used interchangeably with the term *objective*.

Learning outcome: A learning outcome is a statement (often in a lesson plan or syllabus) of what a learner is expected to know or be able to do, and to what degree, at the end of a lesson or course as

a result of successful learning of the focus of the lesson or course. Learner outcomes can be used to tell learners what they will be learning. They are also used to shape lesson activities and guide the content of assessment.

Materials adaptation: Making changes to materials in order to improve them or to make them more suitable for a particular type of learner. Adaptation can include reducing, adding, omitting, modifying and supplementing. Most teachers adapt materials every time they use a textbook in order to maximise the value of the book for their particular learners.

Materials evaluation: The systematic appraisal of the value of materials in relation to their objectives and to the objectives of the learners using them. Evaluation can be pre-use and therefore focused on predictions of potential value. It can be whilst-use and therefore focused on awareness and description of what the learners are actually doing whilst the materials are being used. And it can also be post-use and therefore focused on analysis of what happened as a result of using the materials.

Needs analysis: Needs analysis is primarily a process of investigating the specific linguistic needs of learners in order to design or adapt a course specifically for them. Needs analysis can also be used to find out other information about your learners including motivation, preferences, and learner styles which can help design or tailor the course to the profile of the learner. Data collection can be done through formal and informal interviews, questionnaires and questions will often relate what kind of things the learner will ultimately do with the language which can help formulate learning objectives.

Rehearsal: refers to the place in a lesson where learners get to practise what they've learned (in a variety of ways).

Role-play: a form of speaking practice where the learners pretend to be people they are not.

Self-access materials: Materials designed for learners to use independently (i.e., on their own without access to a teacher or a classroom). They are normally used by the learner at home, in a library or in a self-study center.

Student Centred Learning : a method of teaching where the needs and interests of the students receive priority and the teacher's role is "facilitator". Traditional teaching methods and classroom management often lessen student motivation and create the opposite desired behavioral effect. Students become uninterested, unmotivated, quiet, and seldom reach their desired ESL goals. By using student centered rules, teachers can create a more motivating and rewarding classroom environment.

Task based: This refers to materials or courses which are designed around a series of authentic tasks which give learners experience of using the language in ways in which it is used in the 'real world' outside the classroom. They have no pre-determined language syllabus and the aim is for learners to learn from the tasks the language they need to participate successfully in them. Examples of such tasks would be working out the itinerary of a journey from a timetable, completing a

passport application form, ordering a product from a catalogue and giving directions to the post office.

Task based learning: Teaching/learning a language by using language to accomplish open-ended tasks. Learners are given a problem or objective to accomplish, but are left with some freedom in approaching this problem or objective.

Teacher centered: Methods, activities, and techniques where the teacher decides what is to be learned, what is to be tested, and how the class is to be run.

Short-/long-term memory: Our memory system is able to store memories for shorter or longer periods. Our short-term memory (also called working memory) is limited in capacity and only retains information for a short period of time, while our long-term memory is much larger and retains information for longer.

Syllabus: This term is used in two different ways in English language teaching. Sometimes it refers just to a list of the items/areas which students are meant to learn and the teacher to teach over a course of study e.g. particular language skills or sub-skills, particular lexis or topics, particular tasks or grammatical structures. This list is presented in the order in which the items/areas are intended to be taught and is usually incorporated into an official school or ministry document and often forms the basis of course books. The term is sometimes also used synonymously with ‘curriculum’, where it includes not just the items/areas to be learnt but also learning outcomes, general educational objectives, assessment aims and methods and teaching approaches.

الملخص

يهدف البحث الحالي إلى استكشاف كفاءة المنهج القائم على المعجم المصمم حصرياً لتدريس فئة التعبير الشفهي مع طلاب السنة الأولى في المركز الجامعي أحمد زبانة بغيليزان كهدف رئيسي. بما أنه قد ثبت تجريبياً أن المتسلسلات المعيارية عمومًا تساهم بشكل كبير في إتقان اللغة ، فنحن مقتنعون بأن التدريب غير المبرر على ارتصاف المفردات ، في المرحلة الأولية ، يمكن أن يحدث فرقاً فيما يتعلق بقدرة الطلاب على التعبير عن أنفسهم. وبالتالي ، فإننا نفترض أن تنفيذ منهج اللغة المبني على بعض المبادئ الرئيسية لمنهج المعجم لا يمكن أن يلفت انتباه الطلاب فقط إلى معادلة كل من الخطاب الشفوي والمكتوب ، ولكن يمكن أن يكون أيضاً حافزاً للتعلم المستقل في نهاية المطاف من رصفات أخرى ليست بالضرورة مدججة في البرنامج الذي يعتمد عليه هذا العمل البحثي. كان المصدر الرئيسي للبيانات التي تم جمعها معتمد على 39 طالباً في السنة الأولى قسم اللغة الإنجليزية على مستوى المركز الجامعي. وقد أجريت هذه الدراسة لمدة ستة أشهر خلال العام الدراسي 2016-2017.

تكونت عينة الدراسة من مجموعة تجريبية تم تنفيذ منهج المفردات ومجموعة مراقبة. قبل تنفيذ البرنامج ، تم عمل استبيان للطلاب وذلك لاختبار معرفتهم مع وصف المعجمية كمفهوم. وقد اتضح من خلال النتائج أن الغالبية العظمى من عينة الدراسة لا تعرف شيئاً عن عمليات التطابق. علاوة على ذلك ، تم إجراء مقابلة شبه منظمة مع سبعة من ممارسي اللغة الإنجليزية من أجل تقييم معرفتهم الأساسية المتعلقة بالمواعيد. تكشف النتائج التي تم الحصول عليها أن المعلمين الأكثر خبرة هم فقط الذين لديهم قبضة جيدة على ماهية الإقامات وكيف يمكن استخدامها بشكل مفيد في الفصل. بالإضافة إلى ذلك ، وضعنا اختباراً قبل الامتحان الأساسي وبعده بقصد: تقييم قدرة الطلاب على استخدام الكلمات وزملاءهم والتحقق مما إذا كان المنهج المنهجي يزيد أو ينتقص من كفاءة الطلاب في استخدام اللغة بطلاقة. يكشف حساب معامل الارتباط (I) أن متغيرات الدراسة ترتبط بشكل إيجابي. علاوة على ذلك ، أدت المقارنة بين النتائج المستخلصة من الاختبارات السابقة والشفوية إلى استنتاج مفاده أن الموضوعات قيد الدراسة قد زادت من معرفتهم المهنية وبدأت في تقديم رصف لعينات الكلام الخاصة بهم ، مما جعلهم يبدو أكثر كفاءة قليلاً من ذي قبل. نقترح على معلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية أن يتأكدوا من أن طلابهم ينتمون لصفوف اللغة المناسبة ليس بالضرورة من خلال تنفيذ منهج خاص ، ولكن على الأقل من خلال الأنشطة القائمة على الفصل.

La présente recherche a pour objectif d'explorer l'efficacité d'un programme basé sur le lexique, conçu exclusivement pour l'enseignement de la classe d'expression orale, avec pour cible principale les étudiants de première année du Centre universitaire « Ahmed Zabana » de Relizane. Comme il a été prouvé empiriquement que les séquences formules en général contribuent énormément à la maîtrise de la langue, nous sommes convaincus qu'une formation excessive aux collocations lexicales, à un stade initial, peut faire la différence en ce qui concerne la capacité des étudiants à s'exprimer. Par conséquent, nous émettons l'hypothèse que la mise en œuvre d'un programme de langue fondé sur certains des principes fondamentaux de l'approche lexicale ne peut pas uniquement attirer l'attention des étudiants sur la formule du discours oral et écrit, mais peut également inciter à un éventuel apprentissage autonome. D'autres collocations pas nécessairement incorporées dans le programme sur lequel repose ce travail de recherche. Les données recueillies proviennent principalement de 39 étudiants en première année -département d'anglais- Centre universitaire de Relizane. Cette étude de six mois a été menée au cours de l'année universitaire 2016-2017.

L'échantillon de l'étude était constitué d'un groupe expérimental avec lequel le programme lexical avait été mis en œuvre et d'un groupe témoin. Avant la mise en œuvre du programme, un questionnaire était administré aux étudiants afin de tester leur familiarité avec les collocations lexicales en tant que concept. Les résultats démontrent qu'une grande majorité de l'échantillon de l'étude ignorent ces collocations. De plus, une interview semi-structurée a été réalisée avec sept praticiens anglais afin d'évaluer leurs connaissances de base concernant les collocations. Les résultats obtenus révèlent que seuls les enseignants les plus expérimentés maîtrisent bien ce que sont les collocations et comment les utiliser à bon escient en classe. En outre, nous établissons un test avant et après une épreuve orale dans le but: d'évaluer la capacité des étudiants à utiliser les mots et leurs collocants et de vérifier si le programme mis en place maximise ou compromet l'efficacité avec laquelle les étudiants utilisent couramment la langue. Le calcul du coefficient de corrélation (r) révèle que les variables de l'étude sont en corrélation positive. En outre, une comparaison entre les résultats des tests pré et post-oraux nous a permis de déduire que les sujets étudiés ont accru leurs connaissances en matière de collaboration et ont commencé à introduire des collocations dans leurs échantillons de parole, ce qui les rendait un peu plus compétents qu'auparavant. Nous suggérons aux enseignants d'anglais langue étrangère de s'assurer que leurs étudiants sont exposés à suffisamment de collocations linguistiques, pas nécessairement par la mise en œuvre d'un programme spécial, mais au moins par le biais d'activités en classe.