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THE IMPACT OF INFORMATION PROCESSING

STRATEGIES AND DISCOURSE FUNCTIONS

ON MATERIALS DESIGN

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In Applied Linguistics

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated:

to the memory of my father who did not live long enough to see the task achieved;

to my children and my wife whose continuous support boosted my energy;

to my mother, brothers and sisters.

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ABSTRACT

This research investigates the impact of information processing strategies and communicative discourse functions on teaching/learning materials designed by teachers and teacher-trainees of English for Academic Purposes at Constantine University. This study can be useful to teachers and course textbook designers who want to design language teaching materials based on authentic texts. It attempts to satisfy the needs of students of English for academic purposes by providing their teachers with a materials design procedure that takes into account learning strategies and discourse organisation (functions and notions).

The teachers' pedagogical task of designing and developing language teaching materials requires their active collaboration by taking into account learning objectives, information processing stages, and discourse functions. Such a task requires the design of learning activities which encourage learners to develop learning strategies. The importance of this study lies in the teachers' commitment in the task of implementation, by developing their own language materials, which makes them aware of their role in promoting learners' strategies. This task, then, provides teachers with autonomy of analysis, selection, design and development of their materials. An experimental study is carried out, within the theoretical framework, with the collaborative action of three groups of participants. On one hand, almost all Departments of Constantine University provide an English course which is taught by teachers who graduated from The Department of English of the same university. They received a general course in teaching English as a foreign language without any focus or particular training in materials design. They represent the control group of the experiment. On the other hand, a group of teacher trainees at the Ecole Normale Supérieure in Constantine, and a group

of postgraduate students at the Department of English, University of Constantine, attended our experiment.

Our investigation about the learning and teaching situation was based on questionnaires addressed to a random sample of first-year undergraduate students at the departments of social sciences, a random sample of their teachers, and a random sample of postgraduate students and decision-makers of these Departments. The two experimental groups attended an experiment where focus was put on adopting a procedure in the design of authentic materials. An evaluation of the experiment was conducted through a project work. Both experimental groups and control group participants had to design language teaching materials based on authentic texts, like newspaper articles, for reading comprehension purposes, which were submitted at the end of the study.

The results show that collaborative action through reflective teaching, the use of information processing strategies together with discourse functions, and other components, improve the teachers' autonomy in selecting, designing and developing their own language teaching materials.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EAP: English for Academic Purposes

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

CG: Control Group

EG1: Experimental Group One

EG2: Experimental Group Two

ENS: Ecole Normale Supérieure

ESL: English as a Second Language

EST: English for Science and Technology

LMD: Licence, Master, Doctorat

LT/L: Language Teaching/Learning

LTM: Long Term Memory

PPP: Presentation, Practice, Production

SL: Second Language

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

STM: Short Term Memory

TEFL: Teaching English as a Foreign Language

WM: Working Memory

: Participant(s)

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INTRODUCTION

1. <u>**Statement of the problem and research proposals**</u>:

This research studies the problem of materials design and development by teachers of English for Academic purposes at the University of Constantine. It assumes first that teachers in this field lack training and comprehensive practice of materials production to satisfy the needs of their students. The reasons may be due to insufficient knowledge and lack of methodological, systematic practice in materials development.

This research attempts to set up criteria of analysis, selection and development of E.A.P materials, particularly for students of English at the humanities and social sciences; economics, psychology, sociology, history, and communication departments. Moreover, many studies have been carried out in this field, with reference to particular academic subjects, -including my Magistère dissertation- and came out with suggestions for elements of content and implementation of the syllabus. Results of such studies are sometimes divergent as every academic field has been examined in isolation with regard to the learners' specific needs and bias to subject specific data, thus making every E.A.P situation a particular case study.

In this research, we presume that students of the humanities and social sciences have a common need of learning English to get more knowledge - information - about their academic subjects. We consider, thus, their learning of English closely related to information processing, retrieval and transfer, not simply a matter of learning a foreign language for its own sake. Consequently, the present research will focus on the criteria of analysis, selection, and design of a relevant implementation, taking into account the nature and type of

information (producer-channel-audience), the processing of information (background knowledge - input - meaning negotiation -decoding - transfer) , and the nature of language learning strategies.

Furthermore, academic English discourse shows particular characteristics of type and organisation which turn out to be important factors that influence the language teaching pedagogy in terms of materials' selection and task design for learners. This entails that such assumptions have to be theoretically - academically- based and practically tested. Theoretically, we will have to deal with the cognitive model of schemata, closely related to information processing, which enhances the idea that learning is possible through understanding of meaning where a learner uses his background knowledge (schematic frames; long and short-term memory) to negotiate the meaning of an input and then, if he understands, will process the information (retrieval: memory and / or transfer: use it to do something else or to communicate).

The models of discourse analysis in the academic fields reveal some types and organisations most specific to the fields mentioned above. These models converge to bring agreement among scholars about some types of academic discourse, and sometimes diverge to bring some disagreement about "genre" of academic discourse. When they converge, the product of discourse analysis becomes a stereotype that can be applied to the analysis of any academic text; when they diverge, the product becomes an analysis of academic "genre" which establishes a typical identity for each academic text being analysed.

Stereotypic models imply that language teaching materials should undergo a stereotypic pedagogical treatment while "genre" models imply that the materials should be treated differently; each language teaching material should get its specific teaching/learning tasks for learners. The nature of language learning strategies implies that learning takes place through chunks - not through items - where the learner is exposed to situations and contexts of language use; it is a top-down strategy to understand E.A.P, in opposition to a bottom-up strategy to teach the rules of the language. Such a strategy will allow room for the learner to deal with the intention of the message producer, the content (idea; information), and, at last, language forms/rules which convey the intention and the content. EAP teachers need to be trained to take into account the above mentioned assumptions if they are willing to help their students achieve some learning objectives.

2. **Research hypotheses:**

The research assumes that teachers who are to be involved in materials design and development must take into account a number of principles and apply them when selecting and producing their own materials. Materials selection and production has to be a systematic process in teacher-training and teacher development of awareness and autonomy in decision making. The hypotheses of the research can be set in the following order:

Hypothesis One: Teachers and teacher-trainees take into account and apply information structure and processing strategies in order to select and design learning materials which favour comprehension of information and academic discourse;

Hypothesis Two: Teachers and teacher-trainees take into account discourse organisation and text features of language functions and notions in order to select and develop learning materials which favour language practice;

<u>Hypothesis Three</u>: Applying the principles of materials selection and development – mentioned in the two hypotheses above, systematically lead teachers to set production tasks which prepare learners to deal with academic discourse/genres most relevant to their university subjects.

Assembling and using the three hypotheses as experimental input and systematic practice by teachers and teacher-trainees in a materials design and development project will help us assess the effect of these hypotheses on the materials produced. This is to be described below in research methodology and tools.

3. <u>Research methodology and tools</u>:

This research is carried out through data gathering and experimental practice of knowledge input and using that knowledge in developing the ability of designing materials for language learning in EAP. Data collection is done through questionnaires and investigation of the whole situation where English is taught for academic purposes at the departments of the humanities and social sciences, University of Constantine (cited above). It includes questionnaires addressed to undergraduate students (100 students from each one of the five departments of humanities and social sciences), post graduates students and teachers of the academic subjects (50 informants from each department), and teachers of EAP (2 teachers from each department). It also takes into account a pre-test for teachers of EAP as a control group and two experimental groups, in developing authentic texts into language teaching materials.

The undergraduate students' questionnaire helps us determine the learners' background knowledge, purposes of learning English, and most probable styles and strategies of learning and using English at university. The post graduates' and teachers' questionnaire helps us consider the target objectives of using English in academic research fields, and also take into account these informants' points of view about their previous learning experience. The English teachers' questionnaire and pre-test help us to determine their background knowledge about teaching and materials development abilities and experience.

The experiment is based primarily on the application of the hypotheses cited above (learning and information processing strategies and discourse functions and notions). Here, the meaning attributed to 'experimental' research is not in the strictly narrowed sense of manipulating independent and dependent variables and a rigorous experimental control of extraneous variables, but rather in the broader sense of trying or experimenting materials design for learning and teaching through collaborative action research (typical of classroom research) with various strategies to check whether it will work or not. The informants of both experimental groups (ENS students and postgraduate students) are exposed to aspects of learning stages and levels, and types of discourse genres most frequently found in EAP. They are then trained to analyse and evaluate already designed materials from school textbooks according to some criteria. They are also trained to select authentic texts; analyse and develop them as language teaching/learning materials according to some criteria. These criteria of analysis, evaluation, and development are discussed in the chapters devoted to Syllabus Design, Material Design and Development, and the Experiment). Through the

experiment, observation, peer learning and workshops are used as implementation tools in order to enhance the ability of materials development.

All together, the research tools and steps are placed within a framework of experimental, collaborative action research method which tracks and implements informants' abilities. The purpose of this methodology is to advocate quantitative and qualitative findings in order to claim that improvement of teachers' materials development abilities can be achieved through the three hypotheses, cited above, and experiential practice enhanced by observation, peer-learning (collaboration), and workshops. It is thus a collaborative action research –done by teachers and teacher-trainees, which experiments some theoretical and practical aspects of learning strategies and discourse functions and notions in the design and development of language learning materials. Thus, in addition to numerical data of the quantitative research method, the qualitative research provides non-numerical data which use such techniques as: content analysis, discourse analysis, ethno-methodology, focus groups, reports, observation grids and diaries.

A post test is administered to the control group and to the two experimental groups. It consisted of the development of authentic texts into language teaching/learning materials. It represents a project work and a result of the experiment. It serves as a tool of evaluating the informants' abilities (from both experimental groups) by comparing them to the abilities of teachers' from the control group. The criteria of evaluation which are derived from the qualitative characteristics of materials, and comparison of results, will help us determine, qualitatively, the effects predicted by the hypotheses in terms of achievements in materials development to teach EAP

4. <u>Presentation of the thesis</u>

The thesis is presented in seven chapters which consecutively deal with related and consequent topics. As the title suggests, information processing and discourse analysis act as the theoretical framework which influence practical implications in syllabus design and implementation of the syllabus with materials. Thus, the first three chapters –information processing strategies, discourse and genre analysis, and syllabus and materials design-delimit the theoretical framework and consequently lead to practical implications and considerations of learning activities and tasks which are demonstrated in materials design. The last four chapters do not deal with any theoretical discussions; they cover mainly the analysis of the situation before the experiment, design and implementation of the experiment itself, and provide quantitative and qualitative evaluation which is followed by pedagogical implications.

Chapter one -Information processing strategies- describes the learning process by traditional and modern definition according to major theories and shows how information processing strategies remain the core cognitive process of meaning negotiation. Learning, then, implies using memory in a schematic way in order to think and solve problems. It explains the learning –memory relationship in terms of styles and strategies adopted by learners. Though not all the styles and strategies are directly, but indirectly- related to memory, their impact on the design of learning objectives and learning tasks has been the major concern of education and pedagogy during the last sixty years.

Chapter two -Discourse and genre analysis- presents the evolution in the field of applied linguistics with close relationship to text analysis: register, notional functional and

discourse analysis. It sheds light on cohesion and coherence in discourse structure and explains how discourse processing according to interactive, schematic models, leads directly to the specific study of genre types. Demonstrating discourse analysis and genre studies in English for academic purposes leads us to distinguish wide contexts from limited and comparative/contrastive contexts. Their findings are, hence, listed and explained as: information structure and writer's moves, argumentation, agency and reporting, functions and textual features.

Chapter three -Syllabus and materials design- shows how some trends in languages studies provided a change in syllabus inventories which improved from structural to notional/functional and communicative sets, leading to syllabus types in terms of content selection and sequencing. The evolution in learning theories biased the syllabus types from a product-oriented to process oriented pedagogy which demonstrated the adoption of task-based and, the so-called, competency based pedagogy. Materials design and development represent the link between the ideas and findings of the previous two chapters to the real world of syllabus implementation. Consequently, this chapter explains and exemplifies the dichotomy between materials and media with a careful, atomistic and discourse biased classification of authentic materials within authentic pedagogy. It also provides a progressive model of materials design and development based on the contributors' abilities of adopting, adapting, and analysis and evaluation of, language teaching/learning materials.

In Chapter four, an analysis of the whole situation of teaching/learning English for academic purposes is carried out relying on three categories of population involved: the learners, the postgraduate students and teachers of the subjects at five departments of

humanities and social sciences, and the EAP teachers. The analysis covers both undergraduate and postgraduate learners' needs, strategies, and purposes as well as the teachers' pedagogical procedures and materials choice and development.

The experiment –Chapter five, requires an implementation in materials design and development through collaborative action of the participants and tracking their developing experience. In this chapter we present the content and the procedure of the experiment by reference to the ideas put forward throughout the thesis and by exemplification of participants' tasks and contributions.

Evaluation of the experimental research is done through a pretest and a posttest which are thoroughly described in Chapter six. We provide content and criteria of evaluation of both tests according to what has been put forward in the previous chapters. The results and achievements of the control group and the two experimental groups are analysed and discussed quantitatively and qualitatively, according to the evaluation criteria. Qualitative results of the experiment lead to the pedagogical implications which are presented in chapter seven. Finally a general summary and conclusion on the general findings and future prospects are given at the end of the thesis. The appendixes include the questionnaires used in the situation analysis, reference materials for the experiment, and the three (control and experimental) groups' posttest projects.

CHAPTER ONE

INFORMATION PROCESSING STRATEGIES

Introduction

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Information processing Strategies

<u>**Introduction**</u>:

   Learning is a natural, acquired or developed, activity which every human being uses in a way or another. Its definition requires clear, concise terms, and more appropriately an 'operational definition', and its steps may vary from one learning theory to another because each theory attempts to describe how and why human beings process information according to its own theoretical principles. Hence, whatever the theory, a number of learning styles and strategies have been identified and described. Learning, then, is a process of the mind which requires the use and reuse of already learned/developed styles and strategies to learn a language or anything else which represent knowledge in its broad sense. Even if the process of learning has been described in modern times in almost the same terms by many psychologists, human beings adopt and/or adapt ways of learning that may be specific to a particular person, or a group of persons who have chosen to follow a number of ways or steps. This is what most researchers in the field would call styles and strategies. A definition of these terms is necessary, at first, to distinguish one from the other, and secondly to correlate them with purposes and objectives of learning.

1. <u>Definition of learning</u>:

   Common sense leads people to consider that learning is an accumulation of a certain amount of knowledge or a certain number of abilities of performing different tasks. Others rather consider that learning is a life style a person follows from the cradle to the tomb. Could we be satisfied with such general and wise assumptions which human mind has reached? For the learned and academic world, this seems unsatisfactory, and somehow

proper to lay man's knowledge about learning. We have to take into account the views, the theories and the results of various studies devoted to this field.

1.1 <u>Traditional definitions</u>:

Most traditional definitions of learning are based on religious beliefs and old philosophical assumptions. Islamic trends, for example, consider learning as a duty a Muslim has to do in order to know his own religion whatever the difficulties he may face. The first Koranic verse was an order and an advice to the prophet to 'read' and discover what the human being does not know. The prophet's advice to Muslims was to seek knowledge, from the cradle to the tomb, even if they had to travel to China. Learning some knowledge was, and still is, enlightenment for the individual while ignorance was, and still is, synonym of darkness. Learning was consequently linked to accumulated knowledge of and about religious matters, drawing a straight line between those who know and those who do not have that knowledge.

Philosophers considered learning as a mental process which required methodological thinking, rejecting memorisation and knowledge accumulation, favouring doubt and questioning in order to learn about things. Descartes put this idea quite clearly in his <u>Discours de la méthode</u>:

'J'ai été nourri aux lettres dés mon enfance, et parce qu'on me persuadait que, par leur moyen, on pouvait acquérir une connaissance claire et assurée de tout ce qui est utile à la vie, j'avais un extrême désir de les apprendre. Mais, sitôt que j'eus achevé tout ce cours d'études (…), je changeai entièrement d'opinion. Car je me trouvais embarrassé de tant de doutes et d'erreurs, qu'il me semblait n'avoir fait autre profit, en tâchant de m'instruire, sinon que j'avais découvert de plus en plus mon ignorance.' (Descartes. 1966: 35)

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Descartes (ibid) explains that this notion of doubt would lead him *slowly* to discover things by his own way of thinking, and even if he would not learn a lot of things he would not take the risk of falling into fallacies.

This challenge in the way learning was considered, from mere rote learning to mentally processed operations of doubt, cause and effect, etc… lead to the independence of various fields of science from theological prescriptions and views. In old times the learned person ('El Aalam' in Arabic) had to comprehensively acquire and learn every single aspect of religion, philosophy, mythology, literature, chemistry, astrology, etc…, otherwise he would not be proclaimed so. Nowadays, a learned person is considered to be an effective learner if he proves academic achievements and an acceptable mode of behaviour among his own community. The term "learning" itself is nowadays so important to be left to general religious or philosophical speculations. "Learning" or "learning a given subject-language" became the core of behaviour and mental studies in the fields of psychology and psycholinguistics.

1.2 <u>Modern definitions of learning</u>:

The modern academic world describes learning as an attitude the person adopts towards his environment, according to environmental stimuli and a wide scope of social needs. Learning can be seen as an active process of transforming knowledge, insights and skills into a learning behaviour. It may be incidental, by chance or intentional. It is considered as an innate, long lasting, ability in human beings.

Chaplin's (1975:284-285) dictionary of psychology defines learning as an 'acquisition of any relatively permanent change in behaviour as a result of practice or experience; a process of acquiring responses as a result of special practice." This short definition is heavily loaded in terms of its meaning. It takes into account 'acquisition' which is innate in human beings, 'relatively permanent change' and 'process' which mean that learning occurs through a number of stages of 'practice and experience', and that the result of learning is seen as a behaviour made of a number of responses. This is more of a behaviourist definition which does not take into account details of the 'practical experience'

Almost similarly, Entwistle et.al (1979: 367) consider that "learning can be viewed in terms of three related elements: intention, process, and outcome". This is straight away a simple definition which excludes learning incidentally and puts focus on intentional learning. This means that human beings are willing to learn whenever they intend or decide to do so. This willingness to learn may be affected by various factors and makes learning a matter of consciousness and awareness. Most important feature of this definition is the term "process" which means that learning takes place in a systematically organised long series of events or instances. These instances can even be seen as stages or steps of the process. The last term "outcome" makes learning a beneficial result of the person's investment. A person, in other terms, would learn if there is some moral, emotional, social, or material profit.

Entwistle's (ibid) neglect of incidental learning may be due to the fact that learning is so complex a process that some of its instances cannot be observed, described and/or evaluated. Child (1977: 81) considers this feature of learning in the following terms:

"Whilst there is no complete agreement among psychologists about the details of learning processes, they do accept the basic premise that learning occurs whenever one adopts new,

or modifies existing, behaviour patterns in a way which has some influence on future performance or attitudes. Unless there were in fact some influences, we would not be able to detect that learning had taken place (…). But the definition includes learning which occurs without deliberate or conscious awareness, bad as well as good behaviour and covert attitudes as well as overt performance."

Thus, the absence of deliberate or conscious awareness does deprive the person from learning. Incidental learning can even be seen as a feature of natural learning about immediate environment without particular focus of attention on a particular thing to be learned. Both (Entwistle's and Child's) definitions, above, do not contradict Chaplin's one but each puts focus on a particular aspect of learning. All three definitions identify at least common factors of learning that we can express as:

- Intentional or programmed learning as a matter of programmed practice

- Incidental learning as a matter of life experience

- Both factors above are a result of willingness and motivation

- Environmental/external stimuli and insights bring some changes

- Changes are continuous and make a whole process

- Results and outcomes are observed in the present and future patterns of behaviour

All these characteristic features of learning are included in almost all other definitions elaborated by other scholars. Fontana (1995: 141-171) and Anderson (1995: passim) assume the same ideas about the definition of learning and add a number of detailed information relative to external/environmental factors and cognitive processes which affect the learning process.

Fontana (1995: 141-142) defines learning by summarizing what almost all psychologists say: '(…) most psychologists would agree that learning is a relatively persistent change in an individual's potential behaviour due to experience.' Fontana explains that the three major components of this definition are: 'change', 'experience' and 'potential behaviour'. He also stresses the fact that the studies of these three terms lead to divergent view points between behaviourists and cognitive theories.

Anderson (1995: passim) considers learning as an essential element in cognitive psychology. He focuses the study on the importance of visual and speech perception, attention, and knowledge representation in memory through encoding, storage, retention, and retrieval of information. He adds that all these steps of learning lead to problem solving, reasoning and decision making. In addition to a number of learning types which Anderson surveys (behavioural, intentional, incidental, and power law), his main distinction is made between strategic and tactical learning (Anderson.ibid: 283-289): 'strategic learning is learning how to organise one's problem solving for a specific class of problems', and 'tactical learning is learning sequences of actions that help solve a problem.'

As Entwistle (1979) formulated his statement on the basis of research findings which investigated learning attitudes, his scope of study was on ways or attitudes learners adopt while learning. He even called these ways and attitudes "distinctive approaches". Child (1977), Fontana (1995) and Anderson (1995) on the other hand, formulated their statements on the basis that "learning" has been an essential element in a number of theories in the field of psychology. While their terms reflect theoretical assumptions of psychology, Entwistle's terms reflect practical, programmed processes that learners use/choose while learning. Hence, we have to consider, first, the theoretical frameworks of learning that emerged from

psychology and, then, take into account the various practical outcomes in terms of learners' styles and strategies while learning.

2. <u>Theories of learning</u>:

A theory is generally a set of assumptions, beliefs, and hypotheses that have been observed, tested and evaluated in the academic world. It attempts to explain and/or describe a given natural, physical, social, or human phenomenon in a scientific way, using simple and precise terms.

In the field of psychology, observation and description of human behaviour has been widely explained by a number of theories with more or less focus on learning. We shall attempt to shed some light on a certain number of theories which considered learning as a major element in human personality development and man's intellectual and academic achievements. This is far from being a thorough, encyclopaedic, account of all learning theories and/or experiments but rather a summary of the most influential ones.

2.1 <u>Behaviourist theory</u>:

Child (1977: 81-91) sums up this theory in the works of famous behaviourist psychologists like Watson, Thorndike, Pavlov, Hull, and Skinner. Behaviourist theory focused on the study of animal and human behaviour to determine the connection between stimulus and response as a learning process. That is why the theory is commonly called connectionist. Child (1977) considers, within this scope, that Watson determined the law of 'trial and error' which is followed by children in solving a number of problems by applying a process of alternative paths. Child (Ibid), then, stresses the work of Thorndike which came out with 'reinforcement' as a 'law of effect' and the 'law of exercise' which is basically an

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assumption of Watson's work. Pavlov's findings on conditional and unconditional stimuli do not seem to have great impact on classroom teaching, as Child (ibid) points out, but rather contributed in the study of children's behaviour and reaction to school environment (fear and pleasure of learning, reciprocal inhibition, spontaneous recovery, and stimulus generalisation). Child similarly evaluates the shortcoming of Hull's finding in the stimulus response connection and its contribution to classroom teaching. For him, the main contribution of Hull was the 'reactive inhibition' where there is a tendency not to make a response which has just been made. According to Child (ibid) the main contribution to programmed learning was made by Skinner with 'operant conditioning' and the conclusions he drew about learning. These conclusions specify that: -short steps of learning which grow out of previously learned behaviour; - regular reward and control by reinforcement; - quick reward after correct response which is known as feedback; -and opportunity to discover stimulus discriminations for the most likely paths to success.

Anderson (1995:8-10) attributes directly behaviourist findings to American psychologists and Gestalt psychology to Europeans. The most important figure of behaviourist theory, according to Anderson (ibid), was Edward Thorndike and his basic principle of the effect of reward and punishment on the rate of learning. He argues that the tradition of American studies was focusing on external -observable- behaviour, biasing research towards an "action-oriented" psychology which could satisfy educational demands at that time, neglecting "the workings of the mind that underlay that behaviour".

2.2 <u>Gestalt theory</u>:

Child (1977: 72-73) considers that the founders of the school known as *Gestalt psychology* were Wertheimer, Kôhler and Koffka. He explains that their work was an

attempt to avoid breaking down behaviour into constituent parts which obscured the full meaning of that behaviour. Gestalt psychology, within these terms, can be regarded as a comprehensive study reacting to behaviourist theory. Within this scope, Gestalt psychology, according to Child (1977: 73), concentrated on a study of perception for a better understanding of learning. This study of perception focused on *insights* or *intuition*. The term "gestalt" means "pattern" or "form" in German. The main claim of this theory of insights, according to Child (1977: 92) who relied on Kohler's experiments, was that individuals could, out of a sudden insight, find a solution to a problem which they were not able to solve earlier. After a number of trials the individual could repeat the same solution in a similar event and transfer that ability to new situations. A study of perception from this point of view could then be considered as a study of "a whole" set of "patterns" intuitively used by the individual.

Gestalt psychology is also known as a theory of insights or introspections. Its origin can be traced back to the work of the German psychologist Wilhelm Wundt and his psychology laboratory. Anderson (1995:7-8) considers him as the father of modern psychology and that the European, as opposed to American, theory of psychology started with Wundt's introspective views and experiments. Anderson explains that the introspective theory consisted of mind self-observation or self-inspection. The content of introspective reports could, at that time, make an account of psychological theory. In this method, informants had, for example, 'to generate associates to a given word, and then introspect on the contents of their consciousness during the period between reading the word and making associations' (Anderson.1995: 7)

Both Child (1977) and Anderson (1995) consider that Gestalt psychology was in fact the starting point of investigation into a theory of cognition though this was neither the statement nor the claims of that German school. Both agree on the principle that a study of learning cannot be carried out without great consideration be given to perception and processes of the mind; Gestalt psychology was the initial step to understand processes of the mind.

2.3 <u>Cognition theory</u>:

Kintsch et.al (1984: 16) give a broad definition of cognitive science in general by considering it as 'a collection of several pair-wise intersections among anthropology, computer science, linguistics, neuroscience, philosophy and psychology.' From first glance, this definition includes terms that are classified in alphabetic order because one wonders how computer science may be mentioned before linguistics, philosophy and psychology.   A second consideration of this definition tells us that cognitive science is a multidisciplinary subject which requires a comprehensive study of human mind evolution starting from anthropological findings of ancient societies (called primitive, even if findings proved their elaborate-intelligent way of life), taking into account philosophy and linguistics as major human contributions into the understanding and the expression of man's own ideas, focusing behaviour studies on the individual's behaviour and development, and at last investigating neurological structure of the brain, comparing the human thinking processes to create artificial intelligence in the field of computer science.

On the other hand, Anderson (1995: 10-12) considers that there is somehow a slight difference between cognitive science and cognitive psychology. Of course, Anderson

adheres to the aspects of the definition of cognitive science as stated in Kintsch (1984.ibid) mentioned above. But he says that "Cognitive psychology broke away from behaviourism in response to developments in information theory, artificial intelligence, and linguistics." He further adds that cognitive psychology emerged after World War II as a response to the failure of behaviourist theory to deal with behavioural problems which could not be explained or solved by behaviourist psychology pattern of stimulus- response relationships. Anderson even states that cognitive psychology had its basic foundations academically established by two major events: the first one was the publication of a very important book - *Cognitive Psychology*- by Ulric Neisser in 1967, and the second one was the beginning of the *Journal of Cognitive Psychology* in 1970. Anderson, thus, considers the emergence of cognitive psychology as prior to the emergence of cognitive science which he dates back to the appearance of the *Journal of Cognitive Science* in 1976. According to Anderson (1995. ibid) and many other scholars (Gardner, 1987; Stillings et al, 1995), Cognitive psychology started with the study of perception and attention as major elements of information theory, then moved to more elaborated research on learning, remembering, thinking, problem solving, decision making, and language.

3. Motivation to learn:

Almost all definitions and explanation of the learning process and theories –mentioned above, stress the fact that willingness and motivation to learn are basic factors which contribute to the achievement of incidental or programmed learning purpose. In general terms and considerations of the learning process, Both Child (1977) and Entwistle (1979) determine that 'intentional' and 'incidental' learning achievements and experience are the

results of 'willingness and motivation' (see 1.2 above). However, in some theories of learning, willingness and motivation have been given relative roles and efficiency.

Schools of thought and theories of learning and psychology have been considering the importance, role, and efficiency of willingness and motivation according to their own principles and foundations (see section 2 above). For example, while the behaviourist learning theory quite clearly stresses the positive effects of 'reward' and 'punishment' on the rate of learning, the Gestalt theory does not identify observable willingness and motivation factors because it is based mainly on introspections and insights. The wide multidisciplinary concerns of cognitive theory (see 2.3 above) give 'willingness and motivation' predominant roles in the stages of perception and attention which, in turn, may have further impact on the other stages of the learning process.

In the field of education in general, willingness and motivation are characterised by a number of features which Child (1977: 39-55) identifies as: curiosity, exploration and manipulation, need to achieve, level of aspiration, self-esteem, incentives and knowledge of results, as well as cooperation and competition, and performance and drive. All these factors may be considered as 'intrinsic' (proper to the learner) and/or extrinsic (proper to the educational environment) qualities which encourage learners to continue learning if good use is made of them in the design and implementation of learning activities.

Within the scope of teaching/learning a foreign or a second language, O'Malley and Chamot (1990: 160-161) consider that 'motivation, or the will to learn' can be an influential factor which determines students' success or failure in trying new strategies. They argue that

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a successful learner is one who has gained confidence in learning a foreign language and that s/he 'is likely to approach new learning tasks with a higher degree of motivation' than one who has accumulated failure and thus develops a negative attitude towards his/her ability to learn. Consequently, O'Malley and Chamot (ibid) advise that the initial strategy training is to make the learners experience success and thus increase their motivation. Within the same scope, Oxford (1990: 141-145) considers motivation as a set of tactful 'affective strategies' –which do not differ from Child's features (1977) above, and includes them among her diagram of 'Indirect strategies' (see section 8, figure 2 below). The consecutive importance of motivation and 'affective strategies, according to Oxford (ibid: 204-206), is the determination of learners' 'specific needs' and 'time availability'. She considers that 'strategy training, for teachers, starts first by gathering enough knowledge about their learners' needs and the required time and energy to satisfy those needs. Woolfolk (2004: 384-385) stresses the fact that any successful use of motivation depends on the ability of the teacher to distinguish 'intrinsic value' from 'instrumental value' of the learners needs. Like Corder's (1973: 203) distinction between 'integrative' and 'instrumental' motivation, Woolfolk's distinction leads to bias of learning activities and outcomes towards the inclusion of cultural, emotional aspects to provide 'intrinsic' (integrative) values, and the inclusion of short and long term goals to satisfy 'instrumental' values and purposes.

4. Information Processing:

The early cognitive trends which studied information processing were based on the speculation that the human mental operations could be compared to the functioning of a computer in dealing with a number of digits. Two major works of the 1970's – Massaro (1975) and Mayer (1977) attempted to bring the issue into the learning process with more or

less success in moving away from the stimulus response model towards and elaborate thinking/problem solving challenge. Massaro (1975: 39-40) states that 'the stages of mental processing include: detection recognition and reaction (…) which lead us to consider information processing as the processes we have identified between stimulus and response (...) and can be clarified in terms of our information-processing analysis. Stimulus is the information available to the detection process which transduces the physical signal into a neurological code.'

Massaro (1975:42) Figure 1:

Stimulus ⟶ detection ⟶ recognition ⟶ response selection ⟶ response

Massaro (1975: 64) Figure 1 bis: on memory search

Test digit: detection ⟶ recognition ⟶ memory search ⟶ response selection ⟶ response and comparison

Massaro (1975: 248-257) Discusses the relationship between the storage structure in immediate memory and the psychological process at each stage of processing information through visual recognition. Massaro considers that the visual stimulus leads first to perceptual visual storage and then to recognition and storage in immediate memory. These three - perception, recognition and immediate memory- stages are followed by the rehearsal stage which in turn will lead to the recall stage. Hence recall (remembering) cannot take place unless there is enough rehearsal of the items stored in immediate memory. Massaro (ibid) adds that:

'(…) the central assumption of our information-processing model is that a number of processing stages occur between stimulus and response. These processing stages are assumed to be successive and each stage operates on the information available to it. The

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operation of a particular stage takes time and transforms the information, making it available to the next stage of processing. Two theoretical constructs are important to this approach. First, the structural construct describes or defines the nature of the information at a particular stage of processing. Second, the functional construct describes the operations of a stage of information processing.' (Massaro, 1975: 599-600)

To explain this assumption of an information processing model, Massaro (1975: 601) draws a flow diagram of the temporal course of auditory and visual information processing. He distinguishes first the stimuli as sound and sight wave patterns which lead to an auditory and visual receptor system. At this step he considers the stage of feature detection or sensation which is followed by perceptual auditory and visual storage. This storage helps in establishing primary recognition. Massaro calls this a perception stage which develops the interpretation of signs. It is followed by synthesized auditory and visual memory which represents a secondary recognition and leads to a stage of conception – concept formation. Concepts are then stored in a generated abstract memory. They are recorded and rehearsed through a last stage that Massaro calls knowledge of rules. According to this model, recording and rehearsal act as a feedback to generate more concepts in abstract memory and reinforce synthesized items in auditory and visual memory.

Mayer (1977:133) makes a close link between information processing, thinking and cognition. He considers that the information approach to thinking assumes that a human being is (…) a processor of information whose cognitive processes, including thinking, can be presented as either:

-a sequence of mental processes or operations performed on information in the subject's memory; or

-a sequence of internal states or changes performed on information that progress towards a goal

We can add, then, that this represents a certain number of moves the subject undertakes to solve a problem.

More recent works give information processing the place it deserves in educational psychology: (Anderson. 1995:12-18), (Matlin.2003:10-13), (Slavin.2003:173-187), (Woolfolk.2004:239-271), (Baron and Kalsher.2005:164-172), and (Ormord.2006:42-49). All these scholars agree on the fact that the initial research was inspired by computer science and most of them lead the discussion into further developments of information processing theory and its impact in the field of learning and teaching but those who limited the scope to cognition (Matlin.2003) rather diminish its role.

According to Anderson (1995), the information processing approach became predominant in cognitive psychology, and attempted to analyse cognition into a set of steps in which an abstract entity, called information, is processed. The paradigm showed how an individual saw a probe stimulus which had to be encoded and then compared to each digit in the memory set. Then, the individual had to decide on a response and generate it. Time required for stimulus perception, decision making, and generating a response was of high importance in this paradigm which accounted much more for mathematical operations and relations of digits. Anderson (ibid) adds that Sternberg paradigm of digits, though, essential, needed much more contribution from the environment, physiology and the complex neural representation of information in the brain. (See §§ above, definition of learning).

On the other hand, Matlin (2003:10) considers that one component of the information processing approach is to interpret the mental process as "information progressing though the system in a series of stages, one step at a time". Matlin claims that these stages are: First, reception of stimuli and comparison with information stored in memory; Second, seeking additional information stored in memory; Third, making a decision; and finally, executing the response. Matlin considers that the most prominent example of this approach was the model developed by Atkinson and Schiffrin in 1968 which had great influence on cognitive psychology. The model proposed that memory is a sequence of discrete steps in which information is transferred from one storage area to another. The first step of the model is the sensory memory which gets the external stimuli for a few seconds. The second step is the short term memory (which is now called working memory, as we shall see in section 4) that gets, from sensory memory, some small amounts of information and uses it during some seconds (about 30, according to Matlin). The third step is where material and information that have been rehearsed pass from short term memory to long term memory for relatively permanent storage.

In this model, most of the received information in sensory memory is lost unless there is a certain amount of focus of attention and perception. Short term memory requires rehearsal so that information is understood and stored in long term memory. In a criticism of this model, Matlin (2003:12-13) admits it had a great impact on further developments in cognitive psychology but considers that this impact diminished in recent years because, and for matters related to convenience, psychologists focused their investigations on two broad aspects of learning: -kinds of memory and their interrelationships, and; - a theoretical framework that accounts for an information processing model.

This second aspect is closely related to our research and investigation. Perception, rehearsal and retrieval, being major characteristics of the information processing model, are the most important stages of a programmed learning experience. The type and amount of information the learners are exposed to, the type and quality of activities suggested for rehearsal and retrieval account that much for learners' proficiency development and achievement of learning objectives. While the information processing approach lost its impact in cognitive psychology but paved the way to memory and cognitive style research fields, it gained grounds in educational psychology as a framework for the design, implementation, and evaluation of the learning process. Moreover, the cognitive studies of memory rather confirmed the idea that organised, intentional and tactical-strategic learning improves memory abilities, as we shall see in the next parts of this work.

It is, thus, logical that some trends of cognitive psychology - which do not rely on response as a model of changing behaviour-, diminish the role of information processing and focus on cognitive levels. It is also consequent that some trends in cognitive psychology abandon the idea of immediate stimulus-response relationships-which favours a rush towards performance objectives achievement- and study the learning process as a model of information (subject/material and language) processing.

More recent works in educational psychology stress the fact that, even if first information processing models speculated over computer and artificial intelligence findings, it is sometimes the neuropsychological research (human brain functioning) which influenced developments in the world of computer operations. Slavin (2003:173-187), Woolfolk

(2004:239-271), Baron and Kalsher (2005:164-172), and Ormord. (2006:42-49) consider information processing as a core approach to cognitive psychology in general and a central aspect of all specific descriptions of memory types as sensory memory, short term/working memory, and long term memory.

"For most cognitive psychologists, the computer model is only a metaphor for human mental activity. But other cognitive scientists, particularly those studying artificial intelligence, try to design and program computers to 'think' and solve problems like human beings. Some theorists suggest that the operation of the brain resembles a large number of very slow computers, all operating in parallel (at the same time), with each computer dedicated to a different, specific task." (Woolfolk.2004:239).

We can add further that Ormord (2006.opcit) puts information processing at the central dynamic phenomenon of cognitive development in children. After a long criticism of Piaget's and vygotsky's views about learning, she devotes a whole chapter to the importance of information processing view of cognitive development. She comes to various outcomes of this importance in considering that all learning styles and strategies are the result of information processing theory.

'As teachers, we must remember that our students are likely to be less efficient learners than we are. A variety of factors that affect their ability to learn –attention, intention to learn, prior knowledge, awareness and the effective use of learning strategies, and so on- develop gradually throughout the school years. We can not expect that our students will always learn as quickly, or even in the same way, as we do. Learning strategies make such a difference in students' classroom achievement that we shouldn't leave the development of these strategies to chance. As we ask students to study and learn classroom subject matter, we should also give them suggestions about how they might study and learn it. Such an approach is consistent with not only information theory but also with Vygotsky's proposal that adults can better promote children's cognitive development by talking about how they themselves think about challenging tasks.' (Ormord.2006:48)

All recent four works, mentioned above, agree on the stages and models of information processing which are prominent in child cognitive development, learning, and problem solving. They distinguish aspects related to sensory, short term, working, and long term memory and provide models of processing like bottom-up/top-down and schema representation of knowledge and remembering. These elements require further discussions that we provide in the sections below.

5. <u>Memory, schema and learning:</u>

5.1 <u>Memory and learning</u>:

It is common sense to say that a person remembers or knows something already known or learnt. This knowledge is generally stored in memory. The act of remembering is simply seen as a recall of knowledge items whenever necessary with or without effort. Remembering can thus be directed or incidental. If we incidentally meet an acquaintance, we may or may not remember the person; immediate recall of the person may be so quick that we do no even realize the act of remembering. But if it happens that we have a difficulty of remembering the person then we certainly try to activate various clues (circumstances, situations, dates, events, other relative relationships, etc…) which help us recall the person. Is this an organised or random activity?

Answering this question leads us to consider how memory is organised and how it works. In other words, if we consider memory as store of general knowledge and/or specific information, then there is certainly an access route to that store.

Memory is not simply an act of remembering past events and acquired/learned knowledge and information; it is also the act of planning things we have/need to do in the future. There

are things we set forth to be carried out automatically as modes of behaviour implied by our automatic responses to immediate circumstances (walking, eating, going to bed, etc…). But there are also various activities that we plan to do intentionally according to specific time schedule which has already been set forth to be executed at specific moments (calling up someone, preparing a lesson, visiting a doctor, etc…).

Memory can, thus, work 'retrospectively' and 'prospectively', to use Green's terms. This mental activity of remembering past knowledge and remembering future intentions is so problematic that a categorisation of memory into models is quite necessary. Green (1987: 37-58) rejects the idea of defining memory as 'a passive memory store (…), general knowledge of objects and categories and a permanent record of our personal experiences'. She underlines the fact that psychological studies of memory attempted to:

'(…) distinguish psychological models of memory as long-term memory, semantic memory, autobiographical memory, episodic memory, short-term memory, each implying that different kinds of knowledge are parcelled out between various memory stores.' (Green.1987: 38-39)

She advocates the idea that memory is an active working process which involves almost always all the modes mentioned in her quote above. Green (1987: 39-41) first explains that active working memory is a shift from short-term memory which is considered as a short-term store, and defines it as:

'(…) being a work space in which new inputs can be received and information from long-term memory can be retrieved. Working memory is necessary for cognitive functions which depend on an interaction between new and old information. (…) The emphasis of working memory research on active processing replaced the traditional concept of short-term

memory as a passive store of to-be-remembered items, which had to be continuously rehearsed if they were not to be forgotten.' (Green.1987:39)

From this definition, we can say that this active working memory combines cognitive functions which are derived from both short and long-term memory in a process of information reception, retrieval, interaction and rehearsal. It implies simply that active working memory is the space for information processing. Green (ibid) adds that this model of memory is not so perfect and can be seriously affected by a variety of factors:

-the number of items a human being is able to consider simultaneously;

-the state of consciousness/awareness of the problems we are working on;

-it contains only a subset of all the vast amount of passive knowledge available to us.

Cook. (1991: 65) defines working memory as "the memory system used for holding and manipulating information while various mental tasks are carried out" and adds that working memory needs an "articulatory loop which is the means by which information is kept in working memory by being audibly or silently articulated." Almost similarly, Fontana (1995:152-155) assumes that learning and memory are interdependent even though there is a psychological division, for purely pedagogical reasons, of memory into long-term and short-term memories which have an important relationship and the learning thus stored. He stresses the fact that received information can only be held in short term memory relatively briefly; it is either forgotten or transferred to long term memory where it can be stored. This transfer, according to Fontana (1995:153), is vital for learning and involves some form of consolidation which is achieved by a number of strategies:

-pausing, repeating and questioning (work sufficiently upon material); -chunking (breaking down material into small manageable units);

-relevance and interest (appealing to experience and feelings); -attention span (focus learning attention for a specific duration);

-practical use (a material used is a material remembered); -meaning (memory holds material which is meaningful);

-overlearning (practicing and revising make a material persist in memory);

-association (unfamiliar material is better learned and remembered if associated with familiar material: from known to unknown principle).

Fontana (ibid) adds that memory usually works on two levels of recognition and recall. It is easier for a learner to recognise material he/she already knows as far as it is presented to him/her, but it is more difficult to recall it from memory without any cues.

All these view points about memory, its types, categories and activities, help us say that learning is an activation of memory processes of interrelationships and interdependence. Learning makes memory dynamic by applying various steps of information processing. The division of memory into two or three phases, spaces, or fields may vary among scholars, not for disagreement on activities of the mind but rather for the sake of convenience. Thus, while Slavin (2003: 173-175) considers the stimuli, their perception and focus of attention as "sensory register", Woolfolk (2004: 240-242), and Baron and Kalsher (2005:164-165) consider them as "sensory memory". Woolfok (ibid) even identifies "bottom-up" and "top down" processing as sensory aspects while Slavin (ibid), Baron and Kalsher (ibid), and Ormord (2006.opcit) do not. One can say that it is established among these scholars that the initial stage of learning (recognition, perception and attention) is the first memory space where learners identify features of new items whatever the styles, aspects or strategies they would use to do so.

The second memory space distinguished by these scholars is short term memory or working memory. Naming it "short term" memory was certainly due to the fact this memory space could last for a very short period of time. But it turned out that this space carries out a number of operations that are central to the information processing theory. The dynamic features of the so-called "short term memory gave it the quality of being a "working memory" (Green.1987, Cook.1991, Fontana 1995 opcit, and Baddeley, 1999: 45-70). Recent work in the field (§ above) just confirmed this characteristic feature of working memory in the information processing approach to learning. All researchers call it 'rehearsal' and consider it as the 'workbench of consciousness' (Baron and Kalsher 2005:164), -a ground field of the learning challenge (H.H)- where learners use their styles and strategies to improve their knowledge, and where teachers attempt to help them do so by designing 'appropriate tasks'.

The third memory space is the long term store of all knowledge for a long period of time and that is why it is called long term memory. Slavin (2003:178) qualifies this memory as being permanent, and too wide to be filled in with knowledge during our life time. He adds that some scholars include learning strategies among knowledge stored in long term memory and define it as 'long term working memory.'

All scholars, mentioned in this section about information processing and memory, agree on the division of long term memory into at leas three parts: episodic, semantic, and procedural memory:

-Episodic memory is our memory of personal experience, of things we saw and heard. Images of our life are very important and cues related to place and time, help us retrieve information stored in episodic memory

-Semantic memory is our memory of facts and general information about concepts, principles, or rules and how to use them; and our problem-solving skills and learning strategies.

-Procedural memory is our memory of a 'know-how' instead of a 'know-what'. It refers to a number of abilities a person knows how to perform.

Slavin (2003. opcit) and Woolfolk (2004.opcit) draw some important comments about this division by qualifying both episodic and semantic memory as being 'explicit'. They argue that one can explicitly say when and where something happened and can probably give the meaning of a given word or a concept without remembering when and how he/she learnt it. According to, them this kind of knowledge is 'declarative'. On the other hand they consider procedural memory as being 'implicit'. One can ride a bicycle but can hardly tell someone else how to do it. In almost all situations of this kind, people have information that they can't readily put into words.

5.2 **Schema and learning**:

The term 'schema' is a standard term in contemporary cognitive psychology although it was first used academically by Piaget in the 1920's and Francis Charles Bartlett in 1932. The valuable work of Bartlett - *Remembering: An experimental and Social Study* (1932) - was a break through in the study of memory but it was not given the importance it deserves because of the impact of behaviourism at that time. However, since the emergence of

cognitive studies as a specific field in psychology, Bartlett's views gained impact on the studies of memory and the information processing principles.

Some scholars considered schema as a frame of knowledge representation (Green.1987 and Mayer, 1977), networks of semantic memory (Anderson.1995), and top-down/bottom-up processing of new information (Matlin, 2003 and Slavin, 2003). Green (1987:41-48) considers that 'the basic idea' of schema theory, originally suggested by Bartlett (1932), 'is that human memory consists of high-level mental representations known as schemas, each of which encapsulates knowledge about everything connected with a class of objects or events.' She attributes two essential roles to schemas:

-they represent general knowledge of objects and events, and;

-at the same time, they guide the interpretation of newly occurring experiences which are eventually absorbed into general knowledge schemas.

She, further, adds that Bartlett's shortcoming theory was due to its 'vagueness' because there was no obvious argument to explain the relationship between schemas and categories or classes of events and objects.

Green (ibid) suggests the use of frames of reference which consist of slots to be filled in with appropriate values to represent old and new information. According to Green (ibid), a frame guides the interpretation of an event by providing the types of slots relevant to the event, object or situation encountered. Green's contribution can be seen in cases where specific information is lacking to complete the values of a given slot. She suggests the use of optional, default values as information proceeds until the person establishes a frame of reference for the newly learned object, event or situation. She provides examples of

situations, events and objects where the person is in a position of remembering slots already filled in with fixed and/or typical value (already established knowledge within a frame), and lacks some specific values to complete all the slots of the frame. The incomplete slots are to be filled with the individual interpretation of new information relevant to that particular object, event or situation.

One of her examples is the frame for 'dog' which looks like mapping meaning representation in categories of slots, rather than hierarchies, each filled in with fixed value for general knowledge, typical value for categorization and optional value for specification. Empty slots are left for the individual to expand knowledge representation as information proceeds on future occasions. If the 'dog drinks a lot', then drinking is a default value for all animals; but if 'the dog drinks a lot of beer', then this information is to be considered as a typical default value to keep a general information about animals (drink water and milk) and avoid generalising it to all animals. The individual can thus expand and/or reduce the number of slots required for meaning interpretation and fill in the slots with the relevant type of value.

DOG
       IS A   ANIMAL   fixed value
       HAS   FOUR LEGS   typical default value
      TYPE   optional values: collie, poodle,…
           SIZE   optional values: big, small, tiny,…
         COLOUR   optional values: black, brown, red,…
    LOCATION   optional values: park, house, shop,…
   OWNER'S ACTION   optional values: walk, feed, buy, …
     ETC
     ETC

Figure1: Frame for 'dog' schema (Figure 7 in Green. 1987:44)

We can say that schemas, or frames of representation, are stereotypic building blocks of meaning which can be expanded or reduced according to environmental learning and information processing situations an individual may encounter. At the same time they are

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dynamic when the individual is in a position to use them in order to digest new information and that they are overlapping because the slots of given frame can be shared with other frames of representation. Application of this theory to the act of remembering reminds us of Mayer's (1977: 107-108) comments on schema theory when he recognises that Bartlett (1932) was the father of cognitive psychology, because Bartlett suggested two fundamental ideas about human mental processes:

i-"learning and memory": comprehending requires an effort after meaning; adjusting new knowledge to existing schemata;

ii-"remembering and memory": remembering requires an active "process of reconstruction". Mayer (ibid) concludes that memory is not detailed, but rather schematic. This helps us say that schemas representation in the mind is a network of overlapping, congruent, frames of meaning representation which seems to be randomly recorded but orderly accessible to the individual whenever necessary.

Anderson (1995:154-158), promotes the role of schema in establishing a comprehensive study and representation of conceptual relations in semantic memory:

'A particular way has evolved for representing knowledge in cognitive science which seems more useful than the semantic-network representation. This representational structure is called a schema (…). Schemas represent concepts in terms of supersets, parts, and other attribute value pairs.'   (Anderson.1995:155-156)

Of course, Anderson (1995.passim) makes use of the frames and slot filler/default value (discussed in Green.1987. above) to demonstrate that if a frame of reference to a given knowledge may be considered as a concept, then concepts need to have a internal scheme – representing their meaning and features as frames, and external schemes –representing the

interrelationships that may exist with other concepts as 'supersets'. This latter explains and facilitates the ability of inference that individuals make from their understanding of concepts.

Matlin (2003:264) and Slavin (2003:180) stress the fact that the term 'scheme' was first introduced by Piaget in the 1920's to describe the cognitive framework that individuals/infants use to organise their perceptions and experiences. Both Matlin and Slavin add, -to the previously mentioned ideas discussed above in this section, that schema guide recognition and understanding of new information and provide expectation of what should occur. The advantages of such finding are better expressed by Slavin:

'Cognitive theorists use the terms *schema* and *schemata* to describe networks of concepts that individuals have in their memories that enable them to understand and incorporate new information (…) One clear implication of schema theory is that new information that fits into a well-developed schema is retained far more readily than is information that dose not fit into a schema.' (Slavin.2003:180)

These advantages are features of learning and recall which, according to this view, become twinned processes. Whenever individuals learn new information they are likely to open up already existing schema –acts of retrieval- which help them interpret that information –acts of perception and rehearsal. Any new item of information is better recalled if it is fitted in schema –acts of retention and remembering. Matlin (2003:264) indicates that this characteristic functioning feature of schemas exploits top-down processing, and Cook (1991:71) specifies that 'schemas represent background knowledge on which the interpretation of texts depends'. Matlin (ibid) generalises the role of schema as a thinking style, while Cook (ibid) considers its specific necessity to process texts while reading.

6. <u>Thinking and problem solving</u>:

6.1 <u>Thinking</u>:

There is no doubt that thinking is a task and a process of the mind which goes through a number of stages and styles. Most of these stages and styles have been discussed in the previous sections of this chapter. Retrieval of background knowledge, perception of new information, rehearsal, anticipation and guessing are all features of a mental process. Mayer (1977) explains that the cognitive system manipulates knowledge while thinking. Mayer (ibid: 6) says that thinking includes three ideas;

-thinking is cognitive, but is inferred from behaviour. It is internal, in the mind or cognitive system, and must be inferred indirectly.

-it is a process involving some manipulation of, or a set of operations on, knowledge in the cognitive system.

-it is directed and results in behaviour which "solves" a problem or is directed towards solution.

In these terms, Mayer considers that thinking is a result of a given behaviour which is inferred indirectly as a process of the mind. It carries out operations on the knowledge in order to solve a problem. This definition of thinking is not far from the definition of 'learning' which is quoted and commented in the previous pages (§§: 1.2 above). We can add that 'thinking' involves, then, an attitude of considering knowledge in various ways – knowledge as food for the mind- in order to face various challenges in one's life. Thinking, like learning, may also be intentional or incidental, programmed in instructional courses or natural as part of daily life.

Mayer (1977:7) and Matlin (2003: 399-447) explain that thinking involves two basic process or types of reasoning: induction and deduction. For them, induction is the mental operation of processing examples which leads to establishing a general rule, and deduction is the mental operation of using general rules which leads to establishing logical conclusions. Matlin (ibid) adds that thinking involves decision making as well. Thus, if one thinks about a given subject matter, he/she is attempting to make a decision or solve a problem.

6.2 <u>Problem solving</u>:

Decision-making and problem solving are almost the same tasks of mental operations. Whenever one wants to take a decision or solve a problem, he/she is thinking about a number of consideration/factors which influence the final decision or the suggested solution. Best decisions and solutions are generally those that take into account their appropriateness to the situations and problems for which they are taken. Mayer (1977: 5) considers that the definition of a problem includes at least three essential ideas:

- "givens": the problems is presented to the learners in some state so that they at least understand, first, what the nature of the problem is.

- "goals": it is desired that it be in another state. This means that the learners are given instructions on what the end result –outcome- of the solution to the problem should be.

- "obstacles": there is no direct, obvious way, to accomplish the change.

This implies that the learners have to target ways of finding a solution by relying on their understanding of the problem, the instructions given to them, their cognitive operations and background knowledge.

In a not very much different way from Mayer (ibid), Matlin (2003:359-398) and Woolfolk (2004:283-294) discuss the stages and skills involved in problem solving as a cognitive, information processing, activity. They say that a problem has generally a present state, a goal or a desired outcome, and a path for achieving that goal. They add that problem solving can either be general (some problem-solving strategies can be useful in many areas) or domain specific (effective problem-solving strategies are specific to the problem area, like maths.)

In her analysis and description of problem solving stages, Woolfolk (2004) summed up the whole matter to five IDEAL stages, already discussed by many other authors;

- I   Identify problems and opportunities
- D   Define goals and represent the problem
- E   Explore possible strategies
- A   Anticipate outcomes and act
- L   Look back and learn

Both Matlin (2003:364-387) and Woolfolk (2005:287-294), on the other hand, explain that problem representation can be done through symbols, matrices, diagrams, visual images, and context. Approaches and ways of solving a problem rely basically on algorithms and heuristics. Algorithms are step-by-step prescriptions for achieving a goal; an exhaustive search trying out all possible answers using a specified system which will always produce a solution to the problem, sooner or later. Heuristics are strategies in which one ignores some alternatives and explore only those that are likely to produce a solution. Heuristic strategies, however, do not always guarantee a solution. They generally consist of means-ends analysis

(dividing a problem into sub-problems or intermediate goals which compare initial state to intermediate and final goal solution to the whole problem), working backward strategies (beginning at the goal and moving back to the unsolved initial problem), and analogical thinking which relies on other solutions already found for previous problem which help in finding a solution to the new problem.

Matlin (2003:394,) even considers that creativity is an aspect of problem solving activities. For her, creativity or creative thinking in any field is matter of providing solution which may seem just extraordinary, outstanding, and unexpected by a majority of people. She qualifies this solution as bein 'new and useful'. Creativity requires intelligence, knowledge, motivation, encouraging environment, appropriate thinking style and personality.

We can say that the problem solving activity is a comprehensive task which combines perception of the problem and analysis of its state, setting forth possible solution relying on present context and past experience and knowledge, anticipating what will be the consequences of the suggested solution, and finally evaluating the success or failure of that solution to be used for other problem solving tasks. Altogether, these stages represent, in fact, learning, information processing, and thinking as carried out simultaneously by an expert in a given field. Learners generally learn to gather knowledge, use that knowledge to think and solve problems.

7. **Learning styles**:

Many scholars define and explain both terms 'styles' and 'strategies' together as it is difficult to dissociate them. Only those scholars who were involved in teaching/learning contexts could really make a clear cut distinction. Brown (2000) attempts to define the terms 'style' and 'strategy' by saying:

'Style is a term that refers to consistent and rather enduring tendencies or preferences within an individual. Styles are those general characteristics of intellectual functioning that pertain to you as an individual and that differentiate you from someone else. For example, you might be more visually oriented, more tolerant of ambiguity, or more reflective than someone else. These would be styles that characterize a general pattern in your thinking or feeling.
 Strategies are specific methods of approaching a problem or task, modes of operating for achieving a particular end, planned designs for controlling and manipulating certain information. They are contextualized 'battle plans' that might vary from moment to moment, or day to day, or year to year. Strategies vary intra-individually; each of us has a number of possible ways to solve a particular problem, and we choose one –or several in sequence- for a given problem.' Brown (2000:112-113)

Among the learning styles, Brown (2000:114-122) distinguishes a number of "cognitive, affective, and physiological traits" which are stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment. Brown (ibid) focuses the study on Field Dependent/Field Independent, left-and Right-Brain Functioning, Ambiguity Tolerance/ Intolerance, Reflectivity and Impulsivity, and Visual and Auditory styles.

Field Independence is the ability to perceive a particular, relevant factor or item in a field of distracting items. It enables the leaner to distinguish parts from a whole, to concentrate on something, to analyse separate variables without the contamination of neighbouring variables. Field Dependence, on the other hand, is the tendency to be "dependent" on the

total field so that the parts embedded within the field are not easily perceived , although that total field is perceived more clearly as a unified whole. It is the ability to perceive the whole picture, the larger view, the general configuration of a problem, an idea or an event.

Brown (2000 ibid) states that research in the field of learning has established that both styles can be beneficial and useful for the learners according to the contexts in which they learn. While Field Independent styles are more frequently used in classroom-organised learning, Field Dependent styles are much more practised in communicative language learning contexts where the purpose is not in conformity with language rules but rather achieving communicative goals. As a consequence of this dilemma and a compensation of learning styles, Brown (2000 ibid) suggests that language learning within the classroom requires more Field Independent implementation, and "natural" communicative language learning needs more Field Dependent support.

On Left – and Right-Brain Functioning, Brown (2000 ibid) considers that though neurological bimodality studies (of neurological activity in left and right hemispheres of the brain) established characteristic features of this distinction, it remains unsatisfactory to say that a learner would use one or the other distinctively; learners use more or less one of them or both simultaneously in almost all types of learning activities. The various studies that Brown (ibid) mentions characterize Left-Brain and Right-Brain dominance in terms of opposite mental operations that can be best summarised in the table below:

Tolerance and Intolerance of Ambiguity is a matter of accepting or rejecting contradictory, conflicting ideas with one's beliefs, principles or structure of knowledge. Some learners are open-minded and can easily cope with different ideologies or events which contradict their own views. Others are close-minded and simply reject what ever idea that is incongruent with their own system of cognitive organisation. Both styles have their

advantages and drawbacks. Successful language learning requires foreign language learners' tolerance of different language structure and culture and it also requires intolerance of meaningless chunks learned by rote.

Left-Brain Dominance	Right-Brain Dominance
Intellectual	Intuitive
Remembers names	Remembers faces
Responds to verbal instruction and explanations	Responds to demonstrated, illustrated, or symbolic instruction
Experiments systematically and with control	Experiments randomly and with less restraints
Makes objective judgements	Makes subjective judgement
Planned and structured	Fluid and spontaneous
Prefers established, certain information	Prefers elusive, uncertain information
Analytic reader	Synthesizing reader
Reliance on language in thinking and remembering	Reliance on images in thinking and remembering
Prefers talking and writing	Prefers drawing and manipulating objects
Prefers multiple choice tests	Prefers open-ended questions
Controls feelings	More free with feelings
Not good at interpreting body language	Good at interpreting body language
Rarely uses metaphors	Frequently uses metaphors
Favours logical problem solving	Favours intuitive problem solving

Table1: Left –and Right-Brain characteristics. (Table 5.1.in Brown, 2000:119)

Reflectivity and Impulsivity are personality tendencies of making either a slow, calculated decision as an answer to a question – a solution to a problem, or a quick, gambling guess. Brown (2000:121-122) argues that it has been found that reflective learners make fewer reading errors than impulsive learners but as far as the reading –psycholinguistic guessing game- progresses, impulsive learners tend to be faster than reflective ones. Teacher-learner interaction, however, can be seriously affected by the reflective or impulsive style of the

learners. Reflective learners need much more time to react and require, hence, more patience from the teacher while impulsive learners, who take the risk of responding quickly, may face harsh judgement from an impatient teacher.

Visual and Auditory styles are elementary input recognition. Some learners prefer reading and studying charts, drawings, maps and other graphically represented information. Other learners prefer listening to lectures and audiotapes. Most of the studies mentioned in Brown (ibid) distinguish the prominence of visual or auditory styles according to cultural and educational factors and all the studies admit that even if learners favour one of the styles this does necessarily exclude the use of the other style. In an attempt to define what a learning style is, Lightbrown and Spada (1999:58) say:

'"Learning style" has been used to describe an individual's natural, habitual, and preferred way of absorbing, processing, and retaining new information and skills.'

We can say, here, that there may be 'visual' learners, 'aural' learners and 'kinaesthetic' learners who need a physical action to be performed in the learning process. Lightbrown and Spada (1999. opcit) add that in contrast to these perceptually based learning styles, research focused on cognitive learning styles distinguishing <u>field independent</u> and <u>field dependent</u> learners. The first learner tends to separate details from the general background, while the second learner tends to see things more 'holistically'.

Lightbrown and spada's (1999.ibid) comments on their own research results show that 'field independence' is related to performance on certain kinds of tasks and is not a good predictor of performance in general. They say that another category of learning styles is based on the individual's temperament and personality. However, they do not assume that some or any other learning styles are wrong; they rather encourage learners to use all means

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available to them. They consider that learners preferences for learning will influence the kinds of strategies they choose in order to learn new materials and, hence, teachers can rely on this fact to help learners expand their repertoire of learning strategies.

'(…) strategy is a description of the way a student chooses to tackle a specific learning task in the light of its perceived demands, and a style is a broader characterization of a student's preferred way of tackling learning tasks generally.' (Entwistle. etal. 1979:368)

Entwistle.etal(1979: 368) draws from other research experiments the fact that students use two main strategies of comprehension: 'holist' and 'serialist'. Holist strategy is to build up, right from the start, a broad view of the learning task- how the subject matter fitted in with other related topics, with "real life" and with personal experience. Serialist strategy is to build understanding out of the component details, logical steps, and operations taken strictly in a linear sequence.

Littlemore (2001: 241-255), in an experimental research project on communication strategies used by foreign language learners, brings significant evidence of the importance of cognitive styles in communication strategy. In her experiment, Littlemore distinguishes holistic and analytic cognitive styles which can bias learners' communication. She first describes cognitive styles as "an individual's characteristic and consistent approach to organising and processing information. (…) The fact that an individual's cognitive style is thought to shape the way in which they process and retrieve information, implies that it will have some effect on the way they are able to convey that information to a second party."(Littlemore.2001:244) From these terms, we can at least say that cognitive styles are closely linked to information processing, and that Littlemore's experiment limits the scope of

the study to holistic and analytic styles. She makes the distinction between the two in the following words:

"(…) holistic individuals are able to see the whole picture. They are able to see situations in their overall context. However, the negative attribute of individuals with this style is that they have difficulty in breaking a situation down into its parts. Analytic individuals on the other hand are able to analyse information into its parts and are good at observing detail. However, their negative attribute is that they may not be able to get a balanced view of the whole and they may focus on one aspect of a situation to the exclusion of the others and enlarge it out of its proper proportion" (Littlemore.2001:244).

The importance of this quote is not in the definition of the styles themselves but in the negative attributes to both holistic and analytic styles. The negative attributes suggest that if the learners can not use the style fully to achieve complete comprehension or production, they will certainly find a compensatory style. It is unsatisfactory to say that holistic learners are deprived of analytic abilities as it is too risky to admit that analytic learners are unable to build a holistic view whatever its limits. Littlemore's (2001:253-254) findings were faithful to her hypotheses; holistic learners use more holistic communication strategies than analytic learners who, in turn, use more analytic strategies than holistic learners. These two styles correspond to what Brown (2000:114-115) defines – above- as Field Independent and Field Dependent learning styles.

It is also worth mentioning that what Littlemore calls communication strategies are namely conceptual and linguistic strategies that learners use in order to perform a communicative learning task. Among 'conceptual strategies', she cites 'metaphoric comparison, related words, negative comparison' and 'superordinates' as being proper to holistic learners. She cites, on the other hand, 'componential analysis, function, activity, place' and 'emotion' as being proper to analytic learners. Among linguistic strategies, she

cites 'word transfer' from first language to foreign language and vice-versa as a common strategy for both styles. Littlemore's concluding remark is that if learners have preferences for a learning style; this has to be reinforced by designing tasks which help them gain more proficiency in the foreign language by using that style.

We can say that the conceptual and linguistic strategies, and their components, correspond to a great extent to what Oxford (1990:18-21) and Brown (2000) called memory, cognitive and compensatory strategies – see Oxford's diagram below for 'grouping, recognizing and using formulas and patterns, using resources for receiving and sending messages, analysing contrastively, translating and transfer, and guessing intelligently by using linguistic data or other clues.'

On 'Cognitive style and learning approach', Little and Singleton in Duda and Riley (1990:11-13), define a cognitive style as a "characteristic self-consistent mode of functioning which individuals show in their perceptual and intellectual activities", and rely on other research findings in this field to establish the constituents of cognitive style as polar opposites:

-Field dependence and field independence learners;

-Broad categorizers and narrow categorizers;

-Data gatherers and rule formers;

-Impulsivity and reflectivity;

-Levelling and sharpening;

-Belief congruence and sharpening.

They classify the first three pairs of opposites as "cognitive processes" and the last three ones as "mediations through personality and temperament." They add that it is unwise to assume that learners have cognitive styles which are characterized as "innate, unchanging and unchangeable." This categorization and comment help us at least to question the nature of learning styles in view of these three qualities: innate, changing, and changeable. Learning styles, then, can be innate, acquired and/or learned. Learning styles may develop/change through time and learning experience; learners' learning experience may reject, change or modify, an acquired style if this latter proves to be inefficient in some circumstances and come back to it whenever necessary.

8. <u>Learning strategies</u>:

In the previous discussion about learning styles, almost all scholars mentioned the relevance of strategies in the determination of some particular styles. Some, at times, use the terms interchangeably. However, in the pedagogical field where researchers are generally much more involved in classroom research and specifically in developing learning strategies, a clear distinction is made between the two terms with more focus on the strategies rather than the styles.

Oxford (1990) makes a thorough study of language learning strategies by considering that they have at least twelve characteristic features; she says that they:

1. Contribute to the main goal of communicative competence;
2. Allow learners to become more self-directed;
3. Expand the role of the teacher;
4. Are problem-oriented;
5. Are specific actions taken by the learner;
6. Involve many aspects of the learner, not just the cognitive;

7. Support learning both directly and indirectly;

8. Are not always observable;

9. Are often conscious;

10. Can be taught;

11. Are flexible;

12. Are influenced by a variety of factors to make choices.

(Oxford.1990:09)

Though these features seem to be obvious from first glance, we can say that almost all of them characterize the learner's learning experience (features 2.4.5.6.7.9.11.12), while others characterize the programmed learning courses (1.3.4.8.10) and show that educational decisions can contribute by involving more people (teachers) in the development of learning strategies, and by designing specific aims (goals) and activities (problem-oriented). We can add that features 5 and 8 are somehow contradictory because one wonders how "specific actions taken by the learners" can "not be observed." The only explanation to this contradiction is that scholars attempt to explain learners' actions by inferring from, and relating learners' choice of a given strategy to, abstract cognitive styles.

Oxford (1990:11-21) suggests two classes, six groups and nineteen sets of learning strategies and provides two diagrams to summarize her taxonomy.

The first diagram (p: 11), which is not quoted here, represents a taxonomy which combines both cognitive and personality factors affecting language learning. The initial distinction of two classes of strategies, direct and indirect, relies on, and looks similar to, the distinction between cognitive styles, field dependent-field/independent and personality/temperament factors made by Lightbrown and Spada (1999), Little and Singleton (1990), and Brown

(2000) mentioned above. Consequently, each class has three groups of strategies which, in turn, have nineteen subdivisions that best illustrate what learners do when they are learning.

For this purpose, Oxford takes this categorization into further details and supplies an exhaustive list of activities in a second diagram (which includes the first diagram as well). Each of the nineteen sets of strategies -the diagram mentioned above- is extrapolated into guidelines for language learning activities which learners are supposed to undertake under teachers' supervision or on their own independent learning experience (see Figure2, below). In a revision of this categorisation, Oxford (2001 in Carter and Nunan: 166-172) defines these strategies and renames memory strategies as mnemonic strategies. She considers that cognitive strategies help the learner establish and reinforce associations between old and new information, and facilitate the reconstruction of information in the learners' mind by use of such tactics as guessing from context, analysing, reasoning inductively and deductively, taking semantic notes and reorganising information.

Cognitive strategies, according to Oxford, involve hypothesis testing like searching for clues in the material studied or in one's own knowledge by hypothesizing the meaning of the unknown item. Mnemonic strategies relate one thing to another in a simple stimulus response manner but do not reinforce associations.

Direct Strategies
(Memory, Cognitive, and Compensation strategies)

A. Creating mental linkage
1. Grouping
2. Associating/elaborating
3. Placing new words into a context

1. Using imagery

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I. Memory
Strategies

B. Applying images
   and sounds
2. Semantic mapping
3. Using key words
4. Representing sounds in memory

C. Reviewing well → 1. Structured reviewing

D. Employing action
1. Using physical response or sensation
2. Using mechanical techniques

system

II. Cognitive
Strategies

A. Practicing
1. Repeating
2. Formally practicing with sounds and writing
3. Recognizing and using formulas and patterns.
4. Recombining
5. Practicing naturalistically

B. Receiving and
   sending messages
1. Getting the idea quickly
2. Using resources for receiving and sending

messages

C. Analysing
   and reasoning
1.Reasoning deductively
2. Analysing expressions
3. Analysing contrastively (across languages)
4. Translating
5. Transferring

D. Creating structure
   for input and output
1. Taking notes
2. Summarizing
3. Highlighting

III. Compensation
Strategies:

A. Guessing
   intelligently
1. Using linguistic clues
2. Using other clues

B. Overcoming
   limitations in
   speaking and
   writing
1. Switching to the mother tongue
2. Getting help
3. Using mime or gesture
4. Avoiding communication partially or totally
5. Selecting the topic
6. Adjusting or approximating the message
7. Coining words
8. Using a circumlocution or synonym

Indirect Strategies
(Metacognitive, Affective, and Social strategies)

I. Metacognitve
Strategies :

A. Centering your
   learning
1. Overviewing and linking with already know material
2. Paying attention
3. Delaying speech production to focus on listening

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B. Arranging and planning your learning
1. Finding out about language learning
2. Organizing
3. Setting goals and objectives
4. Identifying the purpose of a language task (purposeful listening/reading/speaking/writing)
5. Planning for a language task
6. Seeking practice opportunities

C. Evaluating your Learning
1. Self-monitoring
2. Self-evaluating

II. Affective Strategies

A. Lowering your anxiety
1. Using progressive relaxation, deep breathing, or meditation
2. Using music
3. Using laughter

B. Encouraging yourself
1. Making positive statements
2. Taking risks wisely
3. Rewarding yourself

C. Taking your emotional temperature
1. Listening to your body
2. Using a checklist
3. Writing a language learning diary
4. Discussing your feeling with someone else

III. Social Strategies:

A. Asking questions
1. Asking for clarification or verification
2. Asking for correction

B. Cooperating with others
1. cooperating with peers
2. Cooperating with proficient users of the new language

C. Empathizing with others
1. Developing cultural understanding
2. Becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings

Figure2: Diagram of the Strategy System Showing All the Strategies.
(Figure 1.4, in Oxford.R,L. 1990:18-21)

These strategies are basically established by modelling the learners' behaviour to react to sounds, body movement and gestures, and by reference to a page, a picture, or something on the blackboard. Such tactics or moves are considered to be the first essential steps in learning vocabulary items and grammar rules with beginners.

Metacognitive strategies help learners know themselves better by identifying their own processes, specific learning tasks, interests and needs. In fact, metacognitive strategies are

learners' awareness about their own learning styles and problem solving abilities. Examples of such styles are visual vs. auditory, kinaesthetic, global vs. analytic, concrete, sequential vs. intuitive, random, and ambiguity-tolerant vs. ambiguity-intolerant.

Compensatory strategies help learners make up for missing knowledge in oral or written communication like using synonyms, circumlocution or gesturing to suggest the intended meaning. Oxford (2001.opcit) claims that these strategies provide an immediate opportunity for incidental learning. However, affective strategies are related to learners' feelings of anxiety, anger or contentment about the learning process itself. Such strategies can have negative or positive impact on the learning process because fear of failure and fear of communication may hinder leaning when learners' participation is criticised, while games and funny activities may relax the atmosphere and make learning enjoyable.

Social strategies are essential for communicative language learning as they establish learning relationships between the teacher and the learners, and among the learners themselves. Asking questions for clarification, asking for help, studying together inside or outside the classroom are group/social tactics that teachers should encourage; learners can sometimes learn more from each other than they can do by learning from the material or on their own.

Almost similarly, Brown (2000.opcit) relies on other scholars –basically the work of O'Malley and Chamot (1990) on 'Learning strategies'- to draw three major categories of learning strategies: metacognitive, cognitive, and socioaffective strategies. Brown considers all three as directly related to the receptive domain of intake, memory, storage and recall. Brown (2000) adds a category of communication strategies divided in two other mlsubcategories which are avoidance and compensatory strategies. Both categories are related to the employment of verbal or nonverbal mechanisms for the productive

communication of information. This means that, at the production stage, learners of a foreign language attempt to overcome their deficiencies in using the language by either avoiding an idea – a topic- or by creating their own locutions. This makes five categories, each supplied with detailed strategies which are, more or less, similar to Oxford (1990, opcit) detailed diagram mentioned above. In Brown's (2000: 125-130) terms, relying on O'Malley and Chamot (1990), these five categories can be represented in the following two tables:

Metacogntive strategies	Cognitive strategies	Socioaffective strategies
-Advance organizers	-Repetition - Resourcing	- cooperation
-Directed attention	-Translation -Grouping	
-Selective attention	-Note taking -Deduction	-Question for clarification
-Self-management	-Recombination -Imagery	
-Functional planning	-Auditory representation	
-Self-monitoring	-Keyword -Contextualization	
-Delayed production	-Elaboration -Transfer	
-Self-evaluation	-Inferencing	

Table 2: Learning strategies (Table 5.2, in Brown 2000: 125-126)

Avoidance strategies	Compensatory strategies
-Message abandonment	-Circumlocution -Approximation
	-Use of all purpose words
	-Word coinage -Prefabricated patterns
-topic avoidance	-Nonlinguistic signals -Literal translation
	-Foreignizing -Code-switching
	-Appeal for help
	-Stalling or time-gaining strategies

Table 3: Communication Strategies (table: 5.3 in Brown, 2000: 127)

If we compare Brown's categories of styles and strategies to Oxford's diagram, the following remarks may be of great interest to us and to the reader;

- all the terms used for memory and cognitive strategies (including the subcategories) in Oxford's diagram match with the terms used by Brown for only the cognitive strategies. Thus, for Oxford, memory strategies are distinctively identified from cognitive ones while for Brown both memory and cognitive strategies come under only one category.

- In both works, metacognitive strategies are described in almost identical terms but with slight difference in subcategory classification and order;

- Communication/compensation strategies also match in both works though the degree of precision and detailed description is more accurate in Oxford's work;

- Brown's socioaffective strategies are too general while Oxford's are distinct and much more detailed –affective and social strategies are set apart.

A much more global view of metacognition is provided by Wenden (1998:519) where she distinguishes metacognitive knowledge from metacognitive strategies. She defines metacognitve knowledge as "referring to information learners acquire about their learning", while she defines metacognitive strategies as "general skills through which learners manage, direct, regulate, guide, monitor, and evaluate their learning." This definition seems to be a hierarchy of two levels: the first high level is a state of mental awareness about, a superego of, the learner's metacognitive knowledge – let us say a style, while the second level is a number of tactical, practical moves that the learner consciously chooses to use in order to tackle learning.

9. <u>Learning objectives</u>:

If we take into account what has been said about learning styles and strategies in the broad sense, then their importance can be noticed anywhere in cognitive development of human beings. However, if we take into account the fact that programmed learning aims at making the learners use preferably some styles and strategies, then further considerations must be given to the relationship between aims, goals, objectives of learning and the favourable development of particular styles and strategies to reach those aims, goals, and objectives.

We assume, here, that the milestone work of Bloom (1956) was the initial pedagogical commitment into making a relationship between what the learners do and what they achieve while learning. Bloom (1956: passim) did not overtly claim for such a relationship but he created a taxonomy of educational objectives in order to express qualitatively different kinds of thinking levels. It is strikingly significant that this early work in the cognitive domain had and still has a great impact on course design and course implementation. Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives is not only a study of educational objectives as a product, terminal, behavioural outcome, as many would think. Bloom (1956: 25-43) devoted a whole chapter to the impact of defining educational objectives on curriculum design and implementation in order to achieve those objectives.

'By educational objectives, we mean explicit formulations of the ways in which students are expected to be changed by the educative process. That is, the ways in which they will change in their thinking, their feelings, and their actions. There are many possible changes that can take place in students as a result of learning experiences, but since the time and resources of the school are limited, only a few of the possibilities can be realized. It is important that the major objectives of the school or unit of instruction be clearly identified if time and effort are not to be wasted on less important things and if the work of the school is to be guided by some plan'. (Bloom, 1956:26)

Bloom (1956:201-207) determined specific details of the educational objectives in the cognitive domain as six major levels the learners achieve in their learning experience. They are: Knowledge, Comprehension, Application, analysis, Synthesis, and Evaluation. The impact of these six levels on curriculum design and implementation is quite clear in the extract quoted above. It is in fact 'the ways in which the students are expected to change; their thinking, feelings and actions' through the 'learning experiences' reflected in 'unit of instruction', representing a whole learning plan which make those objectives attainable. The six levels represent altogether a hierarchical order of stages and processes of learning and a pedagogical procedure in defining achievement objectives.

These six levels have always been a source of inspiration for many scholars in cognitive psychology and a guideline for course developers in the field of course design. Child (1977: 291, 324, 364) points out the importance of content validity of tests which must be relevant to the purposes and aims of the course, and adds that teachers should take into account clearly defined objectives before writing test items. He says:

'The teacher must make up his mind (…) from experience with the material and by using, where possible, a second opinion because this is a qualitative rather than a quantitative activity. Deciding on objectives and setting appropriate questions is a difficult business. In this respect, Bloom's *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* is quite helpful in defining the scope and extent of the purposes we ascribe to educational procedures and in providing the kinds of questions appropriate for them' (Child.1977: 291)

Fontana (1995: 157-159) makes use of this taxonomy to clarify that learning objectives should be clearly stated and not confused with educational objectives. He first underlines the fact that the ultimate aim of teaching a subject is to make learners understand its structure

and this requires teachers' knowledge of the subject itself and a design of learning objectives which learners should be able to perform at the end of a successful lesson. He then uses the taxonomy to write performance verbs which indicate what the learners are supposed to do at each level. From Fontana (1995: 158-159) we can take this table to compare the appropriateness of his objectives to Bloom's taxonomy:

Bloom's taxonomy of categories in the cognitive domain	Fontana's objectives that learners should be able to perform
Knowledge: simple knowledge of facts, of terms, of theories, etc...	**Recognise and identify** the various elements involved in the particular skill (these elements would then be specified: this is an objective at the *knowledge* level)
Comprehension: an understanding of the meaning of this knowledge	**Define** these elements and to know the part they play in the particular skill (an objective at the *comprehension* level)
Application: the ability to apply this knowledge and comprehension in new and concrete situations.	**Practise** the skill itself (an objective at the comprehension level)
Analysis: the ability to break material down into its constituent parts and to see the relationship between them.	**Describe** what is happening-and why-during this practice (an objective at the *analysis* level)
Synthesis: the ability to reassemble these parts into a new and meaningful relationship, thus forming a new whole.	**Utilize** elements of this skill in solving a particular novel problem (an objective at the synthesis level)
Evaluation: the ability to judge the value of material using Explicit and coherent criteria, either of one's own devising or derived from the work of others	**Assess** the degree of success achieved in this solution and to Propose improvements (an objective at the *evaluation* level)

Table 4: Comparison of Bloom's (1956) Taxonomy and Fontana's (1995) Objectives

Anderson and Krathwhol (2001: passim) examine Bloom's taxonomy and bring some changes in terminology and order of levels. They suggest that names should change into verbs because thinking is an active process. They also rename *knowledge* as *remembering, comprehension* as *understanding*, and *synthesis* as *creating*. They end up with the following order: remembering, understanding, applying, analysing, evaluating, and creating. They justify their classification of *evaluating* prior to *creating* by considering that the hierarchical structure of thinking means increasing complexity (creative production often requires critical thinking) which implies that creative thinking is more complex than critical thinking and that

one can be critical without being creative. In addition, Anderson and Krathwohl (2001 ibid) supply an exhaustive list of subcategories of potential activities with sample sentence starters in order to help teachers design and write specific performance objectives and activities relevant to Bloom's taxonomy and most appropriate to language learning/teaching (see Appendix II)

10. **Rule learning and language**:

In view of what has been discussed about styles and strategies, we assume that foreign language learning requires the use and development of some styles and strategies by learners in contexts of comprehension and production. Learning a foreign language implies the use of that language in communicatively appropriate utterances and grammatically correct sentences. Learning the rules of appropriateness and correctness of a foreign language is not an easy task. Does this rule learning require some styles and strategies, and some objectives to be achieved?

We assume that a foreign language learner uses already established styles and strategies of the mother tongue and/or first language acquisition but in addition he develops special strategies and styles if the foreign language is too different from that first acquisition. On one hand, our assumption relies on the fact that similarity leads to easiness while difference leads to difficulty in learning. On the other hand, the field of error analysis revealed that foreign language learners develop tendencies of making a certain type of errors that may be due to the first acquisition interference or to their own conceptualisation of how the foreign language works. Hence, there has been, throughout the foreign language teaching history, a focus of a learning practice on grammatical rules and systems. This practice has always been

subject to criticism and improvement depending on what the learners had to learn and achieve in the foreign language. Kintsch (1970: 455-456) states this fact in the following quote:

'(…) what and how the subject learns is largely determined by what there is to be learned. Subjects bring certain capacities to rule learning tasks, such as the ability to form associations, to hold items in immediate memory, or to code stimulus attributes. How these elementary operations are employed depends upon the structure of the rule learning task. Thus rule learning may be regarded as a higher level process in which the elementary operations (…) interact in new ways.' (Kintsch, 1970: 455-456)

From this quote on what and how to learn, we can say that learners of any subject matter bring into the new learning experience what and how they have already learned as background knowledge and learning rules in order to learn something new and at the same time develop new ways of learning. In both, mother tongue/first language acquisition and foreign language learning, learners do perform these three styles/strategies: to form associations, to hold items in immediate memory, and to code stimulus attributes. According to Kintsch (ibid), these elementary operations may be regarded as a high level process of rule learning which depends to a great extent on the structure of the learning task.

Rule learning tasks train learners to develop strategies of comprehension and production by analysis and synthesis – to use Bloom's (1956) terms-, by induction, by overt or covert explanations and exemplifications, or by bottom-up and top-down processing. But, the task remains one of the most problematic issues in foreign language learning. Within this dilemma, Kintsch (1970:456) describes three types of rule-learning problems, each requiring its own "language";

-rule learning involves a straightforward extension of the material -knowledge to be learned-on simple concept identification. Instead of concept defined in terms of a single stimulus attribute, classifications in terms of the relationship of two or more attributes are considered by the use of logical relations like conjunctions, disjunctions, implications, etc… It is a matter of association of categories with appropriate response classes.

-rules specify the operations involved in a letter-series completion test. In order to describe the structure of such problems, an information processing language was used which employs such basic terms as <u>cycle</u>, <u>next</u>, <u>same</u>, and <u>alphabet</u>, a theory of rule learning which assumed that subjects operate with the same basic terms in letter-completion tests can explain performance on such tasks.

-rules used in forming grammatical sentences are called rewriting rules (…). Clear evidence was presented that the phrase structure of a sentence is an important factor in determining the perception and recall of it. Deep structure is something like the core meaning of a sentence including the basic grammatical relationships among the terms.' (Kintsch, 1970:456)

From these three problematic observations, we can deduce that rule learning requires a set of strategies which help learners to process information. The first one is concept formation learners can make from the learned material and the relationships that may exist with other concepts. The second one is the conventional representation of language in a written from. The third one is the correlation between meaning and form. Skehan (1998:253-254) sums up this state of affairs in what he calls 'relating the styles and strategies in an information processing framework' of three stages: perception, thought and memory.

'At the first stage, perception (…), the emphasis is on the way in which individuals interact with information in the environment, attempting to recognise or impose patterns on material, while also allocating attention in focused and relevant rather than diffuse ways, i.e. noticing. The central component, thought, is concerned with the manipulation of the material

which has entered the system, i.e. restructuring and its attendant processes. Finally, memory is concerned with mode of representation, the links and associations which give the long term memory system organisation, and retrieval of information from memory.'(Skehan, 1998: 253)

The link, that we can make here, between Kintsch (opcit) problematic remarks on rule learning and Skehan (ibid) information processing framework is that the first one is a micro-view of how and why learners make rules while the second one is a macro-view of the same process. This is better explained in the following table:

Kintsch (1970) micro terms	Skehan (1998) macro terms
Extension of material on simple concept, Classification in terms of relationships, use of conjunctions, etc…	Perception; interact with information, recognise or impose patterns
Specify operations involved ; basic terms as Cycle, next, same, and alphabet	Thought; manipulation of the material, restructuring and its attendant processes
Rewriting rules, determining perception and recall. Core meaning including grammatical relationships	Memory; mode of representation, organisation, and retrieval of information from memory

Table 5: Kintsch' (1970) and Skehan's (1998) rule learning strategies

This shows, to a great extent, that the strategies of rule learning and rule using are analytical and synthetic at the same time. Perception of new information, identifying new concepts and their correlation with already existing ones rely on the rules already learnt. Thinking requires the manipulation of new information and new language forms and structures to be learnt. Memorising what is understood needs representation of meaning in an organised rule-governed scheme. Retrieval, to express information, needs a synthesis of the rules to form meaningful utterances.

Although these operations are not obvious in natural language learning, where direct reference to rule learning is almost absent, they are very frequent in foreign language learning. Hence, they must be given the importance they deserve in helping learners develop strategies of rule learning and using. In a recent research, Moumene (2004: 310) explicitly considers that 'learning foreign language grammar' is one the learner's expressed needs and that even if the teacher avoids teaching grammar, learners will look for the rules for themselves.

Conclusion:

Would it be easy to learn, think, and solve a problem? The answer 'Yes' would be so straightforward for anyone. However, would it be so easy to explain how does this occur? We attempted in this chapter to give some explanations of this process. To learn is to perceive, recognise, and understand new information. There is no obvious evidence of learning unless there is recall. Rehearsal, retention, and retrieval are the evidence of remembering. Information processing represents this process which is sometimes stated in terms of schematic representation of information in the mind. Thinking and problem solving are the evidence which show the utility of any kind of learning. Such information processes will be discussed in the next chapter about discourse and genre analysis.

Although learning styles and strategies are presented under two separate titles, we have avoided, in this chapter, to make a clear-cut distinction between them because they are the core of the information processing model of learning. Styles represent the trends and tendencies of learners to use a number of strategies while learning. Strategies are identified as specific moves used by learners to tackle a given task in a particular stage of learning. It is

also worth mentioning that it is hazardous to say that all learners use or favour some styles and strategies. Learners are generally subject to learning environments which encourage/discourage them to use some styles and strategies, and avoid others.

The only distinction clearly made between the different types of strategies serves the pedagogical, programmed learning environment. Actually, this can be obvious through the designed objectives to be achieved in a given course and the pedagogical instructions given to the learners in order to make them complete/perform a particular task. The role of the course designer and the implementation of the course with materials and activities determine, hence, which styles learners adopt and which strategies they develop. This is to be discussed in chapter three-syllabus and materials design.

CHAPTER TWO

DISCOURSE AND GENRE ANALYSIS

Introduction

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<center>**Discourse and Genre Analysis**</center>

<u>**Introduction**</u>:

Discourse analysis, developed within linguistics and applied linguistics during the last fifty years as a subject area where language is analysed according   to what it means in a certain context, evolved   from   structural   analysis   and register   studies , through conversation analysis of language functions and speech acts, to reach what is nowadays called rhetorical or analysis genre. Through this chapter, I will attempt to describe how this evolution was perceived and applied by some scholars. The general framework of discourse in the academic fields is characterised by its specificity context. Academic discourse is always relevant to the academic topics taught at university or special colleges. It is produced and received by a discourse community – a nomenclature- who share aspects of knowledge about the topic and are familiar with its rhetorical devices.

Analysing academic discourse is then biased by these features and consequently leads to generic specifications due to the context of communication, characteristic features of a given genre in a specific academic field, or comparative findings drawn from the study of the humanities and social sciences, compared to hard –exact- sciences. We provide in this chapter an overview of some available studies which focused either on general wide community but specific contexts like stories and newspaper English, limited the study to one or more than one academic field, or those that attempted to compare academic to scientific genres. The purpose, here, is to determine the common features of academic discourse and attempt to establish a taxonomy of its rhetorical functions and textual features.

1. <u>Register and conversational analysis</u>:

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The first attempt to study language through discourse analysis was by Z. Harris (1952. Discourse Analysis in <u>Language.</u> Volume 28:1-30 cited in McCarthy. 1991) who pointed out that the focus of language studies should shift from single sentences to the distribution of the linguistic elements in a text and the link of this characteristic feature to the social context of the text . This was, of course, the starting point, as social contexts may vary from ordinary socialising conversations to specialised technical texts. The trend had a great impact on the study of text structure and the analysis of specialised texts to determine the linguistic forms and structures most frequently used. The results of such analyses were specialised vocabulary lists (content-oriented), and sets of syntactic combinations most frequently used in science and technology like the passive voice, the simple present, the past tense, etc...

Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens (1964:88-89) defined what registers represented: 'Registers, (...) differ primarily in form. Some registers (...) have distinctive features (...). But the crucial criteria of any given register are to be found in its grammar and its lexis . Probably lexical features are the most obvious. Some lexical items suffice almost by themselves to identify a certain register.' Though register analysis started with the study of language varieties such as dialects and accents , it affected most strikingly the language of science and technology. The analysis, in this way, turned into a restriction of linguistic elements to be used in the discourse of science and technology.

In a criticism of such a tendency to language, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) said that the aim was to produce a syllabus which gave high priority to the language forms students would meet in their science studies and in turn would give low priority to forms

they would not meet. They, further (p: 31), added that even if particular registers favour certain forms, they are not distinctive forms. They are simply drawn from the common stock of the language.

Though this shift of focus from the study of single linguistic entities to the study of their distribution, frequency and regularity was essential in the development of discourse analysis, it remained an incomplete framework for a comprehensive study of language. Soon many scholars in the philosophy of language and linguistics claimed that the study of meaning, rather than form, should be the central focus of discourse analysis. As McCarthy (1991:5-6) says, in the 1960's linguistic philosophers like Austin (1962) and Searle (1969), and later on Grice (1975), focused the analysis of language on the study of social action and social conversation which developed into the theory of speech acts, conversational maxims and pragmatics. For example, Grice provided in the analysis of conversation (1975:44-46) the 'implicature' characteristics of speakers' intentions and provided a 'cooperative principle' which keeps the conversation flowing according to interlocutors' intentions. The four maxims which underlie the principle are: quantity, quality, relation, and manner. Though Grice's work was initially a distinction between scientific/logical language and conversation, his study attempted to bring some logic into the world of conversation which can be driven in diverse ways according to socially relative factors.

2. **Notional/Functional analysis**:

The developments, mentioned above, gave birth to what is nowadays called the notional/functional approach to language teaching and language learning. It is particularly a semantic study of language in terms of its grammar and its functions: 'notions are

generalisations about the nature of the universe -time, space, location, moral and emotional attitudes,(...). Functions are generalisations about what language does -for example the inter-personal function of language is the role played by language in making, operating , describing, etc..., the relationships between people.' (Strevens. 1977:107)

It is elementary that the analysis of language, from a semantic point of view, starts with meaning in the context of a situation and ends up with structures and forms as exponents used in the notions and functions. While notions and functions are macro structures and wide frames of analysis, linguistic items are micro structural exponents of the particular use of the notions and functions in a particular context. A particular context is either 'linguistic - relationship among linguistic environment referring to words, utterances and sentences surrounding a piece of text - or experiential -relationship of the real world and the text.' (Nunan.1993b: 117-118). This implies that meaning is not only interpreted in terms of internal relations but also in terms of external -communicative- relations with the real world. Communicative theory comes into practice, as already stated by speech act theory, to be a crucial criterion for the analysis of what language does -or can do- in different contexts- and this is what scholars commonly refer to as discourse analysis.

3. <u>Discourse analysis</u>:

There has always been a confusing definition of the term to mean sometimes oral or written language with various parameters involved in the analysis. The term, 'discourse', used to include only oral language – like the example of Grice above, while text linguistics used to be concerned with the analysis of written language. The scope of the term has changed to include both oral and written language as a communicative event together with

the context and situation in which language is used, the purpose for which it is used, the rhetorical aspects, and intention of the language users. Defining 'discourse' requires, then, the definition of these terms first.

3.1. <u>Text</u>:

The comprehensive inclusion of both oral and written forms of language under the same topic of 'text' seems reasonable although they do not always share the same characteristics. Brown and Yule (1983: 4-16) discuss the problematic issue of spoken and written texts, their similarities and differences in context, manner and form, and adopt "'text' as a technical term, to refer to the verbal record of a communicative act." (Brown and Yule, 1983: 6) The expression 'verbal record' refers to transcripts -of oral language- which are supposed to transcribe the maximum features of speech into writing. Within the same scope of written representation of speech Crystal (1992) says:

'A piece of naturally occurring spoken, written, or signed discourse identified for purposes of analysis. It is often a language unit with a definable communicative function, such as a conversation.'(Crystal, 1992:72)

Crystal adds, here, that text has a 'communicative function, thus still considering text as discourse which is distinctively regarded by Cook (1989) and Nunan (1993b) below.

Cook (1989:158) considers that a text is 'a stretch of language interpreted formally, without context.' Nunan (1993b:6-7) is much more specific in the definition of the term 'text' as:

'any record of a 'communicative event'. The event itself may involve oral language or written language (…), with an analysis of the structural properties of language, divorced from their communicative functions (…) identifying regularities and patterns in language. A text or piece of discourse consists of more than one sentence and the sentences combine to

form a meaningful whole. The notion that a text should form a 'meaningful whole –that is, convey a complete message- is commonsensical.' (Nunan, 1993b:6-7)

Limiting the scope of 'text' to formal, structural, and syntactic properties of a 'communicative event', without going outside it, is drawing a clear cut distinction between text linguistics and discourse analysis.

3.2. <u>Discourse</u>:

The limits imposed on 'text' seem obvious enough to leave no doubt that the subject is confined to text cohesion. Limiting the scope of the term 'discourse' remains wide enough to be interpreted and expressed in various ways. The most comprehensive but also redundant explanation is provided by Brown and Yule (1983) as:

'Any analytical approach in linguistics which involves contextual considerations necessarily belongs to that area of language study called 'pragmatics.' "Doing discourse analysis" certainly involves doing "syntax and semantics", but it primarily consists of "doing pragmatics" (…). In discourse analysis, as in pragmatics, we are concerned with what people using language are doing, and accounting for the linguistic features in the discourse as the means employed in what they are doing (…). The discourse analyst treats his data as the record (text) of a dynamic process in which language was used as an instrument of communication in a context by a speaker or writer to express meanings and achieve intentions (discourse). Working from this data, the analyst seeks to describe regularities in the linguistic realisations used by people to communicate those meanings and intentions.' (Brown and Yule, 1983:26)

The pragmatic analysis of language in context, then, accounts for what people are doing with language and the consequent use of language item as means to do what they are

supposed to do. Language is hence the instrument of achieving their purposes according to some contextual features. In a much simpler definition of the term, Cook (1989: 156) says that 'discourse' represents 'stretches of language perceived to be meaningful, unified, and purposive', and Crystal (1992: 25) adds that it is 'a continuous stretch of language larger than a sentence, often constituting a coherent unit, such as a sermon, argument, joke or narrative.' These brief definitions share the fact that language as discourse is considered as meaningful unit which has a purpose but do not explain what makes it meaningful or purposive.

Perhaps, the most explanatory definition can be found in Nunan's (1993b) terms because he identifies discourse as a communicative event, a text, which is interpreted according to context;

'I shall reserve the term "discourse" to refer to the interpretation of the communicative event in context (…). Discourse analysis involves the study of language in use (…), the ultimate aim of this analytical work is both to show and to interpret the relationship between (…) regularities and the meanings and purposes expressed through discourse.'(Nunan, 1993b:6-7)

Here, Nunan (ibid) shares with Brown and Yule (opcit) the idea that discourse can only be interpreted in context, drawing a close relationship between the 'regularities', 'linguistic features', their meaning, and the purposes for which they are used. Consequently, we can say that any stretch of language can not be considered as discourse unless it is meaningful and that its meaning is only determined by the context in which it is used. The influential elements of context have to be specified as well.

3.3 <u>Context</u>:

All the participants in the use of language and all the elements required for its exchange in any given situation can be considered as elements of context. Brown and Yule (1983) summarize these elements inn the following quote:

'Some of the most obvious linguistic elements which require contextual information for their interpretation are the deictic forms such as *here, now, I, you, this* and *that*. In order to interpret these elements in a piece of discourse, it is necessary to know (at least) who the speaker and hearer are, and the time and place of the production of the discourse.' (Brown and Yule, 1983:27)

It is clear that Brown and Yule (ibid) give a major concern to the analysis of oral interaction and, in addition to the elements mentioned here – interlocutors, place, time, and reference-, They (1983:27-35) add in their explanation that the main components of a context are reference, presupposition, implicature, and inference.

-Reference represents the relationship that the speaker/writer makes between language and the world including semantic reference of words, reference to individuals and things;

-presupposition represents the assumptions the speaker makes about what the hearer is likely to accept without challenge;

-Implicature represents, and according to Grice (1975, opcit: 45), what the speaker implies, suggests or means according to a 'cooperative principle' which determines the four maxims of conversation.

-Inference represents what the discourse analyst, or hearer/reader, would infer from what he hears/reads. Inference which is a deduction of implied meaning in context requires socio-cultural knowledge.

In much more academically elaborate terms, Schiffrin (1987:4-5) adds to the elements mentioned by Brown and Yule the fact that cognitive contexts relative to memory and recall are also important in determining the features of language situations and actions. She assumes that:

'language always occurs in some kind of context, including cognitive contexts in which past experience and knowledge is stored and drawn upon, cultural contexts consisting of shared meanings and world views, and social contexts through which both self and others draw upon institutional and interactional orders to construct definitions of situations and actions.' -Schiffrin (1987:4-5)

In an explanation of the relationship between discourse and context, Schiffrin (1987:5) adds a distinctive element of reciprocity. Thus, on one hand language used in a particular situation is reflects the elements of context and on the other hand it is language itself which constitutes these elements. She says:

(…) language is potentially sensitive to all of the contexts in which it occurs, and, even more strongly, that language 'reflects' those contexts because it helps to constitute them.' - Schiffrin (1987: 5)

Further, Schiffrin (1987:3-6) takes four assumptions to be central to current discourse analysis which concern context and communication. They are:

'-language always occurs in context;

-language is context sensitive;

-language is always communicative;

-language is designed for communication.'

She explains that context includes cognitive (background-shared) knowledge, cultural meanings and world views, and social interaction, and that language is very sensitive to them

because it reflects and helps to constitute them. She reviews various theories of communication and assumes that communication occurs when a sender gives, or gives - off information (gives = interpersonal / ideational; gives-off = transactional). Language is socially used to manage, establish, social relations, interactions, and also convey information.

Nunan (1993b) makes a link between Brown and Yule's (1983) and Schiffrin's (1987) views about the elements of context in the following:

'Context refers to the situation giving rise to the discourse, and within which the discourse is embedded. There are two types of context. The first of these is the linguistic context –the language that surrounds or accompanies the piece of discourse under analysis. The second is the non-linguistic or experiential context within which the discourse takes place. Non-linguistic contexts include: the type of communicative event (for example, joke, story, lecture, greeting, conversation); the topic; the purpose of the event; the setting, including location, time of day, season of year and physical aspects of the situation (for example, size of room, arrangement of furniture); the participants and the relationships between them; and the 'background knowledge' and assumptions underlying the communicative event.' Nunan (1993b:7-8)

A comparison and a summary of these views, about the three terms 'text', 'discourse' and 'context', are necessary because all three are comprehensively included in discourse analysis. Nunan (1993b:118) says that discourse analysis is 'a communicative event involving language in context', because a communicative event is (ibid.117) 'a piece of oral or written interaction, which contains a complete message.' For him, discourse analysis is (ibid.118): 'the functional analysis of discourse. Discourse analysis is sometimes contrasted with text analysis which focuses on the formal properties of language. Thus, for Nunan (1993b)

discourse analysis is the functional analysis of a piece of oral or written language which contains a complete message and should not be confused with text analysis which focuses on formal properties of language (oral or written) such as cohesion. Form, according to Nunan, is either not included in discourse analysis, or secondary, non-essential, exponent of discourse analysis.

Consequently, and from the two above-mentioned views (Nunan-1993b and Schiffrin-1987), discourse analysis is concerned with the analysis of language in context. For Nunan, form or text analysis should not be confused with discourse analysis while for Schiffrin communication theory and information theory are crucial elements for discourse analysis.

I consider, Nunan would add them to genre analysis, while Schiffrin goes on to distinguish the properties of discourse analysis to be : structure -formed-, meaning -conveyed-, and action -accomplished- (Schiffrin .1987:07-12) and defines discourse as means of action (ibid:10). She bases this distinction and definition on four sources of insight:

-1-functional analysis; referential functions (information) and social functions which influence structure;

-2-speech act theory; how one can say and mean one thing and do quite another, and the procedures by which hearers interpret the actions that are performed by speakers' words;

-3-conversation analysis; locally negotiated settings, turn-taking, etc...

-4-the ethnography of communication; influence of culturally dependent maxims which differ from one culture to another.

It is of particular importance to mention, here, that these four insights will be used by various authors to discuss the concept of genre, as we shall see below.

4. <u>Elements of Discourse:</u>

As we considered the importance of context elements in the field of discourse analysis, we need here to consider the elements of discourse itself. The two major concerns of linguists have always been relative to cohesion and coherence of language.

4.1 <u>Cohesion elements:</u>

Cohesion is primarily concerned with the relationships that link the language elements together to make a text. This is a field which used to be limited to text-linguistics but, as we have seen above –section 3.1, this has become part of discourse analysis. Cohesive links of texts, stretches of language that are longer than a sentence, include regularities, patterns, formal structures and syntactic properties. The most significant work in the field of determining types of cohesive links and regularities was Halliday and Hassan (1976) initial characteristic feature of 'texture':

'A text has texture and this is what distinguishes it from something that is not a text (…). The texture is provided by the cohesive "relation" (…). Cohesive relationships within a text are set up where the interpretation of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another. The one presupposes the other in the sense that it cannot be effectively decoded except by recourse to it.' (Halliday and Hassan, 1976: 2-4)

'Texture', then, is the linking, binding, of text together so that interrelationships of meaning interpretation can be drawn from the text itself. According to Halliday and Hassan (1976. passim), 'anaphoric' and 'cataphoric' reference are explicit formal markers which relate what was said to what is to be said. They include additive, adversative, causal, and temporal conjunctions. 'Endophoric' and 'exophoric'relations refer to the interpretation of meaning inside the text and outside it. Brown and Yule (1983:192) name these forms 'co-

reference' relations. 'Substitution' and 'ellipsis' as well as 'lexical relations' play a major role in the establishing cohesive relationships in text. Further meaning interpretation beyond sentence level is related to 'information structure'. Brown and Yule (1983: 169-188) and Nunan (1993b: 32-58) stress the importance of identifiable structural, cohesive, linguistic devices which distinguish coherent discourse from random sentences or utterances. They also add that kinds of discourse can be distinguished according to their recurrent patterns. The position of information in a text indicates whether it is given or new. The organisation of information in sentences and text indicates emphasis and focus on particular points by the speaker/writer and determine his/her purpose. The latter element is not sufficiently interpreted unless the hearer/writer brings in his/her contribution. At this level of interpreting meaning, we would be considering coherence of discourse.

As far as lexical items and relations are concerned, Sinclair (2004: 147-148) considers that 'the word is not the best starting point for a description of meaning , because meaning arises from words in particular combinations'. On the other hand, Sinclair (ibid: 169) adds that:

'(…) neither in the study of the lexis of the language nor in the study of the grammar of the language are the syntagmatic relations of the language given meaning. This is to a great extent because there is no framework within which they can be shown to have meaning, because meaning is largely held to reside either in the grammatical choice – on the paradigmatic axis- or in the lexical choice of a word to deliver a meaning.' (Sinclair, 2004:169)

Hence, whatever the semantic meaning of a word or the conceptualised knowledge of a given syntactic structure, its meaning is determined either by the choice a speaker/writer

makes to imply a purposive meaning or by the choice a hearer/reader makes to interpret meaning. These choices are not part of language/text but contextual factors of coherence and procedural processes of meaning negotiation between a producer and a receiver of language.

4.2 Coherence and Discourse Processing:

The interpretation of meaning in context, as explained in section 3.3 above, leads us to consider here why and how context elements can be effective. Making sense of discourse requires some procedures of interpreting meaning; some of them are linguistic, cultural, topic oriented features of knowledge while others are cognitive. The attempt to interpret meaning of a text by going outside it requires a number of criteria which associate both producer and receiver of a piece of discourse in a given situation. What the speaker/writer says as a propositional meaning and what he/she intends has been widely discussed in the theory of speech acts. These were determined in works of Austin (1962), Searle (1969), and Coulthard (1977), to cite but a few, which had more focus on speech utterances in various contexts and the impact/effect and reaction these utterances had on the hearer. According to Celce-Murci and Olshtain (2000:25), 'speech acts can be classified according to how they affect the social interaction between speakers and hearers. The most basic categorization consists of five different types of speech acts: declaratives, representatives, expressives, directives, and commissives.' This categorization would not be so representative of all types of discourse if this latter is extended to all types of texts.

Shared background knowledge, of the world or any specific topic, would determine to a great extent the degree of discourse coherence for both speaker/writer and hearer/reader.

Minimum shared background knowledge is always required in any kind of conversation, communication, or transfer of information. It represents the foundations of any further developments in the line of thought and meaning negotiation between any partners.

Top-down and bottom-up processing models are widely mentioned as basic discourse processing procedures. Brown and Yule (1983:234-236), Nunan (1993b:78-84), and Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000:8) consider them as key components of discourse coherence. Brown and Yule (ibid: 234) consider bottom-up and top-down as activities of processing incoming discourse. In bottom-up activities, 'we work out the meaning of words and structures of a sentence and build up a composite meaning for the sentence. At the same time', in top-down activities, 'we are predicting, on the basis of the context plus the composite meaning of the sentences already processed, what the next sentence is most likely to mean.' Brown and Yule (1983:235) add that if it seems quite clear that bottom up processing relies on knowledge of grammaticality and correctness this does not deprive us from predicting the expected meaning , by top-down processes, even if the text is incorrect somewhere. This anticipation of intended meaning at the level of cohesion is evidence that language users adopt both models of processing simultaneously. However, for Brown and Yule (ibid), top-down processing does not only rely on cohesion but on context, past experience, and background knowledge.

In almost similar details Nunan (1993b: 78-84) explains the nature of both processes. He describes bottom-up as a process in which 'the smallest units of language are identified, and these are 'chained together' to form the next highest unit; these units in turn are then chained together to form the text highest unit and so on.' The top-down model of

processing discourse, still according to Nunan (1993b:81-82), 'operates in the opposite direction from bottom-up (…) by moving from the highest units of analysis to the lowest. In this process the hearer/reader makes use of background knowledge, knowledge of language, expectations of how language works, and motivation and attitudes towards the text and context.

In very general and concluding terms, Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (opcit: 8) explain that bottom-up connections in text express cohesion while top-down represent effective discourse planning and organisation. Would this distinction suffice to explain how discourse is processed in such a dichotomy of models? The ability to anticipate, predict, expect, which language items come next through meaning development in a piece of discourse raises the question whether language users do or do not use both models (top-down and bottom-up) simultaneously. Predicting expected meaning, according to Brown and Yule (opcit) -in the previous §- relies on both knowledge of grammaticality, correctness, and knowledge of the world and past experience. This ability of using more than one model simultaneously is called 'intercative processing' (Nunan, 1993: 83).

This interactive model is closely similar to what many scholars considered, since the work of Bartlett (1932), as schematic procedures of meaning negotiation. We explained in Chapter one –section 4.2-, according to a number of scholars, how schemas serve as a framework of background knowledge which is brought into information processing and meaning negotiation. Matlin (2003) and Slavin (2003) specifically consider top-down and bottom-up models of processing as part of schematic frames of reference for meaning stored in long time memory , and organisation of retrieval, rehearsal, storage and recall.

Foreign language learners do not only need to express their needs, but also need to understand the discourse they are exposed to in communicative contexts. Discourse comprehension is a process of the mind which requires an analysis of information structure (information processing) and an analysis of language structure most specific to the author's intention and communicative context. Research findings of Widdowson (1983), Trimble (1985), Schiffrin (1987), McCarthy (1991), and Nunan (1993b) provide a thorough study of discourse organisation and functional types which help language teachers determine what their learners really need to understand. Discourse processing involves adjusting background knowledge to new information. In Widdowson's terms, this represents schematic processing of knowledge and information while using language. Basing his analysis and description of discourse processing on schema theory, Widdowson (1983:34-41) determines schematic knowledge as:

'(…)cognitive constructs which allow for the organisation of information in long-tem memory and which provide a basis for prediction. They are stereotypic images which we map on to actuality in order to make sense of it, and to provide it with a coherent pattern.' (Widdowson.opcit:34-35)

Schematic knowledge, knowledge of new information and knowledge of language, needs procedures of meaning negotiation which role is:

'(…) to match up and adjust schemata in the discourse processing: they are the interactive negotiating activities which interpret the directions provided and enable us to alter our expectations in the light of new evidence as the discourse proceeds. And it is this procedural ability which realizes schematic knowledge.' (Widdowson.opcit:40-41)

If we consider that each stage of schematic knowledge is an established background knowledge which helps us predict new information, the interactive negotiating procedures

help us digest new information and establish new schematic knowledge. This is better explained by Oller,Jr (1995) in terms of three types of schemata which undertake the stages of meaning negotiation. Oller,Jr (ibid: 285-288) uses 'content', 'formal', and 'abstract' schemata to explain discourse comprehension as a process based primarily on 'formal schemata' at the perception stage.

Content schemata represent *abductive* judgement 'about particular facts and states of affairs', and the perception of the material world and the relationships obtained in a particular context or experience. Formal schemata are the result of *inductive* reasoning of establishing relations between distinct facts and experiences as being similar in some respects. The highest levels of schematic processing are *abstract* schemata which 'carry the inductive integration to the completely general level of pure symbols.' Abstract schemata concern everything that is contained within the meaning or definition of a symbol, including propositions, arguments and discourse. Thus, in Oller,Jr terms, the three levels of discourse processing (abduction, induction and deduction) are hierarchically organised in a process of perception (recognition and identification), understanding by distinction, and formal generalisation.

An earlier, but similar, study of discourse processing was a model of text comprehension 'microstructures' and 'macrostructures' suggested by Kintsch and Van Dijk (1978: 372-374). In this model, schemas play a major role of identifiers and controllers of propositional meaning as a 'microstructure'. The 'microstructures' are, then, determined by the control schemas as forming the gist of the text. 'Macrostructures' are then formed by operational

schemas in several cycles of relevance, applying restrictive criteria of importance, until higher generalisations and abstractions are obtained.

5. <u>Genre analysis</u>:

   Perhaps, the most thorough description of the concept of genre is the one provided by Swales (1990: 34-58) who gives an overview of the different meanings the term has in the fields of folklore, linguistics, rhetorical studies, and literature.

We ca sum up this overview in the following table:

genre in	**its meaning**
folklore studies	metaphysics and religion
linguistics	register
rhetorical studies	functions
literature	art

Table 6: Conceptual contexts and meanings of 'genre'

   Then, relying on many other previous attempts to the definition of this term, Swales provides his (p: 58):

   'A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognised by the expert members of the discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style. Communicative purpose is both a privileged criterion and one that operates to keep the scope of a genre as here conceived narrowly focused on comparable rhetorical action. In addition to purpose, exemplars of a genre exhibit   various patterns of similarity in terms of structure, style, content and intended audience. If all high probability expectations are realised, the exemplar will be viewed as prototypical by the parent discourse community.   The genre names inherited and produced by the discourse

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communities and imported by others constitute valuable ethnographic communication, but typically need further validation.' (Swales.1990:58)

Swales comes to this long, complex, definition by examining five major characteristics that he includes in his definition (pp: 45-58):

1- A genre is a class of communicative events: it includes the discourse itself, the participants, the role of discourse and environment of its production and reception, its historical and cultural association.

2-Some shared set of communicative purposes: some purposes are easily determined (cooking recipe, newspaper article, news broadcasts, etc...) while others are difficult to establish (academic writings, etc…). This purpose should not be based on formal and stylistic features of the discourse, but on the needs of its production and reception.

3-Exemplars or instances of genre vary in their prototypicality: there are two basic ideas or principles in the identification of the genre type;

-a- "definitional idea": a small set of simple properties, necessary and sufficient enough to identify all the members and only the members of a particular category from everything else in the world, for example, dictionaries, glossaries, and specialised technologies. This sometimes turns to be true in case of some categories of animals, birds, etc..., and sometimes impossible in complex matters like lectures, staff meetings, research papers, etc... Interrelationship of properties is the best way to solve this problem by considering the network of similarities and overlappings.

-b- "family membership idea": kinship relations of category members (furniture: chair, apple: fruit, etc...).

There are other properties such as form, structure and audience expectations which operate to identify the extent to which an exemplar is prototypical of a particular genre

4-The rationale behind a genre establishes constraints on allowable contributions in terms of their content, positioning and form: here, the recognition of purposes provides the rationale which gives rise to constraining conventions, schematic structures, lexical and syntactic choice.

5-A discourse community's nomenclature for genres is an important source of insight: active members of a discourse community give genre names to classes of communicative events - specific to them- which may be adopted/ adapted by overlapping/peripheral or common discourse community. Names given to genre change their meaning through time and may be inherited from previous generations. Some genres do not obligatorily have names.

We can, then, summarize Swales' explanation of a genre as communicative events which have some shared set of communicative purposes that determine the genre type or category, all of which constitute a number of constraints influencing the schematic structure of content, style, and form, accepted by, and admitted to, a discourse community. This characterisation is open to many interpretations one of which is that a given genre can change its type or category whenever there is a change in one of its characteristics. This point of view is adopted by other scholars (Nunan 1993b and Dudley-Evans.1994) whenever there is a bias of importance of one of the characteristics in disfavour of others.   Nunan (1993b), for example, focuses on the importance of language functions to determine the genre type:

"(...) the term has been adopted by functional linguists to refer to different types of communicative events (...). They argue that language exists to fulfil certain   functions

and that these functions will determine the overall shape or generic structure of the discourse. This structure emerges as people communicate with one another -that is, it will have certain predictable stages(...).Different types of communicative events result in different types of discourse , and each of these will have its own distinctive characteristics (...); each discourse type will share certain characteristics which will set it apart from other discourse types." (Nunan 1993b:48-49)

Dudley-Evans (1994), on the other hand, focuses on the importance of rhetorical needs to determine the needs of a communicative purpose rather than the type of genre:

'(...) a genre is a means of achieving a communicative goal that has evolved in response to particular rhetorical needs and that a genre will change and evolve in response to changes in those needs. The emphasis is thus on the means by which a text realises its communicative purpose rather than on establishing a system for the classification of genre.' (Dudley-Evans.1994:219).

He further adds (p: 220) that much of genre analysis studies focused 'on the analysis of the various moves that writers use to write a text or develop their argument.' in fact this should not be limited to a study of 'moves' but to usage, lexical frequency, etc...

We can say first, that genre analysis provides a comprehensive framework for discourse analysis as it focuses on all the heterogeneous factors affecting the discourse type , means and communicative achievement, but it can be sometimes misleading if one of the factors is carried out to an extreme point, and too perfectionist if all the factors are applied thoroughly as to establish a perfect entity of each discourse type, ending up with an inventory of distinct discourse types , too difficult to be grouped under a given category of genre.

Both works of Schiffrin (1987) and Trimble (1985) make of discourse analysis a heterogeneous, pluri-disciplinary, subject. Schiffrin provides a general framework and scope of discourse analysis based on language analysis in context, for communication, taking into account its form, meaning and action, with an illustration of the structure of the narrative and the argument that can be applied to many subject areas (EAP, ESP, EST, etc...). Trimble gives a bias to the study of discourse by analysing the one used in EST and EAP, providing us with different natural, logical and rhetorical functions the academic and scientific community uses. Though neither Trimble nor Schiffrin claimed to be dealing with genre, they were applying this concept to their studies.

Both Trimble's (1985) and Schiffrin's (1987) works, without overt 'genre' claims, are examples of 'genre' studies of discourse with a focus on functions and writer's/speaker's moves –as we shall see below. We can also add that genre analysis, as defined and explained by Swales through the five major characteristics, establishes a perfect entity and identity of each discourse (spoken or written) as to determine its authentic production and reception. This authentic discourse identity, when compared to other qualities of other discourse types, provides the language teacher/learner with the various aspects, of an authentic language teaching/learning material, which will serve as key components of materials selection and implementation.

An example of such consecutive measures in pedagogy is the work of Bhatia (2002: 32-33) who sums up a 'generic view of academic discourse' in the following features:
-*Discourse content*: represents the established disciplinary knowledge which is contested by new knowledge expressed in a 'generic type';

-Participant relationship: the writer is the knowledgeable teacher and the student is an uninitiated reader;

-Discourse characteristics: appropriate rhetorical devices that make knowledge accessible to the reader like, *description, definition, classification, and prediction*; and

-Discourse strategies: often appear as access routes and classification procedures and rhetorical questions as section headings to guide the reader.

Bhatia (2002: 37) advocates the necessity of making learners in various academic fields aware of these features. This claim is supported by the social-economic requirements of job and academic fulfilment imposed on graduates; every bachelor in science or arts is nowadays required to have a number of abilities –not only one- which help him/her to apply for a job and take it, or pursue further academic achievements.

5.1. <u>Wide context genre studies</u>:

Story-telling and newspaper English can be considered as typical genres. If we consider the principles of a genre as determined by Swales (1991) –see previous chapter, stories and folk literature stand as a genre type on their own right. Schiffrin (1987) provides a careful genre analysis of story-telling and the outcome of her study determined the structure of the narrative and the argument (Schiffrin, 1987: 17). She distinguishes four discourse moves which figure prominently in conversational story-telling and considers them as permanent moves story-tellers use in their stories.

-initiating the story;

-reporting events within the story;

-conveying the point of the story;

-accomplishing an action through the story.

She distinguishes also two modes of argumentative discourse; monologic and dialogic.

'An argument is a discourse through which speakers support disputable positions (...): the textual relations between, and the arrangement of, position and support is monologic, and the interactional dispute (challenge, defence, rebuttal, and so on) is dialogic.' (Schiffrin, 1987: 18)

She defines the moves of the argument (ibid.18-19) in the following steps;

'-the position: a key part of a position is an idea (descriptive information about situations, states, events and actions (...) and speaker commitment to that idea (assertion, claim to the truth, moral values, competence and character) ;

-the dispute: opposition to any one part of a position, to propositional content. They are sometimes indirect and obscure because they may rely on reference to background knowledge - not explicitly presented in a text.

-the support : supporting a position through explanation of an idea, justification of a commitment - can be labelled as different speech acts - where the speaker induces the hearer to draw a conclusion about the credibility of a position.'

Out of this study, Schiffrin (ibid) concludes that discourse structures can be exchange structures, action structures and ideational structures which come into the organisation of discourse in dialogue and monologue without making reference to a particular type of discourse.

Newspapers reports and research articles are both wide and limited contexts of communication which do have specific genre moves and rhetorical markers. Land (1983) and Bowles (1995) underline the importance of newspaper articles as authentic materials to be used in teaching English as a foreign language. They point out the generic specificity of newspaper discourse organisation and discourse markers that the English mass media adopt

as a model of communication in reporting past events. Narrating various past events is not only a matter of chronological order but of information structure, discourse functions and rhetorical devices. The generic peculiarity of Newspaper English, as Land (1983) point out below, can be a specific language problem for the foreign language learner:

'(…) the student who has passed his exams with top marks (…) finds that he is quite unable to understand the newspapers which he knows English people read everyday. He realises that he lacks something. The deficiency is not entirely his fault. The difficulty lies in the fact that British newspapers have a style all of their own; or –rather- each paper has its own individual style forming part of a general journalistic pattern which we may loosely classify as "Newspaper English".' (Land 1983: 2)

This specific foreign reader's problem is due to the typical genre organisation which seems to be so clearly established as a mode of communication between the English Press and the English speaking community. Land (ibid) describes how native English readers interact with the newspaper English and how difficult would it be for the foreign learner who is not familiar with that genre because he is not a member of the English broadcasting nomenclature.

'The English reader scans the headlines to find out what the news stories are about; the foreign student has to read the stories to find out what the headlines mean. The popular press, in order to print as much information in as small a space as possible, has developed a content-packed sentence, very often crammed with compound words of a highly complicated nature, that needs to be treated warily at first.(…) Such writing has to be digested very slowly. If the student of English attempts to absorb a lot of this sort of thing at speed, he will find himself suffering from acute mental indigestion – and will understand very little of what he has read.' (Land, 1983: 2-3)

These semantic, heavily loaded headlines, content-packed sentence, and compound words are prominent in Land's samples of reports on current events, incidents, accidents and

disasters. But these characteristics of newspaper reports are also found in other studies. Bowles (1995) analyses newspaper law reports from a sample of articles published by *The Times* and *The Independent* and compares them to original –All England law reports. He determined –in the table below- that although both types use almost the same categories of information, their discourse structures are different.

All England law reports	Newspaper law report
-heading (x Vs y)	-headline
-description of court	-description of court
1.Keywords	1.Summary (of the case)
2.Description (of the facts)	2.Decision (of court) + (description of
-list of cases cited	the facts)
-opinions of concurring judges	
3.Judgement (argument of judge and	3.Judgement (argument of judge and principles
principles of law)	of law) + (Description of the facts)
-opinions of concurring judges	

Table 7: Discourse structures –AE Reports Vs Newspaper Law Reports

(Table 3 in Bowles, 1995:205)

We can say here that newspaper law reports share the following characteristics;

-all the newspaper reports use headlines

-the reporters place a summary at the start of the report inviting the reader to decide whether he or she is interested enough to continue reading; it serves as an abstract.

-the discourse structure of the reports is conventional: they start with a description (of the facts), get to the decision (of the judgement) and end with the argument (explain how the judge's argument evolved to produce a decision.

Bowles (1995:205-206) argues that this discourse structure is specific to newspaper English and does not coincide with original All England law reports. The discourse bias towards a given audience shapes its structure. In the case of All England law reports the discourse is produced for a limited audience of specialist in law who do not need a summary of the case or an additional description of facts after the judgement. However, a wide audience of

readers need to be interested in reading first (a summary), understand the facts of the case and their relationship with the judge's decision and finally consent to the judgement and convinced by reminders of some facts. In newspaper law reports there are no opinions of concurrent judges or comparisons with other cases; hence there is less focus on principles of law. The wide audience discourse structure and the ways in which reporters choose to adopt the source text will consequently affect the 'lexico-grammatical features.' Bowles (ibid: 213-214) underlines the frequency of connectors, reporting clauses, tense markers, and definite and indefinite expressions' which are not prominent in the original reports of law.

We can add, here, that the frequency of these cohesive ties in the newspaper reports reinforces 'argument structure' of a narrative which suits better a wide public audience. It is also worth mentioning, that the information structure of newspaper law reports is parallel to Schiffrin's models of moves in story-telling (above); headlines and summary/initiating the story; description of facts and decision of the judge/reporting events within the story; argument of the judge to produce a decision/conveying the point and accomplishing an action through he story. We will see below, through other genre studies, that arguing and the structure of argumentation, explicitly or implicitly, influences the development of discourse in limited and/or combined scientific and academic fields.

5.2.   **Limited Topic genre studies**:

A given academic field might be given a certain importance by scholars in order to determine its most frequent language functions, writers' moves and rhetorical devices. Examples of these fields can be found in business and economics, sociology, history, etc…

Very early attempts to analyse specific academic discourse areas were made in business and academic writings. Mead and Lilley (1975) analysed the language of economics, taught to Libyan students, and found out important discourse and text features:

'Here, the necessary communicative acts include explanation, description, definition, deduction, prediction, and generalisation. In economics, cause and effect relationships abound, especially in discussion of assumptions, predictions, and economic forecasting. Consequently, the conditional is a particular frequent form. (…)Comparatives and superlatives are also very frequently used in the language of predictions. Connectives such as although, whenever, therefore, however, consequently, as soon as, are needed for advanced ideas of any subject.' (Mead and Lilley, 1975: 152-153)

This comprehensive view of discourse in economics has the peculiarity of distinguishing, first, the most frequent communicative functions and, then, determines the consequent rhetorical, cohesive, devices used by the writers. A similar view point in analysing business and economics (finance, accounting, management, business law, and economic theory) discourse is expressed by Johns (1980):

'Rhetorical modes most characteristic of these texts are definitions, physical description or discussion of charts or graphs exophoric to the text, cause and effect, comparison and contrast and process description.
The largest item category is *lexical*: 79% of items fall into this category. *Same item* represent 40% of this total (…), *synonyms* is 15% (…), *superordinate* is 12%, (…), and *collocation* 32%. The next largest category is *reference*, representing 11% of all items.' (Johns, 1980: 39-40)

Though Johns' analysis is mainly concerned with cohesion, it identifies almost similar discourse functions and adds up more precise lexical items and cohesive markers. Assembling results from both studies mentioned above (Mead and Lilley, 1975, and Johns, 1980), gives us the following two sets of functions and lexical, syntactic items:

-rhetorical functions: definition, description, explanation, deduction, discussion (of graph and tables), cause and effect, comparison and contrast, and prediction;

-Lexical and syntactic items: lexical items of the topic, synonyms, reference, the conditional, comparatives, superlatives, and other connectives.

Lachenmayer (1971: 9-29) makes a distinction between scientific and conventional language and explains that scientific language systems demand greater explicit control of language usage than conventional language systems. This explicit control of the language system is characterised by a degree of precision in words and sentences and reflects an agreement among the scientific community to use the language system appropriately. This agreement among the nomenclature of science is determined by three discourse parameters; semantic, grammatical and contextual agreement. Semantic agreement refers to the users' judgement of a term to designate the empirical reality it is supposed to designate. Grammatical agreement refers to the users' evaluation that a given linguistic statement is grammatically correct. Contextual agreement refers to the users' agreement on how object predicates of a term are affected by the object predicates of another term. This latter represents agreement on semantic interrelationships within scientific writings.

Lachenmayer (1971: 28-29) considers that these characteristic features are very prominent in scientific language which employs 'definitions' and 'systematization' in order to maintain a high level of precision:

'Scientific language employs two basic devices to maintain high levels of precision of usage: definition and systematization. The latter refers to an appeal to the requirements of logic, as well as to the parsimony, organizational elegance, and simplicity enforced by scientific systems. In a sense, these control devices function as metalanguage governing scientific language systems. No such metalanguage exists for conventional language.'

Lachenmayer's (1971) contribution is a pioneer attempt to draw a distinction between scientific discourse and conventional and/or academic language use. While examining the language of Sociology, using the three major features of precision in scientific discourse (semantic, grammatical, and contextual agreement) and applying them to definitions and systematizations), Lachenmayer (1971: 31-59) classifies it as 'conventional' because it is always affected by 'vagueness, ambiguity, opacity, and contradiction'.

Love (2002: 85-89) confirms, to some extent, lachenmayer's view point when she considers that in Sociology 'claims are countered by an adversative move, and concessions to possible plausibility are heavily modalised'. She argues that there is always a 'negotiated nature of objectivity in sociology', because some writers –according to her sample, have a tendency to 'present theories in their historical contexts, critiquing them in terms of their evidence and argument, extracting the useful elements from them, and engaging students in the argumentative process by which they have reached their own position.

However, Brett (1994: 48-51) analyses academic research articles in sociology and determines that their components are generally four: introduction, research method and data, results, and discussion). The most commonly used discourse function in the 'introduction' of these articles was namely reviewing previous knowledge. In the 'method' section, writers use a description of data collection, explanation of how concepts and variables are made operational, and procedural warranty of statistical techniques. In the 'results' section there is a frequent use of tables, graphs and figures which represent the people and human behaviour which are reconstituted in a text. At this stage of the articles, writers often make new

knowledge claims. The 'discussion' section is very short, in comparison to the first three ones, and contains mainly a brief summary and implications for future research.

Brett (ibid: 50-51) notes that, in the 'results' section, claims of new knowledge are made but 'new knowledge within sociology is not as easily or objectively substantiated as the "hard" sciences because the scholars in sociology are much more concerned with "covariance of patterns" rather than "physical outcomes". Hence, scholars in sociology adopt a number of communicative categories in research articles that Brett classifies in three categories drawn from the 'results' section:

-metatextual categories where scholars indicate which data are to be discussed and which structure of information is to follow in the text (e.g., we begin by…We then …., Last we...);
-Presentation categories include explanation of the procedural and causal features of data, a restating of the hypothesis, and a statement of findings. This latter requires three subcategories: comparison, time-related change, and relationship between variables. A last category being that of substantiation or non-validation of findings
-Comment categories include explanation of findings by arguing and a comparison of those findings with sociology 'literature' as being the same, neither the same nor different, or completely different. A penultimate category is that of 'evaluation' with regard to the hypotheses as either being the same or different. The last category includes further questions raised by, and implication of the findings, together with a summary. (Brett, 1994:52-53)

These categories and subcategories represent a number of moves which correspond to authors' choice of information structure and discourse organisation. If we consider, altogether, the components of the research articles and their 'results' section organisation, we can say that authors first appeal to the academic community by reviewing background shared knowledge, and then establish a metadiscourse of methodological procedure of presenting their data. Claims are then formulated and results are analysed, compared and

evaluated. Finally, comments are formulated through explanation, comparison, prediction and inquisitive anticipation.

For Stockton (1995: 47-73), narrating the subject of time seems to be a crucial element in History writings. Even if it is common sense to think that History is an academic field that narrates past events, Stockton (1995: 58) comes to the conclusion that all History writings 'narrate a story from different points of view':

'(…) the naïve distinction between biased and unbiased points of view has disintegrated into what has increasingly come to be seen as the lost (Platonic/early capitalist/Enlightenment) dream of objectivity. There are no "objective" stories, and the work of theorists has been to show how different types of historical arguments are inherently lodged in different kinds of narrative (…). The historian's argument is his or her "interpretation" of the available "evidence", and "narration is the way in which a historical interpretation is achieved". History thus becomes a "discursive event"-the story.' (Stockton, 1995: 58)

Hence, according to Stockton (ibid: 64), the main language functions found in the academic field of History are narration and argument. Whatever the past event historians write about, the importance does not lie in whether the historian are telling the truth but in the fact that all of them consider the epistemological status of history as argument. This consequently makes of History writings slightly 'particularistic' –to use MacDonald's (1992) terms below- in comparison to other academic fields like psychology or business studies.

5.3. **Comparative/contrastive genre studies**:

Some scholars of discourse analysis prefer to consider altogether a limited number of academic fields in order to determine their similarities and differences with regards to

information structure as organised by the authors into discourse moves and establish an inventory of rhetorical devices based on frequency counts.

In the specific fields of academic, science and technology writings, Trimble (1985:53-54 and 70) provides a typology of functions most frequently used, with a focus on the development of the English for Science and Technology (EST) paragraph and the realisation of rhetorical functions, in EST and academic discourse.

He says that these rhetorical techniques reflect natural patterns related to the subject area;

-time order: chronology, process;

-space order: general, specific;

-causality and result, and logical patterns are, however, imposed by the writer and, in addition to causality and result, they include:

-order of importance;

-comparison and contrast;

-comparison: relates similarities;

-contrast: relates differences;

-analogy: compares things basically dissimilar;

-exemplification; and

-illustration; reference to a visual aid.

According to Trimble, writers of academic and scientific discourse generally choose the following rhetorical functions:

-description - physical, functional and process description;

-definition - formal, semi-formal, non-formal, and expanded definition ;

-classification - complete and partial classification;

-instruction - direct instructions, indirect instructions, and instructional information;

-visual-verbal relationships - text information , text placement , and placement of visuals.

Vande Kopple (1994: 534) analyses scientific discourse at the level of text to focus attention on the characteristics and functions of the grammatical subject. He states that these 'subjects are markedly long' because writers of scientific discourse are always under three kinds of pressure to be 'precise', 'concise', 'efficient and progressive' in constructing a set of claims that will remain true within a framework of knowledge'. Vande Kopple (1994:546-557) further explains why these three characteristic features influence the length of the grammatical subjects.

Precision represents an obsession of scientists to use long noun phrases which include 'clear and definite sense' to be shared by the scientific community framework of knowledge as a first reason. The second reason of precision and long grammatical subjects is the use of comparisons and attributes to the nouns which qualify control and experimental groups as entities. Consequently, the number of words used -to identify the various entities or processes and to indicate in what respects they are being compared- can be quite large. The third reason of precision is the nature of the claims made by scientists that what they write is 'to be taken as true and as remaining true.'

Being concise requires a certain economy in the use of words. However, Vande Kopple (1994: 549) underlines this contradiction in grammatical subjects of scientific discourse and considers that it is due to the fact that writers 'take material that could by itself provide the substance for an independent clause, condense that material, and then express the condensed material in the grammatical subject of a sentence.' This rhetorical choice reflects the writers'

decision that the 'added material is relatively older or less important than the material in the predicate'. We can simply comment that any type of material or knowledge is considered older or less important because it is classified as shared background knowledge among scientific writing communities; a 'given' type of information compacted in a grammatically overloaded noun phrase to which 'new' information is distinctively added in the predicate.

'Efficiency and progressiveness' in scientific discourse is justified by the lack of modality and tense. When scientists use long grammatical subjects they purposefully avoid describing the qualities of a material or a process in a predicate. Hence, they undoubtedly assure an effective and eternally true description of their subjects. Vande Kopple (1994: 554) places a great ethical responsibility on scientific writers who choose to use such a rhetorical device. Expressing scientific truth and assuring its efficiency and progress rely mainly on modes of discourse processing among the scientific community. Shared background knowledge about a given material and the process by which it is designed or experimented is usually expressed in the (modal and tense deprived) noun phrase. The scientific contribution, innovation, explanation or prediction is generally stated in the predicate.

Within the same scope of textual analysis of scientific and academic writing, Hyland (2002) makes a census of reporting verbs used by writers of scientific and academic papers in the fields of philosophy, sociology, applied linguistics, marketing, biology, electronic engineering, mechanical engineering, and physics. His statistical results revealed that writers in the humanities and social sciences use much more frequently reporting verbs than writers in exact sciences (Hyland, 2002: 125): philosophy (57.1%), sociology (43.6%), applied linguistics (33.4%), Marketing (32.7%), Biology (26.2%), electronic engineering (17.4%),

mechanical engineering (11.7%), and physics (6.6%). The most frequently used reporting verbs (suggest, argue, find, show, describe, propose, report) represent 27.3% in comparison to other verbs which are less frequently used (say, claim, point out, hold, think, note, analyse, explain, find, demonstrate, observe, use, publish, develop, expand, study). The point of interest in this study is not only the frequency counts of these reporting verbs but the role Hyland (2002) attributes to them in the development of academic writings. Hyland (2002: 118-123) distinguishes two types of functions performed by reporting verbs: the 'process functions' and the 'evaluative functions.'

The 'process functions' establish the acts of research, cognition, and discourse. In a 'research act', reporting verbs represent experimental activities or actions carried out in the real world; in a cognition act they represent the researcher's mental processes of beliefs, assumptions, views, etc…; in a discourse act they represent the linguistic activities on verbal expressions related to discussing, hypothesising, reporting and stating. However, the 'evaluative functions' establish supportive, tentative, critical, or neutral positions towards the reported claims. This role of reporting verbs shows to what extends the writer defends, criticises, and/or rejects a claim, a fact, a process, or some results and findings. Value judgement, agreement/disagreement, and evaluation seem to be, here, the main roles of the reporting verbs.

Hyland (2002:123-124) explains that although in all academic fields reporting verbs are essential in the development of academic discourse and perform almost the same roles, their higher frequency in the humanities and social sciences is due to the following reasons:
-the explicit role of reference to prior research and the high use of citations;

-there are less formalised and standardised codes of reporting research;

-there is an inclination to explicit recognition of the role of human agency in constructing knowledge; and

-there are more recursive patterns of investigation which involved more diverse and less predictable and abstract subjects than those found in the exact sciences.

Barton (1995:226-232) classifies argumentation as a metadiscourse function, which is not directly expressed through conditionals, but rather through contrastive and non-contrastive connectives used by writers in the academic fields to represent claims and counterclaims. Connectives are all types of cohesive markers which establish abstract relations between propositions in a text. Following the *conjunctive* and *transitional* aspect of these connectives -as named by Halliday and Hassan (1976) and *The Harbrace College Handbook*, Barton (1995: 220-221) lists their functions in discourse as establishing 'additive, causal, temporal, contrastive, purposive, and continuous' relations. Barton suggests, then, that contrastive and non-contrastive connectives function as interpersonal metadiscourse in the language of academic argumentation.

Barton's (1995) sample of analysis (50 academic "Point of View" essays in exact sciences, social sciences and the humanities) where characterised by 'a thesis' presented in the introduction, 'claims' in support of the thesis and 'counterclaims in opposition to potential detractions of the thesis' (ibid:223). Barton argues that even if 'contrastive' and non-contrastive' connectives are identified in the academic discourse as explicitly setting and denying opposition to the 'thesis', 'claims' and 'counter-claims' function as a metadiscourse among the academic nomenclature:

'Claims and counter-claims seem to exist on a continuum of directedness with respect to their support for the thesis. Claims provide direct assertions in support of the thesis of the essay, whereas counterclaims provide indirect assertion that still support the thesis of the essay but do so by responding to potential detractors or criticisms. (Barton, 1995: 225)

This problematic use of both 'claims' and counterclaims', in argumentative academic essays, does reinforce argumentation in a 'polite' way. Barton (1995:234-235) explains that the academic community have a tendency to preserve politeness and express solidarity when arguing; the first connective used in presenting the counterclaim indicates solidarity in a statement of shared background knowledge, the second statement follows with direct opposition signalled with a contrastive connective. Thus, the writer seems to anticipate the reader's positive response to knowledge presented contrastively. Here, Barton claims, 'both the structure -of claims and counterclaims, and language seem to serve complex interpersonal purposes of emphasis on academic argumentation (…) which is based on the shared responses of writers and readers as members of an academic discourse community that places considerable value on contrast as a basis for knowledge creation.'

The humanities is also an academic field where writers use discourse to convey their ideas to readers, and where language functions and structures can be specific. Kay (1991) analysed the structure of discourse in these academic fields –geography, history, economics and business studies through a sample of traditional textbooks (texts and extracts), newspaper articles, magazine articles (popular and specialist), academic papers (teacher written texts). Kay (1991:553-555) adopted the topic-type view which states that a writer writes about one topic in a genre type within an academic field. The topic represents the

schematic frame of information structure and discourse processing. However, Kay (1991:556-559) determined that this is not always the case. He found out that:

'(…) very few texts consisted of only one topic-type frame. This in fact occurred only in History, where eight texts conformed to a State/Situation frame, and in Economics, where one text possessed only a Concept/Principle frame. Texts mostly involved ordering, embedding, and interweaving of topic-types, showing that in order to read texts at this level, student must often process a variety of information structure within one text. The most frequently occurring frames were State/Situation and Concept/Principle- across all four subjects; Characteristics –mostly in Geography texts, but also found in the other three subjects; and Process – again mostly in geography, but also found in one Business Studies text. Other frames which appeared, but not across all four subjects, were Classification, System/Production, Structure, Social Structure, and Mechanisms. Hypothesis-Theory, Adaptation, and Force frames were not apparent in any of the eighty texts, nor were the Instruction frames.' (Kay, 1991: 557-558)

These, more or less, common writers' moves in using academic information structure are revealed in the surface structure of their texts. Kay (1991: 559-560) identified a set of text structure items that are frequently found in the humanities: antonyms, lexical sets, word families, collocation, and participants (human constituents, companies and institutions, countries) used predominantly as groups of nouns.

MacDonald (1992: 533-569) analyses academic discourse at the sentence level; she focuses the study on the subject nature and position in disciplinary knowledge of psychology, history, and literature. The relationship between agency and grammatical subject position in a sentence seem to be the most distinctive feature of academic discourse in her analysis. She explains that the humanities are more particularistic than the social sciences in the way they define problems. This difference should entail differences in the ways knowledge claims are made and in the relation of particular phenomena to conceptual

abstraction. She underlines the fact that such differences in the conceptual level affect differences in nouns either in the kinds of nouns or in the structure of their presentation to the reader. Thus, in the academic nomenclature, the definition of a problem or a conceptual knowledge framework requires a certain rhetorical style which expresses shared knowledge among the academic community. Mac Donald defines this problematic issue in the following quote:

'The issue of agency arises in relation to method and epistemology when academics address issues like whether to use "*I*" in scholarly articles. If academics want to conceal the constrcutedness of their accounts, we should not expect them to put themselves in the subject position; we should instead expect to find the data presented as self-explanatory. On the other hand, if academics are increasingly aware of the constructedness of their accounts, we should see signs of that awareness in the subject position.' (MacDonald, 1992: 538)

Thus, when academic writers want to avoid 'agency' -using personal pronouns, they put forward an amount of knowledge which they refer to by using a grammatical subject or a noun phrase. This is represented in a connection made between syntax and semantics -to use MacDonald's terms:

'The connection between syntax and semantics shows up best in the grammatical subject position of sentences. The grammatical subject is the syntactic element that creates a sense of agency. The subject slot is also the most important spot for determining what a writer is writing *about* and how questions about epistemology, construction, or agency enter into the writer's thinking.' (MacDonald, 1992:539)

Investigating writers' choices of grammatical subject position in the three academic subjects mentioned above -psychology, history and literature, lead MacDonald to classify them according to how writers negotiate the particular and the abstract and represent their 'epistemological manoeuvres'. She came out with a major distinction to be made between

these fields as far as particulars and abstractions are concerned. In Psychology, for example, writers do not use 'instances of names of individuals even though toddlers and parents were the phenomena under scrutiny'. History writings contain 'a few individuals but far more cases of classes or groups' while literary writings 'have the highest percentage of individual names occurring in the subject position.'(MacDonald, 1992: 542)

According to this study, she distinguishes two categories and seven classes of grammatical subjects which may vary from one academic field to another depending on the level of particularity or abstraction made by the author.

'The classification system is initially divided into two categories –the phenomenal and epistemic, the phenomenal consisting of the material the researcher studies and the epistemic consisting of the methods, conceptual tools, and previous research that the researcher brings to bear on that material. These two categories are divided into seven subcategories that become the coding category to which each sentence subject is assigned.

Phenomenal Classes

    Class 1: "Particulars" – <u>Shakespeare</u> did x.

    Class 2: "Groups" – <u>Estate holders</u> tried to do x.

    Class 3: "Attributes" – <u>Emotional responsivity</u> was conveyed.

Epistemic Classes

    Class 4: "Reasons" – <u>The evidence</u> suggests that mothers do x.

    Class 5: "Research" - <u>Sroufe</u> has argued that x.

    Class 6: "Isms" – The <u>New Historicism</u> is characterized by x.

    Class 7: "Audience" – <u>We</u> need to see x.

<div align="center">(MacDonald, 1992: 543-544)</div>

If Class 1 clearly defines the reference made to particular persons, places or objects, Class2, however, groups entities into a community -sharing a number of features, like 'mothers', 'farms', 'Shakespeare's plays', etc…Class 3 is the subcategory where more attributes are added in order to qualify more properties, motivation, action, behaviour, and

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thoughts which are added to the nouns of classes 1 and 2. Hence, Class 3 contains the most abstract, least material nouns in the phenomenal category.

The four epistemic classes represent nouns in the subject position as belonging to the writer or referring to the reasoning of the academic nomenclature. For example, Class 4 contains all-purpose abstractions and words frequently used in reasoning like 'argument', 'significance', 'findings', etc… Class 5 refers to scholars as a generalized entity like 'researchers', 'historians' or as proper names of famous contributors in a given academic field. Class 6 refers to trends, approaches or schools of thought such as 'Marxism', 'New Historicism', or 'Black literary criticism'. The last Class refers to subjects like the generalized 'we', 'one' or 'you' which are used to guide the reader through the text or inputting areas of agreement among the readers. Frequency counts of these categories and subcategories, according to MacDonald (1992: 545-547), determined that academic writings in psychology proved to be more likely to build previous knowledge, to foreground research methods and meaning negotiation. However, in literature, academic writings were most likely to be particularistic and least likely to focus on research methods and warrants, while writings in History tended to be intermediate

Horsella and Sindermann (1992: 129-132) examine conditional argumentation in scientific discourse through samples of texts taken from Physics, Medicine, and Economics. They consider that *argumentation* has almost always been used interchangeably with *discourse* because both are associated with rhetorical devices used by authors to convince their audience. Their main claim is that argumentation should be considered as a 'genre'

characteristic feature of scientific discourse. They define what an argument is and how it is affected by explicit or implicit conditionality.

'An argument is, in general terms, any proof, demonstration, or reason that is useful for engaging support, or persuading, or convincing (the audience) of the validity of a statement.(…) In the scientific disciplines there are two types of argumentation: deductive and inductive reasoning. In formal deduction, the method used in logic and mathematics, the correctness of the method ensures the validity or truth of the conclusion. In inductive reasoning the argument begins with a hypothesis that is supported by a number of observations or experiments to reach a conclusion which is probabilistically valid.' (Horsella and Sindermann, 1992: 130-131)

The argument, within these terms, represents the food for thought as it guides both deductive and inductive logical reasoning upon which scientific knowledge is founded and processed. Expressing an argument, in scientific fields is made through conditionality which is explicitly stated in conditionals like 'if…then', and 'unless'. It can also be expressed in subordinating conjunctions like 'when', 'in case', 'on condition that', 'assuming' which introduce conditional clauses, or in conditional connectives like 'because' 'therefore', 'consequently', and 'while'. However, implicit conditionality does not have textual markers and it is very frequent in definitions which 'require the determination of certain conditions to delimit the scope of the definition' because 'the validity of one of the terms necessarily implies the validity of the others' (Horsella and Sindermann, 1992: 132). They come to the conclusion that the specific academic/scientific field does not necessarily determine the use of conditional argumentation; it is rather the line of thought adopted by the writer who expresses hypothetical, temporal, or causal relations which determines the use of it.

Hyland and Tse (2004: 159) define metadiscourse as 'those aspects of the text that embody writer-reader interactions, and distinguishes the relations which are external to the text.' In this sense, metadiscourse is a two fold analysis of discourse; one that interprets propositional meaning as stated by the author through 'conjunctions, adverbials, and metaphorical or paraphrasing expressions', the other interprets meaning as 'experiential or interactional' (Hyland and Tse, ibid: 161-163). Examples of such aspects in academic discourse are the reference to, and contrast with, prior knowledge:

'Marking a contrast with prior knowledge in such cases helps to appeal to academic ideologies which value contrast in creating knowledge, and so direct the reader to a positive response.' (Hyland and Tse, 2004: 164)

The outcome of this study is an attempt to determine a model of metadiscourse functions in academic texts. Hyland and Tse (2004: 169) model is made of two types:

-functions that guide the reader through the text, and include 'transitions, frame markers, endophoric markers, evidentials, and code glosses;

-functions that involve the reader in the argument and include hedges, boosters, attitude markers, engagement markers, and self-mentions.

6. **Summary of findings in genre studies**:

Cumulating the findings of the three categories of studies in academic discourse mentioned above (sections 5.1, 5.2, and 5.3) helps us establish a model of genre characteristics. We provide a summary (see table 8,at the end of this chapter) which helps the reader to have quick access and review of the findings mentioned above. This tabulated representation helps us determine the most frequent organisations of information structure,

writers' moves, discourse functions and rhetorical/textual devices and their effects on the purpose of academic communication in terms of argumentation.

6.1. <u>Information structure and writers' moves</u>

The order of ideas, propositional meaning as suggested by the author, represents a structure of information. The use that the author makes of that order represents a move in discourse. The combination of information structure and writer's moves give discourse its force of argumentation. If order of ideas seems much more logical in hard/exact sciences than in humanities and social sciences this is due to physical evidence and deductive reasoning in the former and hypothetical human factor, social change and inductive reasoning in the latter.

6.1.1. <u>Argumentation</u>:

Argumentation seems to be a prominent move in the discourse structure of scientific and academic fields. It is mentioned in a number of studies as a supportive move in the structure of information, as structural devices clearly stated in the text, or conditional elements for expected results which guide both writer and reader in discourse processing; elaboration and interpreting. Primarily, an argument in exact sciences is shown in a proof or a demonstration; in academic discourse, the argument can just be a reason, a cause which may lead to a consequence or an effect. Argumentation is even considered as discourse itself or as a metadiscourse. Three moves are distinguished as prominent steps which involve the reader in the negotiation of meaning:

-Determining an initial position (a framework which limits the area of negotiation): facts, states of events, background/prior knowledge;

-arguing for or against a given position by interpreting facts, stating and supporting or rebutting claims and counterclaims, hypothesizing and criticizing; contrast becomes a basis for knowledge creation

-reaching a position by accomplishing an action of convincing the reader through comments, conclusion, evaluation and judgement.

6.1.2. <u>Agency and reporting</u>:

Who does what? This is the most important and most elementary constituent of information. Identifying the agent of an action represents the reason, the cause, and the holder of the truth. Scientific and academic discourse use agency as a determinant factors to claim for the truth. Scientific discourse uses more appropriate agency than the academic one; hard/exact sciences describe the world, its physical, chemical, technological and biological aspects –something that is studied by man to claim for truth and progressive efficiency. Hence, it is more precise than the academic discourse of humanities and social sciences which is subject to human argumentative subjectivity. The 'epistemological manoeuvre' of using long grammatical subjects is prominent in academic discourse and serves as a key structure to identify people, reasons, research fields, and audience while avoiding personal commitment.

Who did what? Reporting past events, narrating the subject of time is the minefield of history. But history itself is subject to interpretation of facts because evidence can be seen as a cause, a consequence or non-evidence, according to the angle from which one looks at history. The humanities and social sciences have less standardized codes of reporting because there is a huge role of human agency in constructing knowledge. While science and

technology discourse focuses on description, classification, instruction, and definition of present facts, the humanities and social science use a diversity of time order and time relations. 'The absence of time' in hard exact sciences is and remains a progressive, efficient claim for the truth. The prominence of reporting and narrating as functions in academic discourse are structures of past experience, events of the real world, which express also writers' assumptions, beliefs and hypotheses in order to support or criticize a claim or a counterclaim.

6.1.3. <u>Discourse functions</u>:

As we mentioned above, description, definition, classification, and instruction are prominent in science and technology discourse. The academic world is not limited to exact/hard sciences; in the humanities and social sciences the functions of reporting, narrating, arguing, criticizing, comparing and contrasting, evaluating and predicting –in addition to those of the scientific fields-are very prominent. In academic discourse, writers use these functions in a much less orderly manner than writers of scientific discourse would do. The 'embedding' and 'interweaving' of topic-type and schematic frames of academic discourse deprive the writer from the uniformity of a discourse function.

Comparing and contrasting, narrating and reporting together provide academic discourse with that particular function of contrasting prior/background knowledge to new information the purpose of which is to create new states of knowledge. This contrasting function of academic discourse can be determinant enough to lead to generalisations and predictions as it can also be misleading and speculative enough to lead to ambiguity and contradiction.

6.2. <u>Textual features</u>:

The various writers' moves, expressed in information structures and discourse functions, are most of the time represented in some textual features which affect sentence type, connectives and lexis. The studies mentioned above do not all of them mention these text features because they had a primary focus of concentrating attention on macrostructures of genre. Some of them, however, provide us with specific characteristics of academic genre that we sum up in the following aspects: sentence structure, connectives and lexis.

6.2.1. <u>Sentence structure</u>

Compound and complex sentences (content-packed sentences) take a major concern in academic discourse because of their comprehensive nature to include a number of clause and phrases that express a complex idea. Long grammatical subjects, overloaded noun phrases that include shared prior/background knowledge and express agency are the most important characteristic feature of generic discourse. Reporting clauses, definite, indefinite expressions, modal phrases, conditional clauses, metaphoric, paraphrasing expressions represent a predicate added to the subject and may vary from one genre to another. In scientific discourse they are much more precise and concise. However in academic discourse, their variety and abundance are due to the absence of one topic/ one frame structure of information.

6.2.2. <u>Connectives</u>

Contrastive and non-contrastive connectives-comparatives, superlatives, conditionals and additives, build the syntactic relations which allow argumentation to proceed as a discourse

type. Causal, temporal, contrastive, purposive and continuous relations cannot be expressed and linked in a sentence without the prominent use of connectives.

Tense markers and variations are also abounding in academic discourse of humanities and social sciences because of its reporting, narrative genre quality. A description of facts, events, and groups of people, situations, phenomena and change oblige the writer to mark a place in time and draw relations of development through time. However the discourse of exact sciences lacks tense variation as it deals with permanent truth and claims for its progressiveness. Reference helps the writer to avoid redundancy by the use of endophoric (cataphoric and anaphoric) markers. However, reference in academic discourse serves also to link the reader with some research status, concepts, models, scholars and theories which are exophoric to the text.

6.2.3. <u>Lexis</u>:

Lexical items and lexical sets, word families, collocation are typical register features in a given academic field, let it be an exact science or a subject of the humanities. It is generally marked by naming participants (human constituents, companies, institutions and places) who are under scrutiny. The lexical register represents frame markers, evidentials and code glosses. Modals and reporting verbs are distinctive features of academic discourse in comparison to exact sciences writings. The high degree of precision and concision in science and technology reduce to a great extent the degree of modality. However in academic discourse of humanities and social sciences they are prominently used as attitude markers, hedges and boosters, engagement markers and self-mentions

Comments and conclusion:

The developments in the field of applied linguistics are expanding, from proper language studies, to include a number of other fields like psychology, sociology, communication, social and hard –exact- sciences. As applied linguistics became a pluridisciplinary field, discourse analysis had to expand its scope from register studies to contextual social communication. The recent developments in the last three decades biased discourse analysis towards a study of genre types that can be isolated from wide social contexts and limited to scientific and/or academic fields, characterised by special purposes and moves which can be reflected on the textual level.

Science and technology discourse is so precise and concise, logical and objective that it stands away from conventional language. However, in the humanities and social sciences - like sociology- discourse is less precise to the extent that it looks nearer to conventional language. Genre studies are attempts which aim at distinguishing information structure, discourse moves, functions, and markers with specific relation to wide and/or close contexts of communication and topic-type. The most general framework within which genre studies can be classified is that of argumentation which is so distinctive in science and technology because of physical evidence, clear methodology and lack of modality and human commitment. Thus, the first level of distinguishing a genre from conventional language is the newspaper articles and reports which try to attract the general reader to a given context of communication; the more the reader is interested in the headlines, the more he is involved in the process of meaning negotiation. The second level is the topic-type of sociology and history which make the first step into the generic world of discourse with a lot of features of

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conventional language while literature remains within the world of arts. The third level of distinction is that of psychology, economics and business studies which seem to have a relative methodological procedure and impersonal attitude. Hence, the distinction of genre features and findings do not claim for establishing a 'typical language', but rather defend the idea that generic discourse has a relative difference from conventional language that makes it, in a way or another, necessary to be given some consideration in analysis. The pedagogical consequence is discourse/genre familiarization of learners with the discourse itself and their –progressive, inclusion into the nomenclature whom they will be part of.

Table 8: Genre studies and findings

Author(s), Field(s) and/or samples	Information structure / Discourse functions, and and metadiscourse functions	Textual/ lexical and grammatical devices
Schiffrin 1987: Stories	-**4 discourse moves**: initiating the story; reporting events; conveying the point; accomplishing an action through the story. -**3 discourse structures**: exchange, action, and ideational structures in dialogue and monologue. They are types of **argumentative discourse** -**3 moves of the argument**: -the position: describing information, situations, states, events and actions, and a claim for the truth; -the dispute: opposition by reference to background knowledge sometimes obscure and indirect; -the support: justification, explanation, leading to different speech acts.	
Land 1983: Newspaper articles	-**Structure** :general headlines and then the article -**Functions**: reporting and narrating past events	-content-packed sentences (compound-complex sentences) -compound words
Bowles 1995: Newspaper law reports	**Structure and moves**: headlines, description of court, decision and judgement **Functions**: describing and arguing	-connectors, reporting clauses, tense markers, definite and indefinite expressions
Mead and Lilley 1975: Economics textbooks	**Structure and moves**: discussion of assumptions **Functions**: explanation, description, definition, deduction, prediction, cause and effect, comparison and contrast, and generalisations	-conditional and causality; comparatives; superlatives; connectives
Johns 1980: textbooks and reports: Business and Economics	**Functions**: definition, physical and process description; cause and effect, comparison and contrast	Lexical items, reference, conditional, comparatives superlatives and connectives
Lachenmayer 1971: Sociology textbooks	**Scientific discourse**: -semantic, grammatical and contextual agreement; -**precision** in definitions and systematization **Conventional discourse** in language of sociology: -vagueness, ambiguity, opacity and contradiction	
Love 2002: Sociology textbooks	**Claims** countered by **adversative moves**: negotiated nature of objectivity, criticism and **arguing**; **Argumentative processes**: presenting theories, criticising their evidence and argument, extracting useful elements, reaching a position	Modality

Table 8: Genre studies and findings (continued)

Author(s), Field(s) and/or samples	Information structure/Discourse and metadiscourse functions	Textual/ lexical and grammatical devices
Brett 1994: Sociology research articles	**Structure**: introduction, research method and data, results and discussion; **Moves**: reviewing previous knowledge, description of data; explanation of concepts; procedural warranty of results **Functions**: making knowledge claims through: -metatextual categories (We begin with, we then… Last, we….); -presentation categories: explanation of data, hypothesizing, statements of findings -comment categories: arguing, comparison, evaluation, prediction, and inquisitive anticipation	-comparison, time-related exchange and relationships between variables
Stockton 1995: History textbooks and articles	**Function**: narrating the subject of time; **Move**: argument by interpretation of evidence	
Trimble 1985: English for science and technology textbooks	**Frequent writers moves**: time and space order, causality and result, order of importance, comparison and contrast, exemplification and illustration **Frequent functions**: description, definition, classification, instruction	
Vande-Kopple 1994: Hard / exact sciences textbooks	**Scientific discourse**: precise, concise, efficient and progressive **Moves**: -expressing truth within a framework of knowledge, and claiming for the truth; -old/background knowledge stated in the subject position; -new information/findings added in the predicate	-lack of modality and tense variation -long grammatical subjects -overloaded noun phrases
Hyland 2002: Research papers in: philosophy, sociology, applied linguistics, marketing, biology, electronic and mechanical engineering	Main **discourse** structure (in humanities and social sciences) is **Reporting** which has got **two Functions**: -Process functions: research act (experiment, real world); cognition act (beliefs, assumptions); and discourse act (discussing, hypothesizing, reporting, stating) -Evaluative functions: support, criticize, neutral position, agreement/ disagreement **Four reasons/moves** for the frequent use of reporting verbs: -explicit reference to prior research/ knowledge; -less familiarized/standardized codes of reporting -explicit recognition of the role of human agency in constructing knowledge -more recursive patterns of investigation and less predictable/ abstract subjects	Reporting verbs more frequent in humanities and social sciences: 'suggest, argue, find, show, describe, propose, report' Less frequent reporting verbs: 'say, claim, point out, hold, think, note, analyse, explain, demonstrate, observe, use, publish, develop, expand, study

Table 8: Genre studies and findings (continued)

Author(s), Field(s) and/or samples	Information structure/Discourse and metadiscourse functions	Textual/ lexical and grammatical devices
Barton 1995: 50 "point of view" essays in exact sciences, social sciences and humanities	**Academic argumentation** is a **metadiscourse function** to: -represent claims and counterclaims (support and/or detraction of the thesis); -express solidarity in "a polite way" in order to anticipate reader's positive response to contrastive knowledge. **Writers' moves:**-connectives used to present background knowledge;-contrastive connective to present direct opposition.-contrast is a basis for knowledge creation	Contrastive and non-contrastive connectives: additive, causal, temporal, contrastive, purposive, and continuous relations
Kay 1991: Textbook extracts, and academic articles in: geography, history, economics and business studies	A **topic-type** is a typical genre represented in a **schematic frame** Most academic writings use **multi-topic schematic frames**; they represent writer's **moves and information structure (ordering, embedding and interweaving** in the following:-state/situation, concept/principle, characteristics, process, classification, system/production, structure, social structure, and mechanisms	Antonyms, lexical sets, word families, collocation, participants (human constituents, companies and institutions, countries) used as groups of nouns
MacDonald 1992: Psychology, history, and literature writings	Subject nature and position indicate **agency** **-Moves**: data (background knowledge) is put in the subject position in order to **negotiate** the particular and the abstract knowledge: this is an **epistemological manoeuvre** **-Information** structure is represented in two **classes of grammatical subjects**: -Phenomenal classes: particulars, groups, attributes; -Epistemic classes: reasons, research, isms, audience.	-specific structure of the subject (noun phrase) varies from one field to another
Horsella and Sinderman 1992: Texts from physics, medicine, and economics	**Argumentation** is interchangeably used with **discourse**: scientific discourse has one **genre feature: argumentation as a Move** **An argument is: -a proof, a demonstration, a reason;** **-deductive:** correct method leading to validity and truth;**-inductive**: hypothesis, observation and experiment lead probably to validity **-Implicit conditionality**: determining conditions; a line of thought expressing hypothetical, temporal and causal relations	-conditional (if…then, unless, when, in case, on condition that, assuming..) -conditional clauses, connectives; because, therefore, consequently, while…
Hyland and Tse 2004: Academic texts	**Metadiscourse** is writer/reader interaction to determine external relations to the text It has **two functions: -to guide** the reader through the text; and **to involve** him in the **argument.** **Information structure**: -reference and contrast to prior knowledge through propositional and experiential/interactional meaning	-conjunctions, adverbials, metaphoric / paraphrasing expressions; -transitions, frame markers, endophoric markers, evidentials and code glosses; -hedges, boosters, attitude markers, engagement markers, and self-mentions

CHAPTER THREE

SYLLABUS AND MATERIALS DESIGN

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<center>**Syllabus and Materials Design**</center>

<u>**Introduction**</u>

In this chapter, we attempt to define what syllabus design is and what its concerns are. This leads us to shed light on some theoretical   assumptions (approaches)   to the subject and identify the outcomes (syllabus types) according to various developments in the field. We will examine the criteria of syllabus design (selection and sequencing) and the recommendations for implementation. Application of these criteria will determine that syllabus design is nowadays closely linked to methodology, teaching materials, and learning tasks. Hence, we will also attempt to define language teaching materials and describe the various ways of their analysis and evaluation. Materials design and development requires teachers' awareness of a number of criteria and tact, taken into account altogether at the same time, in order to develop materials that satisfy learners' needs and help them achieve the expected objectives. We will also explain and describe how language teaching materials are closely linked to a framework of information and discourse processing through the activity/task typology suggested for the learners. This will be shown through limited and wide audience materials in order to determine the principles and criteria of design and development.

1. <u>Syllabus design</u>:

It is, sometimes, difficult to bring a general compromise between the various definitions of what syllabus design is and what its concerns are, as this issue is also confused with curriculum design.

'In North America, the term "syllabus" is often used interchangeably with "curriculum". However, I would like to preserve the distinction proposed by Robertson (1971: 566) : "the curriculum includes the goals, the objectives, content processes, resources, and means of evaluation of all the learning experiences planned for pupils both in and out of the school community through classroom instruction and related programs". He defines syllabus as " a statement of the plan for any part of the curriculum , excluding the element of evaluation itself.' (Yalden. J.1987: 29).

Starting from Robertson's view (1971), Yalden (opcit) considers that syllabus excludes only evaluation from the whole plan and includes a statement of the plan for any part of the curriculum; goals, objectives, processes and resources of the learning experiences planned for the pupils. We are, then, far from the traditional concerns of syllabus design as simply a selection and ordering of items. It is obvious, now, that goals and objectives, content and resources, as well as the processes of learning are major concerns of this subject.

Widdowson (1990) similarly defines the subject and its concerns:

' I shall take a syllabus to mean the specification of a teaching programme or agenda which defines a particular subject for a particular group of learners . Such a specification not only provides a characterisation of content , the formalisation in pedagogic terms of an area of knowledge or behaviour. A syllabus specification, then, is concerned with what is to be taught (...). Conceived of in this way, a syllabus is an idealised schematic construct which serves as a reference for teaching.' (Widdowson. 1990: 117)

Though they are using different terms to name similar concerns, both definitions, above, agree to some extent on the first three elements below;

Content is what to be learnt, goals and objectives determine the terminal communicative behaviour, resources of items and means show the common construct - background knowledge - which serve as a framework for meaning negotiation between learners and teachers.

On the last two elements, however, there are common grounds with differences of focus. Both agree that the pedagogical process of implementation must be included in syllabus design, but one would focus on the learning aspect while the other would focus on the teaching one.

A syllabus designer, in our view, and bearing in mind the preceding views and definitions, should answer the following questions before making any decision about a course:

-WHY: determine 'what for' learners should learn a particular subject (objectives , goals and aims) ;

-WHAT: 'elements of content' to be chosen as an inventory of a course

-HOW: what pedagogical means and procedural sequences would be used to achieve the defined goals, aims and objectives?

- WHERE FROM: the sources of materials and means to present the content

-FOR WHOM: the population for whom the syllabus is designed; teachers and learners.

2. <u>Approaches to syllabus design</u>:

Many methodologists distinguish at least two ways of learning. On the one hand there is a random process of acquiring the mother tongue where there is a little conscious pre-selection of what should be learnt. On the other hand, there is an organised process of teaching/learning subjects, languages, professions, etc… which requires a pre-selection of

items from a wide range of areas and routes to knowledge, and an organisation of these items into a sequence. The pre-selection of items, by which we get a syllabus inventory, is necessary because teaching / learning a subject cannot include every single item of knowledge. Some criteria of selection must guide the choice. The pre-ordering of items into a sequence gives a systematic and progressive arrangement to the whole syllabus because teaching/learning cannot take place all at once.

Reasons of any pre-selection or any pre-ordering may vary according to various educational, social, political, cultural or personal factors influencing the environment where the process is taking place. These may be considered as learners objectives, educational goals,-or political and socio-economic aims. On these aspects of syllabus design -i.e. content selection, sequencing, and reasons- there are at least three approaches that yielded a certain number of syllabus types.

2.1. <u>Structural syllabuses</u>:

Structural linguistics focused its research on the formal and/ or behaviourist features of language. Sounds, phonemes, letters, words, phrases, sentences and patterns of language were its main categories or units. Its main procedure of analysis was to break down language into its constituent elements and then describe them .The outcome of structuralist theories was a set of descriptive rules of how language structures and patterns are organised. The overall knowledge of language rules, structures and patterns became widely known as linguistic competence. Linguistic performance of learners is, thus, conceived of as a level at which learners are capable of handling those formal structures and patterns of language.

In a description of such a trend to syllabus design, Wilkins (1976: 2) says: 'in planning the syllabus for such teaching, the global language has been broken down into an inventory of grammatical structures and into a limited list of lexical items'. He, of course, specifies that syllabus designers selected their inventory from these lists according to the following criteria:

-simplicity, regularity, frequency and contrastive difficulty for the grammar inventory, and;

- frequency, range, availability, familiarity and coverage for the lexical inventory.

A logical consequence of the above-mentioned assumptions leads to a linear sequencing of the syllabus items which are organised one after the other according to the degrees of easiness or difficulty, generality or detail, simplicity or complexity. As soon as the first item of the syllabus is covered, the second one comes into the process of teaching, and so on for the next items. The relationship that holds the items of the syllabus together is an adjunction. This feature entails that each syllabus item occurs only once in the process of teaching; any reoccurrence is a repetition or a revision, not part of the process. There may be various reasons for such a selection and organisation, but the most obvious one is that the items do exist, so we must teach them. It is rather a very conformist one.

Pedagogical implementation resulted in the presentation of situational/ artificial settings illustrated by adapted written texts or dialogues, generally followed by repetition, memorisation, substitution and formal distribution drills where the whole process is teacher-centred. This is called 'gradual accumulation' by Wilkins (1976: ibid) and 'investment' by Widdowson (1990: opcit).

Though both describe the same process/strategy, the former suggests that structural learning accumulates knowledge in terms of layers, one on top of the other, while the latter suggests that structural learning is a gradual/partial investment for a long-term outcome (competence). While Wilkins is describing structural teaching, Widdowson is describing structural learning.

2.2 **Notional/Functional syllabuses:**

In the structural syllabuses the 'item' is the unit of a syllabus inventory. As there can be an exhaustive list of items like structures that the course designer can choose from, there is no such alternative for other types of syllabuses. The terms 'notions' and 'functions' impose a different categorisation of syllabus items which do not rely on the study of structures. Murison-Bowie (1983:7) considers this change of focus from structures on to meaning. He says that '"notional/functional" is a term which has come to be used for a set of categories deriving from a particular way of describing language from a semantic point of view.' The first attempt to bring such a change into the real world of syllabus design was Wilkins (1976)

To solve the problem of focus, Wilkins (1976.passim) developed two sources of meaning to choose from: notions and functions. He distinguished three types of meaning as: ideational, modal and functional meaning;

-meaning that is expressed through grammatical systems in different languages: ideational, cognitive, or propositional meaning;

-meaning that expresses the speaker's or the writer's attitude: modal meaning; and

-meaning that is conveyed by the function of an utterance: functional meaning;

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Wilkins (1976: 21-54) consequently drew three types of categories most relevant to notions and functions of language and which can be a source of syllabus inventory selection:

-semantico-grammatical categories which include notions of grammar as relative concepts of the world which are built in every human being's mind. These notions/concepts help the person manage the world around him and express/understand organisation of time, quantity, space, relational meaning, quality, shape, size, etc…

-categories of modal meaning which include modality, scale of certainty and uncertainty, scale of commitment, intention and obligation;

-categories of communicative function which include judgement and evaluation, approval and disapproval, suasion, argument, information asserted, sought or denied, agreement and disagreement, concession, rational enquiry and exposition, personal emotions and emotional relations.

Grammatical and modal meanings are, exhaustively, described by many linguists as Wilkins himself says (Wilkins.1976:34). For, if there is an approximate agreement among scholars on an inventory of semantico-grammatical and modal meaning categories, there is no such solution for the functional ones. The latter represent 'the meaning that arises from the fundamental distinction, very important for language teaching, between what we *do* through language and what we report by means of language' (Wilkins.1976:41).

This new orientation of focus onto the study of meaning reveals the difficulty and the width of scope for the syllabus designer. As meaning can be grammatical, modal and functional, the syllabus designer cannot simply rely on already established inventories or ready-made courses; each inventory or course has been set for a particular community. This

peculiarity is due to the fact that functions of language are determined by a careful needs analysis of the learners and the purposes for which they would use the language. As learners' needs and purposes may vary from one learner to another, common needs and common purposes have to be found in order to represent common grounds from which a notional functional syllabus can be selected.

VanEk (1979: 105) called this selection 'the common core' to mean that the selected functions are common to different learners like secretaries, lawyers, engineers, and doctors for whom he selected three headings and distinguished the following units:

Functional: -requesting information

          -giving information

          -enquiry

Settings   : -hotel

          -station

          -shop

Notions   :   -availability/non-availability

          -location

          -cost

Whereas the order of structural items - in a structural syllabus - is somehow clear (ease Vs difficulty, etc...), the order and range of notional/ functional items is always shaped by many factors of needs analysis. Furthermore, the whole process/strategy of learning - adopted by the notional/functional syllabus is no longer synthetic but analytical. Learners are exposed to the selected items and 'accumulate' experience of the foreign language - to

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use Widdowson's term- in order to develop a communicative competence. Grammar is no longer taught explicitly to learners. They are supposed to work out, and find out, their way to understand the grammatical system of the language by analysis. The consequence of the above-mentioned assumptions, on syllabus ordering, is the sequencing of its elements in a cyclical, spiral manner; the elements coincide with each other in a correlative way. They are joined to each other in the shift of a spiral or cyclical movement, allowing occurrence and reoccurrence of the items in different contexts of language use.

2 .3.<u>Communicative syllabuses</u>:

The structural and notional/functional trends yielded syllabuses from a description of language usage and language use. The communicative trends, however, invested the subject in different terms; they either tended to analyse terminal behaviour in a very atomistic way or attempted to rely on second language research and cognitive processes to implement the syllabus. Though notional/functional trends were the leading movement in the analysis of learners' needs and purposes of language use, communicative trends sharpened the impact of this feature and widened its scope in syllabus design.

Munby (1978) is the typical representative of this field. He leads the communicative syllabus studies into an investigation of the communicative behaviour of the learners of a foreign or second language. "(...) a specific category of second language participant has specific communicative objectives which are achieved by controlling particular communicative behaviours." (Munby.1978:29). The terms 'specific' and 'particular' , as used here by Munby, show that he was leading the subject to the teaching of English for Specific Purposes. He further proposes a processing model of terminal communicative competence

which takes into consideration the 'participant's (learner's identity), the communicative needs processor and profile of needs, the language skills selector, the meaning processor and the linguistic encoder.

The most important element of this model is the communicative needs processor (CNP) in which Munby includes eight essential parameters that determine both linguistic and non-linguistic data analysis.

-Four independent parameters serve the processing of non-linguistic data. They are: purposive domain, setting, interaction, and instrumentality.

-Four dependent parameters - determined by the independent ones - serve the processing of linguistic data. They are: dialect, communicative event, communicative key, and target level.

Though Munby's work was considered as a watershed in the development of ESP, many critical remarks (cf. McDonough,1984:33 and Hutchinson and Waters,1987:54) were made about its 'purist' and 'idealist' point of view and about its 'limits' of a 'scientific' needs analysis. Application of Munby's model came out with end-result syllabuses that cared little about how learners would achieve the results. This impediment enhanced, rather, other orientations to care about the communicative processes and consider implementation and methodology integral parts of syllabus design.

As we pointed out above, there is nowadays almost no clear cut distinction between syllabus design and methodology in the communicative approach – (cf.Yalden 1987 and Widdowson 1990 above). Yalden considers the process of understanding planned for learners, relying much on second language theory and adopting models much more similar to the one suggested by Abbott (1981:28). Such processes base the implementation of a

syllabus on pedagogical steps which encourage the development of strategies of understanding the input, rehearsal, strategies of remembering, and strategies of communicating the output. Such a model of syllabus design relies also on information theory.

Widdowson considers the process of teaching the content of the syllabus, relying much on the nature of the resources as common schematic knowledge, shared by teachers and learners, and adopting models much more similar to discourse analysis strategies. Such processes base the implementation of a syllabus on pedagogical terms which guide teachers in presenting their material. Such a model of syllabus design relies also on communication theory. Thus, the communicative trends are not specific about the type of content to be taught (structural or notional/functional), but attempt to focus on methodological measures used in order to implement the syllabus.

This variety of trends or approaches gave birth to a number of criteria which bear on syllabus inventory selection and organisation providing different types of syllabuses, of course, in an attempt to answer the five questions we asked at the beginning of this paper. Some of them answered all the questions while others focused on answering only some of them, as we shall see in this syllabus typology. We shall consider, hence, the criteria of syllabus design and syllabus types.

3. <u>Criteria of syllabus and course design</u>:

In syllabus design -and course design - the theoretical framework of syllabuses and their types supply syllabus designers - and teachers - with parameters, variables, or tools that we

shall call, here, criteria of syllabus and course design. A definition and a description of these criteria is a primary attempt to give a thorough answer to the five questions we asked at the beginning of this paper, and a summary of general guidelines suggested by many scholars in the field.

3.1. <u>Data-collection</u>:

This may also be called a situation analysis for which and in which language teaching and learning is to take place. It is a collection of information-data about the learners, their community, pedagogical institutions and educational authorities, and the subject specialists in language, language learning, and education.

3.1. 1. <u>The learners</u>:

Age, sex, social status, motivation, interests, needs, background education, and proficiency level in the target language, are necessary information to establish the learners' identity, cognitive capacities, intellectual abilities and to choose convenient materials, media, and activities most suitable to their motivation and interests.

3.1.2. <u>The community</u>:

Social and educational participants in the field of language teaching/learning contribute, to a great extent, to the success or failure of any designed syllabus. Common beliefs and expectations of the society in general, and of parents and teachers in particular, shape all applications and aims of a syllabus. Thus a syllabus designer needs to know what parents expect their off-springs to gain from instruction, as he must also take into account teachers' knowledge, competence and preparation to apply the designed syllabus.

3.1.3. <u>Pedagogical institutions and educational authorities</u>:

Public and private education is always organised in a system of decisions, working up and down a scale of responsibilities. The highest ones are those of educational policy and finance, and the lowest ones are those that put into practice political, financial, human and educational resources. Information about decisions and resources helps the syllabus designer to know what educational strategy, pedagogical means and human resources are available to implement real classroom settings .The status of the language being taught , its importance (either political or economic) and relevance to the educational system , the number of teaching staff, time allocation, availability of media and teacher training education are necessary information to be gathered from decision-makers in order to guide the work of the syllabus designer.

3.1.4. <u>Subject-specialists</u>:

The applied linguists, educationalists, psycho-pedagogues, and psychologists represent a source of knowledge whose ideas about language teaching and language learning have a lot of bearings on syllabus design. Applied linguistics findings help much in content selection and organisation, educational research affects general methodological organisation, while psycho-pedagogists and cognitive psychologists' investigations contribute in the design of learning tasks, classroom management and teacher-learner relationships. Consulting these specialist views is a measure that gives scientific and academic frameworks to syllabus design and keeps it up to date with recent findings in case of reform.

The collection of data from a situation analysis will supply the syllabus designer with enough rationale for further claims. From the collected information, one can define the

objectives (interim or long term, terminal, and outcome) of learning, draw an inventory of resources, identify the type of content and schematic constructs, and adopt a methodological implementation.

3.2. **Content selection**:

Any subject area of knowledge and abilities can not be taught at random. A selection is a compulsory measure to bring organisation in a teaching context because we can not teach every thing at the same time. The type of content to be selected is always determined by linguistics and applied linguistics findings; structures, patterns, notions and functions, and tasks are research outcomes of different approaches to language analysis and language learning. The focus on one, or some, of them is a selective decision which shows adherence to one, or to some, approach(s). Whatever the focus, there must be reasons or criteria of selecting some items and not others. Criteria of content selection are a set of bearings that are applied to the whole inventory. The following are not exhaustive but basic criteria for content selection.

3.2.1 **Validity**:

The validity of any content item is its possibility to help the learners achieve the already defined objectives of learning. It is, thus, a justification criterion of content relevance to the possibilities it offers to the learners in order to improve their proficiency level. In modern communicative trends, this also implies that the chosen items have to be pedagogically realistic and communicatively authentic.

3.2.2 **Interest**:

Learners' motivation, needs and interests have to find ways of satisfaction in the selected content. The most interesting items are those that encourage learners to learn according to their social interests, age, and motivation (see chapter 1, section 3: integrative and instrumental aspects of motivation).

3.2.3 <u>Learnability</u>:

What the learners already know as background knowledge and what they would know at the end of instruction are two extreme stand points. Learnable items are those that fill in the gap between them. The choice of the items, then, has to start from the background knowledge, avoiding redundant - boring repetition - and lead the learners progressively to develop their abilities, avoiding major difficulties of cognitive achievement. For, too easy items will create boredom; while too difficult items will create failure -see chapter one, section 3: Oxford (1990) and Woolfolk (2004) on the exploitation of motivation in strategy training for the development of learner strategies.

3.2.4 <u>Significance</u>:

This criterion limits the type, number and depth of the selected items. As we said earlier, any subject area is too wide to be taught thoroughly in its specific details. For example, the history of any civilisation can not be taught according to an everyday fact record; a selection of significant events - among others - is due to their impact on, and representation of, that civilisation. Hence, significant language teaching/learning items are those that represent principles of linguistic investigation outcomes and principles of the uses for which language is taught and learnt. Identifying these items, then, solves the problem of type and number

that we shall call 'coverage' or 'breadth'. Implementing those items with detailed teaching, rehearsal, and practising solves the problem of 'depth'.

Criteria of syllabus design can vary from one situation to another and from one approach to another. In a criticism of the structural approach, Wilkins (1976)-section 1.2 above- provides two types of criteria for the selection of the structural/synthetic syllabus, while Widdowson (1990) discusses the same ones, as those we have listed above, with a different terminology, supporting his claims with empirical and rational research findings of communicative methodology.

3.3 <u>Syllabus sequencing/ordering</u>:

A description of linear and spiral/cyclical syllabuses is already provided in sections 2.1 and 2.2 above. Further, the criterion of learnability -section 4.2.3 above - implies the progressive order of items from ease to difficulty. Widdowson (1990) refers to ordering as:

'(...) the specification of interim objectives. These can be conceived of in two ways. One is in terms of their surrender value or communicative pay-off in respect of practical use(...).The second way of conceiving of ordering, however, has to do with language development as a function of the learning process itself.' (Widdowson.1990: 139)

'Interim objectives', which are not terminal behaviour, represent the synchronic, progressive order of development of learners' proficiency and achievement. 'Surrender value' or 'communicative pay-off' refers to learners' language use at a given point -interim stage- of the teaching/learning process. However, 'language development' refers to the role of that interim stage in developing the learners' language achievement.

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Thus, in addition to linear and spiral organisations of a syllabus, UNIT ordering is a third rationale for the application of cognitive and pedagogical claims. Cognitively, a 'unit' represents a schematic construct of knowledge, relative to learners' age, motivation and interests, common to teachers and learners; a negotiation of meaning is, thus , established. Pedagogically, the 'unit' provides several 'exemplars' -to use Skehan's terms (1996) to supply the learner with different instances of language use and enough rehearsal of the language structures that correspond to the topic or theme of the 'unit'.

3.4. <u>Syllabus implementation</u>:

All the previous measures, considerations and criteria produce a syllabus implementation when they are put into practice. Implementation is, thus, the presentation of the teaching programme to teachers and the learning tasks to learners. It includes the choice and presentation of language teaching materials and media and the explanation, or definition, of what teachers and learners will do with these materials and media in the classroom in an orderly manner. Teachers' textbooks, learners' textbooks, aural/oral materials/media, audio-visual aids, general outlines of unit organisation in terms of practical tasks -exercises- , rate of teachers' and learners' involvement and periods of revision are the outcome of syllabus implementation and a new orientation in the field of syllabus design known as task-based instruction.

In this field, Swales (1990) provides a framework for the design of academic English courses based on the analysis of the various components of a teaching/learning situation in order to determine the learning tasks (Swales.1990:69 figure 2). He suggests the following access routes:

-the ethnography of communication by consulting the discourse communities (by observation, participation, interview, and questionnaire) to establish the communicative purposes of learning;

-the evaluation and validation of instructional materials and advice by consulting handbooks and textbooks (rational studies), and by designing and evaluating empirically those materials;

-the discourse analysis to establish the genre categories and their characteristic features;

-the methodology which helps developing the learning tasks closely related to genre analysis outcomes, and;

-second language acquisition and second language learning theory and findings which analyse procedures of learning, information processing and language development

These five 'access routes' are closely related to the five characteristic principles of genre analysis, already discussed by Swales (1990:opcit), and will lead the task based course designer to determine which learning activities will help developing the learners' performance. He defines tasks as:

'(...) having communicative outcomes, just as genres are seen as having communicative purposes, and discourse communities communicative goals. A task driven methodology thus keeps an appropriate focus on rhetorical action and communicative effectiveness, however much the means to those communicative ends may involve , in various ways and to various extents , the analysis and discussion of text and situation, and the teaching and practice of form (...). The danger of ignoring genre is precisely the danger of ignoring communicative purpose.' (Swales. 1990: 72)

So far, we have been discussing, at least, three major concerns of syllabus design in an attempt to answer the five questions we raised at the beginning of this chapter. We explained that every syllabus must gather for a number of aspects which are put into practice, to provide a syllabus type. These aspects are:

1-a rationale - reasons, needs, claims and objectives - in order to justify its beliefs about;

2-content selection and sequencing as the basic foundations of the general organisation of the course;

3-and, implementation that productively and realistically shows how the syllabus is going to be interpreted by teachers and learners.

4. <u>Syllabus types</u>:

From the above mentioned views about syllabus design, one can distinguish at least two main types which Nunan (1988) called 'product-oriented' and 'process-oriented' syllabuses. Recent developments in the field bias the nature of the syllabus towards a combination of learning, learners, and achievement type. They produced the so-called task-based and competency based syllabuses.

4.1. <u>Product-oriented syllabuses</u>:

As their name suggests, these types of syllabuses emphasise the knowledge and skills which the learners should gain as a result of instruction. Priority in the selection and ordering of content items is given to the achievement of terminal / output behaviour that learners should develop at the end of successful learning .In these types, most characteristic, though distinct, features of organisation are those discussed by Wilkins (1976) as synthetic and analytical. The former aims at developing linguistic competence like grammatical and structural syllabuses, while the latter aims at developing communicative competence like notional / functional syllabuses.

4.2 <u>Process-oriented syllabuses</u>:

These types of syllabuses put emphasis on the pedagogical and implementation aspects of the syllabus, where priority is attributed to the teacher's pedagogic steps, the learners' experiences throughout instruction and the types of activities undertaken in the classroom. Most characteristic features of organisation are those discussed by Yalden (1987) and Widdowson (1990), above; process (planned for the pupils), pedagogic terms (referring to teaching), and meaning negotiation about content (resources and schematic constructs).

Procedural and content - oriented syllabuses adopt interim objectives of learning as they expect learners to display communicative skills throughout instruction. These syllabuses consist of the specification of the activities like information processing and problem solving that learners will engage in, in the classroom. Such activities, according to Prabhu (1987: 46-47) may be;

'1 *Information gap activity*, which involves a transfer of given information from one person to another -or from one form to another, or from one place to another- generally calling for the decoding or encoding of information from or into language .
2 *Reasoning gap activity*, which involves deriving some new information from given information through processes of inference, deduction, practical reasoning, or perception of relationships or patterns.
3 *Opinion gap activity*, which involves identifying and articulating a personal preference, feeling, or attitude in response to a given situation.' (Prabhu.1987:46-47)

Of course, the role of the teacher is that of a manager of these activities in terms of pedagogy and a negotiating partner in terms of content instruction. For, as far as information is to be transferred, retrieved or produced, these are items of content. In this respect, content is pedagogical acts from the classroom, real acts from the learners' external

environment and subject specific from the learners/learning subject areas in the school curriculum like history, geography, natural sciences, technology, etc...

The role of the teacher in the implementation of such a syllabus that caters for content and procedure of learning is of capital importance. As the process of learning requires some measures, learners themselves have their own ways, styles and strategies, of learning to be taken into account. Skehan (1998:266) draws teachers' attention to such problems and requirements:

'-what learning strengths and weaknesses as well as preferences different students have;
-how tasks can be selected and implemented to take account of these factors;
-that the teacher has knowledge about learners and learning which can help learners to make decisions;
-that the teacher is able to induce learners to take on progressively more responsibility;
-that the teacher can lead learners to clarify their own pedagogic aims so that the learners themselves can be induced to make better pedagogic decisions.' (Skehan.1998:266)

This entails that a teacher who has a limited knowledge about the learning process, the learners and their learning styles and strategies, will hinder learning. Consequently a good teacher is one who is able to design tasks most relevant to learners' learning needs. Such a teacher is supposed to have comprehensive knowledge about almost every aspect of the teaching/learning process. As the components of this process are multidisciplinary, teachers are provided with various syllabus types, each focusing on particular types of tasks, aiming at satisfying both learners' needs and teachers' requirements through what is commonly known as 'task-based syllabuses.'

4.3 <u>Task based syllabuses</u>:

It is nowadays up to date to consider and claim that a given syllabus or language course is task-based or task-oriented because the term 'task' itself shows a certain innovation in comparison to other syllabuses or courses which do not use this term. It seems necessary, first, to define the term and examine its implications in the design of courses and the implementation of courses with learning materials and activities.

4.3.1 'Task' definition:

The term 'task' is a common word in English and can mean a number of things that people do in everyday life. In Algeria the word 'task' is commonly used to describe little jobs of repairs and innovation like building, painting, plumbing, etc… where workers are paid at the end of their task This feature of daily life is clearly stated by Long (1985: 89)

'…a piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward. Thus, examples of tasks include painting a fence, dressing a child, filling out a form, buying a pair of shoes, making an airline reservation…. In other words, by "task" is meant a hundred and one things people do in everyday life'.

Johnson (2003: 4-5) draws a figure which surveys the various attempts to define the term 'task' and its implications in applied linguistics, language teaching/learning and second language theory and research. We will examine here the most prominent ones. In the field of applied linguistics, language teaching and learning, the term 'task' has a specific connotation as it deals with a specific psycholinguistic context. Hence it is given more precise definition.

'(…)an activity or action which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding language (i.e. as a response). For example, drawing a map while listening to an instruction and performing a command... A task usually requires the teacher to specify what will be regarded as successful completion of the task.' (Richards.J, J.Platt and H.Weber.1986: 289)

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This dictionary definition clearly states that the task is a reaction, a response to a preliminary stage leading towards understanding, processing of information, or transfer of that information from a place to another. It involves learners' performance and teacher's specification of expected outcome. Its successful completion is complementary. Taking this definition to classroom use makes sense because the task requires application in a pedagogical context. Nunan (1988a and 1989) clarifies this application of task definition in the following two quotes:

'(…) a unit of planning/teaching containing language data and an activity or sequence of activities to be carried out by the learner on the data.' (Nunan.1988a:159)

' ... a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right.' (Nunan.1989:10)

In the first quote, Nunan (1988a:159) considers the task as a whole unit of planning and/or teaching which contains information and activities carried out by the learners on that information. The teacher's task may be limited to planning data and activities while learners' task is focused on processing the information/data of the unit through classroom activities. In the second quote, Nunan (1989:10) clarifies what the learners carry out on the data as: 'comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language.' As a whole process of understanding, using and producing information, this seems to be processing the information contained in the data by using a number of strategies. 'Focus on meaning' and 'completeness' are aspects which Nunan's (1989) definition shares with Skehan's (1996:38):

'(...) an activity in which meaning is primary (...) there is some relationship to the real world (...) task completion has some priority (...) and the assessment of task performance is in terms of task outcome.' (Skehan.1996:38)

In addition to meaning and completeness, real world relationship and assessment of learners' achievements are also major concerns of 'task'. The more one attempts to limit the scope of the term, the more it expands. Nunan (1993a:55-57) admits that the term 'task' became so comprehensive that it overlaps with both syllabus design and methodology. He claims that if syllabus design is concerned with selection, justification and sequencing of linguistic and experiential data, methodology is concerned with selection, justification and sequencing of learning tasks and activities. He explains that the changing nature of syllabus design expanded the issues of "What" and "Why" to include "How" and "When" to learn, all of which represent tasks pedagogical commitment.

4.3.2. **Pedagogic criteria for good task selection**;

Good tasks should have, hence, some qualities which comprehensively include the four issues 'What', 'Why', 'How', and 'When'. Candlin (1987:19-20) provides an exhaustive list of such good qualities:

-provide attention to meaning, purpose, negotiation

-encourage attention to relevant data

-draw objectives from communicative needs of learners

-allow for flexible approaches to the task, offering different routes, media, modes of participation, procedure

-allow for different solutions depending on the skills and strategies drawn on by learners

-involve learner contribution, attitudes, and affects

-be challenging but not threatening, to promote risk-taking

-require input from all learners in terms of knowledge, skills, participation

-define a problem to be worked through by learners, centred on the learners but guided by the teacher

-involve language use in the solving of the task

-allow for co-evaluation by the learner and the teacher of the task and of the performance of the task

-develop the learners' capacities to estimate consequences and repercussions of the task in question

-provide opportunities for metacommunication and metacognition (i.e. provide opportunities for learners to talk about communication and about learning)

-provide opportunities for language practice

-promote learner-training for problem-sensing and problem-solving (i.e. identifying and solving problems)

-promote sharing of information and expertise

-provide monitoring and feedback, of the learner and the task

-heighten learners' consciousness of the process and encourage reflection (i.e. to sensetize learners to the learning processes in which they are participating)

-promote a critical awareness about data and the process of language learning

-ensure cost-effectiveness and a high return on investment (i.e. the effort to master given aspects of the language should be functionally useful, either for communication beyond the classroom, or in terms of the cognitive and effective development of the learner).

In this long list, no qualities indicate 'When' to use tasks, while there is only one which distinguishes 'Why' tasks should be used; it is the objective. However, the 'What' to focus on, as a learning activity, includes: relevant data, problem definition/sensing/solving, and language use. The 'How' to learn takes all the other qualities. It is obvious, then, that there is too much focus on How' to learn as a process which favours learning procedures. This obliges us, here, to check what the real components of a task are and how different task types can provide different task-based syllabuses..

4.3.3. <u>Task Components and types:</u>

The main attempt to limit the components of a communicative task was Nunan's contribution (Nunan.1988b:20 and 1993a:59). He limited the components to six elements; 'goal, input, activity type, teacher role, learner role, and setting'-and uses these components to analyse learning materials of language courses. As we compared, above, Nunan's definition to Skehan's, it seems that Skehan adds 'real world relationship' and 'assessment of learners' achievement to be essential components of a task.

Distinguishing more components will lead certainly to an exaggerated number of task types, as we shall see. As Nunan (1993a:62-63) provides a rational for the selection of real world and pedagogic tasks by relying on either needs analysis and/or SLA theory research, he distinguishes two types of tasks; -real world tasks provide for rehearsal and are determined by learners' needs analysis; and –pedagogic tasks which provide for psycholinguistic models of learning based on second language research findings.

Similarly, Skehan (1996:39) distinguishes two task types: a strong from and a weak form. The strong form means that a task:

'should be the *unit* of language teaching, and that everything else should be subsidiary. In this view, the need to transact tasks is seen as adequate to drive forward language development, as though language acquisition is the result of the same process of interaction as first language acquisition.'

The weak form means that:

'task-based instruction is clearly very close to general communicative language teaching. It could also be compatible with a traditional -presentation, practice, production sequence, only with production based on tasks, (...) rather than more stilted and guided production

activities. A weak form of task based instruction would claim that tasks are a vital part of language instruction. They are embedded in a complex pedagogic context, may be preceded by focused instruction, and followed by focused instruction which is contingent on task performance

To use Nunan's and Skehan's terms, we can say that 'real-world'/'weak form' tasks are relevant to foreign language teaching/learning contexts because they are biased by needs analysis, while 'pedagogic'/ 'strong form' tasks are the product and the application of second language theory research and findings for learners of various subjects in a second language. However, in a general consideration of task division and typology, Littlewood (2004:320-326) limits the scope of tasks in the communicative approach to two types: one focuses on meaning the other on form. He claims that what ever the nature and type of the activity, the foreign language learners is always involved in attempting to improve his proficiency in both, and this depends to a great deal on his ability to communicate effectively and correctly.

Detailed divisions and typology of tasks revealed further details to be considered. Breen (2001:153-154) identifies four types of tasks which imply the design of four slightly distinct task-based syllabuses: -communicative tasks involving learners in sharing meaning in the target language about everyday life; -metacognitive or learning tasks involve learners in sharing meaning about how the language works or is used in target situations and/or sharing meaning about students' own learning processes; -content tasks where content, methodology and learning interact during classroom lessons providing content and topic oriented syllabuses with formal tasks. –decision-making tasks providing a framework for negotiations about the purposes, contents and ways of working in process oriented syllabus.

Of course, Breen (2001:154-155) explicitly states, here, that this is an extreme proto-typicality of task-based syllabuses which may vary from one situation to another.

In almost the same way, Ellis (2003:210-216) distinguishes four types of tasks according to; 'pedagogical, rhetorical, cognitive, and psycholinguistic' classifications. For Ellis (op.cit), pedagogical tasks are directed towards learner training in the four language skills with focus on vocabulary and grammar, and have direct impact on the design of course books. They include tasks like 'listing, ordering or sorting, comparing problem solving, sharing personal experiences and creative activities like projects. Rhetorical tasks draw on theories of rhetoric that distinguish different discourse domains like narrative, description, instruction, reports, etc… to design courses for academic purposes. They are often linked to academic language functions in academic written discourse like definitions, classifications, giving examples, etc… Rhetorical tasks influence the negotiation of meaning and learners' production in various discourse domains. Ellis (opcit) claims that the rhetorical classification of task is very relevant to Swales' (1990) definition of 'genre' (see chapter 2, section 5).

For Ellis, cognitive tasks are those that focus on information processing according to Prabhu's (1987) model of three activities- see section 4.2 above. They are specific task types to procedural language learning that learners undertake when working on information. Psycholinguistic classification of tasks relies on interaction relationships that learners undertake with each other as holder, requester, and supplier roles. These tasks depend on goal orientation (whether they require agreement or disagreement of the partners) and outcome options (whether they require an 'open' or 'closed' end-outcome).

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These two typologies or classifications of tasks –Breen 2001 and Ellis 2003- show that task-based pedagogy and task-based syllabus design have gone a long way in the detailed study of the learning process, the learners' needs, the learning goals and objectives, and the learning outcomes in the classroom and in the real world. All these factors resulted in a variety of syllabuses each claiming it could satisfy the learners' needs.

One of the recent developments in the field of foreign language teaching, in Algeria, is the design of the so-called 'competency based' courses which aim at developing learners proficiency relying on a number of tasks clearly stated for teachers to follow. Riche et.al (2005:9-14) suggests that the learning progression of the textbook, designed for first year secondary school learners, relies mainly on the following tasks; raising interest, statement of a purpose, elicitation, reflection, prediction, problem solving, gradual-step by step-progression, and self-assessment. They claim that this is a competency based approach which is characterised by 'action-oriented, social-constructivist learning', and 'problem solving' tasks, and relies mainly on educational objectives as defined by Bloom's taxonomy.

We have to admit that all these tasks and the characteristic features of this approach existed earlier in the 1980's and the 1990's, either as exponents of the communicative approach or specific learning procedures derived from second language acquisition theory and research findings. The innovation in the Algerian course (Riche et.al 2005) is 'project work' which stands as an observable and measurable achievement of learners. Though this may be new to the Algerian foreign language context, the issue is again rather old in SLA. Skehan (1998:273-275) says that 'project work' has characteristic features of procedural learning:

-they are student-centred activities;

-they are likely to be collaborative;

-they integrate language skills and require balanced and realistic use of language;

-they contain a tangible end-product which makes the project pedagogically meaningful and socially purposeful.

The Algerian course designers (Riche, etal, 2005) adopt a task based approach –in the terms we presented in this section- which attempts to help learners make a compromise between knowing a foreign language and using it purposefully in problem-solving situations outside the classroom setting. This achievement is then called a competency of 'savoir faire' and 'savoir agir'.

5. **Materials defined**:

It is commonly mentioned that materials make the body of a language course and that they are commonly called 'content' either in syllabus or curriculum design and development (Nunan, 1988a: 4-7, and Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000: 187-195). Hence, they are said to represent the implementation of a designed course. At times, materials are confused for media of language teaching and include both language events (authentic oral or written texts) and language learning tasks.

5.1.　　　**Materials and Media**

Keeping the definition of the term inside this wide scope of 'content' may lead to a lot of confusion in the use of the term. This confusion is made so obvious in Graves '(2000: 149) who comments on the ambiguous use of the term 'materials' to mean 'techniques' and 'activities' and underlines the fact that 'boundaries between these three terms are always

blurred. For example, Tomlinson (1998) defines materials, wrongly, confusing them with media of language teaching. He says that materials are:

'anything which is used to help to teach language learners. Materials can be in the form of a textbook, a workbook, a cassette, a CD-Rom, a video, a photocopied handout, a newspaper, a paragraph written on a whiteboard: anything which presents or informs about the language being learned.' (Tomlinson, 1998: 11)

Is the textbook or the course-book a teaching material? Or is it a collection of language teaching materials printed in the same book? The same questions can be asked about the other examples Tomlinson (ibid) uses in his definition of materials; only a 'paragraph' can be considered as a material while all the other examples are media which of course help the teacher to present language teaching materials to the learners. In his contradictory glossary of terms Tomlinson (1998), for example, defines the course-book as:

'a textbook which provides the core materials for a course. It aims to provide as much as possible in one book and is designed so that it could serve as the only book which the learners necessarily use during a course. Such a book usually includes work on grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, functions and the skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking.' (Tomlinson, 1998: 09)

Isn't it obvious that the textbook is a container of a certain number of activities, exercises, language items and language abilities? Isn't it a medium of presenting language in its written form, thus using a writing channel of communication, to the learners? The same considerations can be made about the terms 'workbook, a cassette, a CD-Rom, a video, a photocopied handout, a newspaper, and a whiteboard'. All of them are media of presenting language to the learners while using the writing or the aural channels of communication. Media like the CD-Rom, the cassette or the tape can help the teacher to present the oral aspects of language to the learner. Other media like the blackboard, newspapers, the

textbook or the handouts can help him present all scripted –written- aspects of the language, with some additional visual elements like pictures and drawings. Video and the white board are audiovisual media which can help him combine and present oral and visual –non verbal or paralinguistic- features of language to the learners.

Other scholars attempted to clarify the role of 'instructional materials', 'commercial materials', and media but did not bring enough clear cut distinction. For example, Richards (2001) makes an ambiguous use of the terms 'materials' and 'sources' to mean the same thing as 'materials' and 'media' in the following quote:

'Much of the language teaching that occurs throughout the world today could not take place without the extensive use of commercial materials. These may take the form of (a) printed materials such as books, workbooks, worksheets, or readers; (b) nonprint materials such as cassette or audio materials, videos, or computer-based materials; (c) materials that comprise both print and nonprint sources such as self-access materials and materials on the internet. In addition, materials not designed for instructional use such as magazines, newspapers, and TV materials may also play a role in the curriculum.' (Richards, 2001: 251)

Here, Richards (ibid) interchangeably uses the terms 'materials', 'sources' and 'form' to identify containers of scripted, non-scripted, and a combination of both, as sources (written, oral, and audiovisual language) of information. However in the two last lines of this quote, the author identifies the mass media of communication as 'materials' and not sources from which a course designer can select some authentic materials.

What are materials then? According to the distinction above, between media and what they can present to the learners, we can define materials as all aspects of language usage and language use. All what the learners are exposed to inside or outside the classroom, in terms of speech, writing and visual -paralinguistic- meaning, represent materials that the learners

work on, in order to improve their proficiency level in that language. Teaching a foreign language implies the exposure of the learners to the forms and contexts in which language is expressed. These forms and contexts of language usage and use, and the various tasks designed for teaching and learning, are the materials. Presenting these materials to the foreign language learner, in or outside the classroom, through different pedagogical means, requires the use of some tools that we call media. They include all kinds of equipment that the teachers, or other pedagogues, use inside or outside the classroom. This distinction in the definition of both terms may seem too atomistic and somehow discourse biased (Olshtain and Celce-Murcia 2001: 214-215) but it is valid as far as it is comprehensive because it cannot isolate the learning of grammar and vocabulary from their contexts of communication and because materials and media have been twinned and confused for a long time.

We want simply to clarify that materials are language and culture specific, most relevant to and dependent on an approach, while media are world wide means of communication, relevant to education technology and dependent on financial resources. On one hand, one type of media, like the cassette or the audio tape can help the teacher to expose the learners to radio news, conversations and dialogues, repetition drills, and songs as materials which the learners have to listen to, understand, memorize or just repeat. On the other hand, one material like a song can be presented to the learners through at least two media of language teaching; it can be written in a textbook or recorded on a cassette. Thus the learners can either read it as comprehension, rhetorical, literary analysis task, or listen to it as a repetition or memorization task.

When we define 'materials' as language usage and language use, we do mean that we expose the learners to forms of language in terms of phonology, morphology, lexicon,

structural cohesion and logical coherence, in addition to aspects of language accuracy and contextualised modes of communication according to social, cultural, economic and scientific constraints imposed on language to express meaning. The first components of materials -in this definition, were the products of structural and audiolingual approaches. Their outcomes were in terms of phonology, morphology, lexicon, structural cohesion and logical coherence, through structural and conditioned behaviour, aiming at developing competence. The second components, however, were the products of the notional/functional and communicative approaches. Their outcomes were -in addition to the previous findings of the other approaches- categories of pragmatic, functional meaning, aiming at developing performance.

Whatever the type of materials, either usage or use, they are generally presented in the cultural features of the language in speech and writing, in addition to a certain number of world wide paralinguistic features. We can, thus, have three broad types of materials under which further subdivisions may be made according to the purpose for which they were originally or artificially produced: they are aural, reading, and paralinguistic materials.

5.1.1. <u>**Aural/Oral materials**</u>:

They are all types of speech manifestations of classroom or everyday language. They may be of formal, informal, literary or colloquial types. They include:

-materials to be listened to, like interviews, conversations, dialogues, radio news broadcasting, related stories, songs, etc...

-materials to be noted down like lectures, dictation, etc.....

-materials to be performed like repetition drills, instructions, etc...

5.1.2. <u>Reading materials</u>:

They are all types of script manifestations of classroom or literary language. They include:

-materials to be read silently like stories, short stories, novels, letters, newspaper and magazine articles, etc....;

-materials to be read aloud like poems, simulated news broadcasting, etc...

-materials to be read and performed, or followed as instructions, like cooking recipes, instructional leaflets, etc...

5.1.3 <u>Paralinguistic materials</u>:

Speech and writing do sometimes rely on additional information so that the messages get through to the audience. In speech, there is a lot of reliance on the interpretation of gestures, manners and facial expressions used on the spot or recorded on a visual medium that accompanies speech. In writing, however, this reliance has to be presented in a visual component like a picture, a table, a diagram, a chart, a plan a map or scenery which are generally included in the script or used as a visual supplement on an additional page. Some scholars would call these 'visual materials'.

5.2.   <u>Authentic materials and authentic texts</u>

Materials are also confused for texts because often do writers use the term to mean a number of things, like in Grave (2000) above, to include techniques and/or activities. Some scholars would preserve a wide definition for the term while others would limit it to the authentic text (spoken or written) like Tomlinson (1998)

'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 story 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. (Tomlinson, 1998:08)

This definition can be coined with, parallel to, the definition of discourse as a discourse event –see chapter on discourse. And, in this scope, authentic materials are all language manifestations in real contexts of communication. Whatever the situation in which language is produced and/or received, authenticity means straightforwardly, that there is a producer (speaker or writer) of a message – a certain amount of information structured in the way its producer wants it to be, in a general/specific rhetorical style (discourse features), to an expected audience. Authenticity, then, is very close to genre features which provide a specific framework of communication between an author and his/her audience, about a specific topic –see discourse and genre analysis in chapter 2.

5.3. <u>Authentic task pedagogy</u>:

Authenticity, hence, is closely linked to communicative effectiveness which can be challenged when the language material is deprived from its context or audience. It is obvious that language materials produced by and for native speakers are authentic as far as producers and receivers share background knowledge of information and language culture. Neither the foreign language learner nor the foreign language classroom can be the audience and the context for such authentic communicative effectiveness. In spite of the gap that exists between the foreign language learning and authentic communication contexts, many scholars claimed, and still claim, that the learners need to be exposed to authentic language materials, in order to bridge that gap. Most scholars, like Tomlinson (ibid) and Swales

(1995) would use the terms 'authentic text' to mean authentic discourse and interchangeably to mean 'authentic activities', learners' tasks and authentic pedagogy. In discussing the importance of authentic materials (produced by native speakers for native speakers), in implementing notional courses, Wilkins (1976: 79) claims that they should be used, whatever their difficulty, so that learners develop a 'receptive competence' and will be prepared to bridge the gap between the language of the classroom and the language of real communicative events. He means of course authentic texts and he explains:

'(…) in language courses generally, (…) much more attention needs to be paid to the acquisition of a receptive competence and that an important feature of materials designed to produce such a competence would be authentic materials. By this is meant materials which have not been specially written or recorded for the foreign learner, but which were originally directed at a native-speaking audience. Such materials need not even be edited, in the sense that linguistically difficult sections would not be deleted, although the linguistic content of such texts could well be exploited in various ways. The importance of incorporating such materials into courses is that they will provide the only opportunity that the learner will have to see the contrast between the somehow idealised language that he is acquiring and the apparently deficient forms that people actually use, to meet the forms of language current in speech and to develop the ability to understand language that he will never need to produce. In short, such materials will be the means by which he can bridge the gap between classroom knowledge and an effective capacity to participate in real language event.'

Concordantly, Candlin and Breen (1979: 183) define the utility and role of authentic materials not only as an 'opportunity' for the learners but also as 'means to the target rather than necessarily embodying the target itself'. This means that the fact of selecting authentic texts and developing them into authentic teaching/learning materials should not be an end in itself but a chance for both teachers and learners to keep abreast their awareness and familiarity with authentic language. Hence the use of authentic materials/texts was not

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neglected in foreign language teaching. Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 195) also take into account the authenticity of language teaching materials and think it does not only mean to use materials found in real context of native speaker language but also to create a context of pedagogical authenticity in the classroom by focusing learners activities on communication. Yuk-chun Lee (1995) and Guariento and Morley (2001) also assume that, native, authentic language materials should not be used as they are without changes and pedagogical measures which help recreating authenticity in the foreign language classroom. Where, for example, Yuk-chun Lee (1995) suggests 'learner authenticity', Guariento and Morley (2001) suggest 'task authenticity' to bridge the gap between classroom language and real communicative events. Swales (1995: 8-10) considers specific and authentic materials as a typical genre which should develop into a typical type of textbooks.

Learner authenticity, in Yuk-chan Lee terms, is a learner-centred methodology of focusing learning procedures on the learners' interaction (relying on learners' motivation and interest) with the authentic material which 'will not only provide them with linguistic and communicative competence, but also with an awareness of conventions of communication, which will enable them to use appropriate styles in different communicative contexts.' (Yuk-chan Lee, 1995:324)

Task authenticity seems to be slightly different from learner-authenticity because it is a learning-centred methodology which focuses on what the learners do with the text and information they receive from authentic materials. According to Guariento and Morley (2001: 349-350) task authenticity focuses on four pedagogical principles: 'genuine purpose, real world targets, classroom interaction, and engagement'. These principles are to a great

extent inherent in task definition, mentioned in the previous chapters –see chapter 5 on Syllabus design. There is, of course, no task without a purpose to be achieved in a realistic target situation which requires classroom interaction engaging the teacher's and the learners' roles in a successful task completion.

Tomlinson (1998), however, defines an authentic task as:

'a task which involves learners in using language in a way that replicates its use in the "real world" outside the language classroom. (…) 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.' (Tomlinson, 1998: 08)

and distinguishes it from a pedagogical task which is defined as:

'a task which does not replicate a real world task but which is designed to facilitate the learning of language skills which would be useful in a real world task. Completing one half of a dialogue, filling in the blanks in a story and working out the meaning of ten nonsense words from clues in a text would be examples of pedagogical tasks.' (Tomlinson, 1998: 11-12)

Thus, for Tomlinson, an authentic task would be a communicative, productive, outcome activity which may have a communicative effect to achieve a communicative purpose, while a pedagogical task is a learning practice, rehearsal activity which does not necessarily commit the learner to express a message but it trains him to do so. A pedagogical task is a prerequisite to the achievement of an authentic task.

We can conclude that task authenticity and learner authenticity –in the terms of scholars mentioned above- contribute in creating authentic pedagogy which is comprehensive enough to include a 'receptive- comprehension' task, a learning task, and a production task, all of

which take into account the exposure of the learners to authentic texts, learning the language aspects which help them develop their proficiency, and production of a purposive communicative output (McDonough, 2002: 118-119). Authentic pedagogy, thus, makes use of comprehension activities, practice and rehearsal activities and production activities, all of which make authentic materials.

6. **Materials analysis, evaluation, and development**:

Analysis and evaluation of language teaching textbooks and commercial materials are complex critical attitudes teachers adopt towards what they use every day as pedagogical tools. If the textbooks are somehow compulsory course-books designed and developed within ministry programme frameworks, commercial materials are designed and edited for a wide audience. Nevertheless, a teacher who is involved in the teaching profession has always a critical look at these tools. Informal analysis and evaluation of the materials contained in these tools become daily responses of the teachers who care about whether to use the materials as they are or bring some modifications to achieve pedagogical goals and learners' objectives.

Teachers who take the job for the first time are almost always in front of confusing situations where there are already designed textbooks that contain the required teaching materials, or where the materials are not available at all. In the latter, they will have to design and develop their own materials, and we will deal with this aspect of the teaching profession in the next sections of this chapter. However, in the former situation where the materials are provided in the textbooks, the teachers need at least to have a strategy of analysing and evaluating the material at hand, in order to use it more appropriately. This is

what most researchers would call materials adopting and/or adapting. Materials evaluation is defined by Tomlinson (1998: 11) as:

'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.' (Tomlinson, 1998: 11)

In the context of this research, our informants of both control groups had to analyse the materials found in secondary school textbooks according to some parameters of analysis and evaluation –see adoption and adaptation below. They had to practice pre-use and whilst-use analysis and evaluation as a prerequisite to materials design and development. It is necessarily professional for teacher-trainees to learn to think about, analyse and criticize already designed materials before attempting to design and develop their own materials. In other words, they had to learn what evaluation procedures and criteria they will have to use if they are to face a teaching situation that relies on textbooks, adopt and/or adapt it to their learners' needs and objectives, and at the same time be able to design their own materials whenever necessary.

6.1 **Adopting materials**

The consequences of materials analysis and evaluation lead teachers to adopt language teaching materials, i.e. use them in their lessons, or reject them. In the case of ministry educational programmes, the use of a given school textbook represents its adoption as the basic teaching material (Hutchinson and Torres, 1994:315-317). However, if the teacher

wants to use commercial materials (textbooks written outside ministry education programmes, for a wide audience), he/she is at least supposed to analyse and evaluate those materials before using them. McDonough and Shaw (2003: 59-72) consider that most teachers working with ministry educational programs are confined to use already designed textbooks (either for educational programmes or as commercial materials for a wide audience). They add (ibid: 62-70) that teachers can at least "evaluate" materials by using some "external and internal evaluation criteria".

External evaluation criteria are those that take into account the intended audience, proficiency level, context, organisation of units/lessons according to the author's view about language and methodology. Internal evaluation criteria, however, take into accounts the internal constructs of the materials such as sequencing, discourse skills, real interaction and the relevance of exercises to learners' needs, leaning styles and strategies. McDonough and Shaw (2003) conclude that this evaluation helps teachers adopt language teaching materials if they fit the criteria mentioned above.

6.2. Adapting materials

Adapting materials means bringing some changes to the already designed materials. This presumes that the teacher can adopt materials (ministry educational programmes or commercial materials), and then bring some changes that suit the teaching/learning context. The reasons of materials adaptation may vary from one context to another, depending on how much freedom teachers are allowed, the availability of time and means, to bring some changes to the materials, and the professional qualifications (knowledge and experience) which would help a teacher consider the quality of the materials at hand.

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McDonough and Shaw (2003: 77) express some reasons of materials adaptation which coincide with their internal evaluation criteria –mentioned above- and that can be summarized in the following:

-unsystematic and insufficient grammar coverage and practice;

-reading passages contain too much unknown vocabulary;

-comprehension questions are too easy, the answers can be copied from the text without real understanding;

-listening passages are inauthentic and sound like reading aloud, without guidance for pronunciation

-subject matter not appropriate to learners' age and interest

-the material is too much or too little in comparison to allocated time;

-too much or too little variety in the activities.

As the authors (ibid) point out, this is not an exhaustive list of reasons. The arguments for materials adaptation may also vary according to teachers' knowledge and awareness of learners' needs, expectations and achievements. Therefore materials adaptation is not a recipe or a prescription every teacher has to apply to the adopted materials. It is a set of relative measures (principles and procedures) teachers bring to bear on the materials in order to suit their teaching/learning contexts (Nunan, 1991: 219 and Hutchinson and Torres, 1994: 324-327). In this scope –and using similar terms, Tomlinson (1998: 11), McDonough and Shaw (2003: 78-85), and Richards (2001: 260) identify five measures that teachers undertake in adapting materials. They are: 'adding, deleting (omitting), modifying, simplifying, and reordering' measures.

Adding and deleting are obviously concerning the extension or limitation of the material according to time availability and constraints, and can also be due to the suitability of the material to learners' ability. Modifications bring changes to the material in terms of rewriting and restructuring the items of the material and, hence, may lead to simplifications of the authentic texts or the language activities. Reordering, however, is a reorganisation of the steps of the language activities that concern comprehension, practice and production in a way that seems fruitful to learners' achievements.

6.3. <u>Materials design and development principles and processes</u>

Course and textbook developers never start writing, designing and developing, materials from scratch. Designing and developing materials for language teaching has always relied on long experience in teaching and either wide or limited audience for whom the materials are designed. Pre-service and in-service teachers have more or less been involved in this process either as informants or as partners who contribute in the design and development of courses and materials. In most cases where teachers are involved, they develop autonomy of selecting, grading, and developing their own materials. This autonomy is to be understood as an ability of conceiving and writing materials according to a number of principles.

If one considers general, wide scope studies that deal with course and materials design for language teaching, Dubin and Olshtain (1986) pave the way to the language teacher by providing an 'expansion of the language content dimension' which implements a communicative syllabus (Dubin and Olshtain, 1986: 88-105). Their model –as a set of principles or guidelines- relies on the definition of 'general goals' which determine three areas of expansion:

-the content area includes the semantic grammatical categories, the functional categories, and the themes for meaningful and appropriate communication;

-the process area includes the cognitive, creative, and global workouts; and

-the product area which includes the skills emphasis, learner needs, and learner autonomy.

In this model, the content and the product areas are the two extremes of the general communicative course implementation. When course designers identify the grammatical, functional and thematic content of a language course, they try to satisfy learners' needs by putting emphasis on skill getting. Bridging the gap between the two extremes –content and product- cannot take place unless there is a cognitive process of learning. This is the most interesting feature of Dubin and Olshtain's contribution which they call 'workouts.'

'Workouts are language learning and language using activities which enhance the learner's overall acquisition process, providing planners and teachers with a variety of ways through which to make this process engaging and rewarding' (Dubin and Olshtain, 1986: 95-96)

These workouts are presented under ten categories of learning activities; operations/transformations, warm-ups/relaxers, information-centred tasks, theatre games, mediations/interventions, group dynamics, problem-solving tasks, information transfer and reconstruction, and skill getting strategies (ibid: 96). Although these categories are exhaustive to some extent, and each one is illustrated with examples, there is no comprehensive and methodological procedure of how they should be used when a teacher is trying to apply them in materials design. The authors, rather, draw a self-satisfactory relationship between these categories and some illustrations of textbook materials and activities extracted from other works (ibid: 125-144, 154-165). Whatever the advantages and/or drawbacks, these categories of activities are valid as far as they involve only their

authors in their own design and development of materials and represent thus a wide scope since they do not target any specific teacher or learner population .

Materials designed and developed for a limited scope of audience target the learners who will use the designed materials for some specific needs. At the same time, they are practical implication of teachers and/or teacher-trainees in the process of design and development. Such case studies and experiments emerged in the 1970's and are still practised in many countries where English is taught as a foreign language and/or for specific purposes (Mead and Lilley, 1975). We will present below an account of these studies to illustrate how long and beneficial the world-wide experience was to develop a number of materials production criteria.

Harvey and Horzella (1977: 37) sorted out of their case study in the humanities some first steps of materials production for ESP in order to satisfy the needs of Chilean students. They insisted on 'the determination of area and type of discourse samples, the formal/functional analysis of the samples, the selection of the formal/functional core-language to cover the most essential elements, and the organisation of resulting core-language into units.' The case study revealed a process based initially on rhetorical structures of academic discourse and ending with the organisation of the designed materials into units of a language teaching course. Similarly, Johns and Davies (1983: 2-3) reject the use of a 'text as a linguistic object' and adopt the use of reading comprehension texts 'as a vehicle for information.' Their basic selection criterion is the topic-type -see Chapter on Genre studies in EAP and topic-types (Kay, 1991) - which provides a framework for information structure and consequently leads to rhetorical organisation and structural features of the text. The latter will serve as guidelines for the material designer to produce

learning tasks and activities which favour information explanation, transfer, and extension (ibid: 12-13). Within the same scope, Scott (etal.1984:115) suggests a 'standard exercise' to teach reading comprehension of authentic texts, for Portuguese students, according to a top-down model of information processing. In the 'standard exercise' Scott (ibid: 115-116) provides a list of thirteen (13) steps which involve anticipation, skimming, scanning, reproducing, note-taking, inferring, lexical search, and speed in reading comprehension. The idea of using standard exercises in specific materials development projects would find its way through the next decades, as we shall see below.

Moore (1977) had a materials development project in order to teach EAP to Colombian students. The project started with a teaching team whose tasks were to determine the needs of the students and set some learning goals and objectives, to produce some isolated units, to teach and evaluate these units by teachers and students, and to revise and implement the units to suit a whole course. The most interesting findings of this project were the criteria for the selection of texts and the steps of materials production (ibid: 47-49). The text selection criteria included variety and interest, authenticity and relevance, conceptual/information structure to involve reading tasks, and level of difficulty. The materials production process required seven steps:

'-the analysis of information structure and cohesion of the text;
-the simplification of the text (when, why, what, and how to improve and/or remove some aspects of the text through reduction, expansion and adaptation);
-the presentation of the text (length, format and illustration with visuals);
-the exploitation of content (rhetorical and information structure);
-the exploitation of the text by producing exercise types which cover comprehension skills and language items like lexis;

-the reinforcement of exercises to identify items, form of instructions, questions and expectation of learners' responses);

-the application of evaluation criteria (purpose, type, content, interest, authenticity and difficulty) to each activity' (Moore, 1977: 48-49)

This early contribution in materials production was a pioneer work in limited scope of audience to meet the needs of Colombian students. Despite its regional limitation, the criteria of text selection and steps of materials production would remain valid all along the 1980's, 1990's and the beginning of the 21st century.

lautamatti (1978: 102-103) set grounds for the development of materials for a reading-oriented course based on teachers' knowledge of the reading process as a psycholinguistic model, knowledge of information, functional and formal structure of paragraphs, and knowledge of particular difficulties of Finnish learners in English as a foreign language. She distinguished a number of criteria for the selection and grading of reading tasks (ibid: 103-105) which include length of text, amount of information and structural properties, variation of reading tasks to achieve comprehension, and focus on classroom procedures which favour reading strategies and interaction in order to achieve communication purposes.

In the Algerian context of materials development, Bramki and Williams (1984) and Dwyer (1984) attempted to bring some innovation in two different ways. While Bramki and Williams (ibid) suggest 'lexical familiarization' in reading comprehension of Economics texts, Dwyer (ibid) provides a checklist of ten (10) steps teachers have to follow when developing their own materials. The limited scope of Bramki and Williams' exercise type (ibid: 170-171) is a 'guessing from context' strategy which uses a number of clues related to

language experience, modification of phrases and sentences, definitions and descriptions, comparison and contrast, reference, inference, and causality and result. However, Dwyer (ibid: 9) warns all teachers at Algerian schools against the confusion they tend to make between writing tests and writing learning materials on one hand , and the erroneous trial/error process they may adopt while developing their own materials on the other hand. Dwyer's checklist (ibid: 9-10) of materials development steps covers all aspects of pedagogical planning and writing of materials which range from the distinction of learners' level, purposes and objectives, to realistic language, clear instructions, consistency of items, diversity and generosity of tasks, and complementarities of team-work. Although Dwyer's contribution –like Moore (1977) above, does not provide any examples to illustrate the ten steps, it can be used as general guidelines for teachers and teacher-trainees who are likely to be involved in developing their own materials.

Exemplification of these steps is better provided in Graves (2000: 2-3) who relies on her experience with teaching and teacher-training in course design and suggests a general framework for course development processes. According to her framework, the general scope of course design should start at the level of defining the context of language teaching, articulating the psycho-linguistic and pedagogical beliefs and conceptualizing the content, leading to a definition of goals and objectives. The specific scope is a 'systematic' process which takes into account needs assessment, formulating goals and objectives, developing materials, design and assessment, and organising the course. For Graves (1996: 12-35 and 2000: 97-121,), materials design remains the core feature of course design because it is the evidence of course implementation. She suggests that needs analysis should gather information about the present (level of proficiency, interest, learning preferences and

attitudes) situation of the learners. She adds that needs analysis should also gather information about what the learners need to learn, and what they want to change (goals and expectations, target context, topics, content, communicative skills and tasks, and language modalities) in the future.

From her informants' suggestions -teacher-trainees, Graves' (2000: 156) draws a list of principles for developing materials:

- learners (experience and level, target and affective needs);
- learning (discovery, problem solving, analysing and developing specific skills and strategies)
- language (target relevant aspects of grammar, functions, vocabulary, the four skills, and the use and understanding of authentic texts)
- social context (provide intellectual focus and develop critical social awareness)
- activity/task type (to aim for authentic tasks, vary roles and groupings, and vary activities and purposes)
- materials (authentic texts, realia and varied printed, visual and audio materials)

We can see here, that even if these principles are determined by the exploitation of specific teachers' context as a limited audience or scope, they are not so different from those determined in wide scope contexts. When materials developers take into account these principles -the learners' background knowledge, the learning process, the language aspects, the social context, activity type and authentic texts, they apply them with a relative focus for a wide audience or notice and determine their importance during the process of developing materials. Richards (2001) and McGrath (2002), then come to the conclusion that materials design is not only a matter of applying and/or determining a number of principles. Both Richards (ibid) and McGrath (ibid) claim that materials design and development has to be an experiential and systematic process.

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Richards (2001:261-262) first draws attention to the advantages and disadvantages of involving teachers into the experience of developing materials, and then (ibid: 263-271) sets forth the steps of an experiential materials development project. He considers that the advantages of materials development can be:

-the relevance of the materials to the learners' and the institutional needs;

-the development of expertise among staff

-the reputation of the institution may be boosted by demonstrating its commitment to develop materials specially designed for its students; and

-the flexibility of the materials to be revised or adapted according to the growing needs of the institution and its learners

However, Richards (ibid) considers that the materials development experience may have some disadvantages as:

-Resources allocated to such an experience may be counter productive if teachers are not provided with enough time and financial resources;

-The teacher-developed materials will always have less quality of presentation if they are compared to commercial materials. The former are to be used for free by the learners while the latter have to care for marketing reasons;

-training teachers to develop their own materials is a necessary and crucial experience. If workshops are neglected, the whole experience will be a failure.

Richards (ibid) positive features stress the importance of the materials development for both teachers' career and experience and the institution's academic reputation in the educational context. We do not consider, however, the disadvantages as consecutive drawbacks but

rather as warnings to the educational community who sometimes deprive the teachers from the basic requirements of a successful experience.

According to Richards (ibid), materials design and development performed by teachers always take into account the syllabus objectives, content, structure and sequencing of the units. The teachers' contribution lies in two major tasks: the choice of input and the selection of exercise types (ibid: 264-267). The choice of input 'refers to anything that initiates the learning process' as speaking, listening, reading, writing and grammar materials undertaken by the teachers, and the selection of exercise types which involve the learners' work and practice on the selected input.

The combination of the above two choice represents and confirms our definition of materials in sections 5.1, 5.2, and 5.3 above. The selection of input depends on the variety of resources to choose from; most authentic materials (texts) are selected from the mass media or other real contexts of communication (letters, notices, songs, book extracts, etc…). The selected input represents the amount of information and language use and usage the learners are exposed to. The selected exercises (tasks, activities) represent the learning experience which engages the learners in understanding, practising and using (producing) language. There is of course a general agreement among scholars that learners have to be exposed to authentic language and learn that language in an efficient way. Efficient learning procedures are the most important choices a teacher/material designer has to bring into the learning process. Richards (2001), Rowntree (1997) Tomlinson (1998) for example, like many other scholars (section 4 above, about tasks), suggest a number of exercise types which would involve the learners in comprehension, practice and production of language. Arguments for

and/or against this pedagogical procedure may vary from one scholar to another according to the distinction one may make between teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language.

The selection of exercise types according to the PPP principle (Presentation, Practice, and Production) is adopted by 'most commercial materials but which proves to be insufficient in SLA pedagogy' because there is 'controlled practice imposed on the learners' (Tomlinson 1998: xii). Becket and Slater (2005: 108), however, advocate its advantages in ESL and even develop it into a 'project framework' for learners. In Foreign Language Teaching, McDonough (2002: 116-177) considers its advantages and suggests three stages of selection and grading of exercises: focusing exercises (semantic mapping, topic discussion, priming glossary and title discussion), processing exercises (anticipation, cloze procedure, unscrambling, coherence detection, and vocabulary search), and testing exercises (short answers, paraphrasing, summarizing, comprehension questions, and response writing). Further, Richards (2001) and Rowntree (1997) argue that the presentation, practice and production procedure represents only a general framework of implementation and that the role of the teacher/material designer is to make decisions on the type, variety, and generosity of exercises. Richards (ibid: 266-267) suggests four decisions to bear on the selection of exercises: top-down comprehension, interaction (meaning negotiation), linguistic and non-linguistic responses to the text; each decision is then supplemented with examples of instructional exercise types. Rowntree (1997: 102-106) also considers exercise typology from the same scope of decision making by asking three basic questions to be answered in each exercise: Why? What? and How? Would learners do (in) the exercise?

Rowntree (ibid) links the answers to these questions to learning theory, learning objectives (Bloom's taxonomy) and communicative task pedagogy

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Both works of Richards (ibid) and Rowntree (ibid) propose an experiential process of materials design and development that teachers/material designers have to practice because the craft requires a lot of drafting, revising and editing. Although the decisions they suggest might seem also similar to the list of principles suggested by Dubin and Olshtain (1986) and Graves (1996, 2000) in a way or another, the essence is here in the systematic use of principles, experiential value judgement and decision-making practiced by teachers/material designers who need to develop expertise and improve their autonomy. Richards (ibid: 267-271) distinctively adds that teachers should make of materials design and development an ongoing project for a life experience either individually or in a team.

Systematic materials design and development is the scope within which McGrath (2002: 138-161) puts the teachers' projects. McGrath (ibid) suggests that teachers as materials developers should systematically go through stages of abilities to do the following:
-systematizing brainstorming by considering that each input requires the use either one or more than one of the language skills in addition to the kind of language practice activities to focus on phonology, grammar, vocabulary, and /or discourse;
-systematizing the structure of activities and lessons to satisfy learners' needs and diversify their communication potential by providing adequate activities and clear instructions most convenient to their level and most possible to be taught in a relative classroom context.
-this practice in materials design and development will help teachers avoid stereotypes and develop 'standard exercises' for use with reading and listening texts. Here, McGrath (ibid:

144-147) surveys a number of experimental works in materials design and development and comes to the conclusion that standard exercises may vary in the type of instructions and number of items, but all of them can be classified under three categories:

-before reading/listening activities;

-first and second reading/listening activities;

-after reading/listening activities;

This categorization is relevant to learning styles and strategies adopted by all learners and proves that whatever the different contributions of course designers, learning activities are always based on the principle of exposing the learners to input by linking it to previous experience and background knowledge; processing the input through analysis, rehearsal and storage in memory; retrieval of the learned material to produce ones own messages. Teachers/material designers who wish to remain faithful to such principles have then to develop an exercise typology which reflects learning styles and strategies without loosing focus on learners' needs and specific learning purposes. Rowntree (1997) provides initial guidance and exemplification tasks of designing objectives and writing instructions for novices and distant teaching experiences but which cannot be generalised to all teachers.

<u>Comments and conclusion</u>:

We attempted to explain, in this chapter, the importance of syllabus design in language teaching and learning and its relative dependence on the various approaches and trends which developed in the field. The notional/functional and communicative trends have been taking the lead in the last three decades and even biased syllabus design towards learners' needs, learning procedures and learning outcomes. The application of these trends in

particular contexts resulted in a variety of syllabuses which converge on the principles of learning procedures but diverge on learners' needs and learning outcomes.

The problematic issue of syllabus and materials design and development is held in the grips of needs, processes and purposes. On one hand, almost all commercial wide audience syllabuses and courses develop language learning/teaching materials which attempt to focus on the achievement of a given proficiency level while adopting a given learning procedure. On the other hand all specific limited audience syllabuses and courses develop language learning/teaching materials which are based initially on a careful analysis of the limited audience needs, the definition of specific achievement objectives, and the design of appropriate materials and learning procedure. The former is nowadays a flourishing educational business while the latter is an experiential educational minefield for teachers and researchers who wish to improve specific learning/teaching contexts.

We have attempted, here, to determine the experiential criteria which may help any teachers involved in and/or attracted by designing and developing materials to implement their own courses or lessons. It is an ongoing, life-time experience which may help them develop their own autonomy of selection, adapting/adopting, and development of authentic texts to become learning/teaching activities for themselves and for their learners. Hence, all the studies mentioned in this chapter more or less distinguish a number of criteria which may guide teachers and materials developers to produce their own implementation of syllabuses, whole courses, units or single lessons.

CHAPTER FOUR

SITUATION ANALYSIS

Introduction

 1. The undergraduate students

Learners' identity and background knowledge

Willingness to learn, purposes and motivation

Proficiency level, difficulties and strategies

 2. Postgraduate students and teachers of the subject matter

Postgraduate population identity

postgraduate learning experience and suggestions

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Teachers' qualifications and experience

Course planning, materials and methodology

Teachers' materials design and development

 4. Summary of findings

Learning objectives

Learning difficulties and strategies

Materials development and implementation

Conclusion

Situation Analysis

<u>Introduction</u>:

The situation analysis in this research relies on the collection of data from the informants who are involved in the EAP course. They are first year undergraduate students, post graduate students and teachers of the humanities and social sciences, and teachers of English for academic purposes. These three categories of informants represent all the participants in the process of teaching EAP; their importance and role in this case study will help us determine:

- The background knowledge of the learners, their hopes and expectations, and their learning styles and strategies.

- The learning experience of the postgraduate population and teachers of the subject matter in the humanities and social sciences, their positive and negative impressions of the undergraduate EAP course, the difficulties they face now in English for their professional and research achievements, and the nature of the materials they are supposed to consult in English.

- The teachers' qualifications, experience and abilities in designing and implementing their own course through the development of materials which presumably would help their learners.

Hence, the situation analysis will use data collection, as a pilot study, to design and set learning objectives; explain the tendencies of learners' styles and strategies and provide a theoretical and practical framework for the design and development of authentic materials by EAP teachers.

1. **The undergraduate students**:

Like all Algerian universities, University of Mentouri in Constantine provides an English course for all undergraduate students. Hard sciences as well as the humanities and social sciences provide a one or two session-English course per week throughout the university curriculum. In this situation analysis, we are focusing the study on five departments of the humanities and social sciences where English is taught from the first year: History, Sociology, Psychology, Communication, Economics and Management. A representative sample of one hundred students from each departments were asked to fill in a questionnaire which surveys their background knowledge, learning experience, hopes and expectation, styles, strategies and difficulties in using English (see Appendix: I.1). The sample is relatively representative of the whole population; at times 100 informants represent 1/3 of the population like in sociology, history, and communication because the first year students are about 250 to 300 each year. However, it represents approximately 50% of the population in psychology, and only 20% in economics and management. The questionnaire was given in French and run by the EAP teachers themselves whose role was to supervise the random sampling of the informants. Each teacher had to run the questionnaire randomly to every second student on the attendance list of their EAP classes until they completed the number of 100 forms.

The choice of the French language makes it easier for the informants to understand appropriately the questions and provide answers in a language they master better than English. It also saves time and energy of translating the questionnaire and providing Arabic terminology which may be misleading for us and for the informants. Thus five hundred students from five departments had to answer 15 questions which may be set under three categories: -identity and background knowledge (questions 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and

6); -willingness to learn, motivation, expectations and objectives (questions 7, 8, 9, and10); -proficiency level, difficulties and learning strategies (questions 11,12, 13, 14, and 15).

<u>Learners' identity and background knowledge</u>:

The 500 undergraduate students, at the five departments of the humanities and social sciences, are aged between eighteen and twenty five. The majority of these informants are female; they represent 73 %. Obviously this reflects the evolution of female status in the academic world and society in general. The educational background is common to almost all the informants since all of them followed at least an English course at middle and secondary school during five years.

At middle school, all the learners spent two years learning English, using two course books -Spring 1 and Spring 2, with a course density of three hours per week. However, during the three years at secondary school, course density changes according to the four educational streams where learners were oriented: literature and human sciences, natural and exact sciences, mathematics, and technology. Each stream lays, of course, a greater emphasis on the subjects subsumed under the above disciplines but each stream provides an English course. Hence, in addition to a two-year course of three hours per week at middle school, our informants had a three-year English course whose density varied according to the educational stream; 23% were in literature and human sciences with a course density of four hours per week, 63 % in natural and exact sciences and 9 % in mathematics with a course density of three hours per week, and only 5% were in technology with a course density of only two hours per week. Therefore, we can say that

the average course density at secondary school is about three hours per week for a majority of 72% of learners from both sciences and mathematics streams.

The widely used textbooks at secondary school level were the Algerian course books *New Lines* and *My Book of English N°7* during the first year, *New Midlines* and *My Book of English N°8* during the second year, and *Comet* and *My Book of English N° 9* during the third year. This interchangeable use of either one of the textbooks in each school year is due to the fact that reforms in the English programmes are still in action and that the choice of either one textbook or the other depends also on the educational stream.

Apart from the English school textbooks and class hours, very few informants had additional/supplementary English classes or used extra-curriculum textbooks or courses. For example, only 03% of the informants had an additional/supplementary English class during 6 to 18 months of 2 to 4 hours per week. Again, a minority of informants (11%) used extra-curriculum textbooks and documents; 5% of the informants indicate that they used Baccalauréat examination tests – *Annales Corrigés d'Anglais, Test Your level in English, El Mumtaz Collection of Tests*, etc…and only 6% of the informants used wide audience, commercial materials like *Learn English in 5 days, English Without a Teacher, Les Premiers Pas en Anglais*, with the help of a bilingual dictionary. We can consider, here, that there is a very low interest in learning English outside class hours because learners are much more interested in passing the baccalauréat examination, hence a few of them attend private English courses provided usually by their school teachers. Even if they wish to learn English on their own, the only available course books

and materials are those prototypes of tests published as a collection of texts followed by a series of exercises commonly found in the baccalauréat examination tests.

Despite the English course length of five years, the course density of approximately three hours per week remains insufficient for learners to develop at least an intermediate level in, and enough background knowledge about, English. Worse is the context of extra- curriculum practice of the foreign language because the Algerian context is deprived of wide audience textbooks that teach English as a Foreign Language with varied and authentic materials.

Willingness to learn, purposes and motivation:

At university level, almost all our informants (see table below) show the need to learn English with varying willingness to devote a number of hours per week for practice during their spare time; only 9% think they do not need to learn English.

Willingness / Time devoted	YES: 91%	NO: 9%
2 hours per week	51%	00%
4 hours per week	8%	00%
6 hours per week	11%	00%
8 hours per week	21%	00%

Table 9: Undergraduates' Willingness and time availability

A simple majority of the informants would devote minimum effort and time to improve their level in English, a very low percentage (8%) would devote four hours per week for the same purpose. However, those who are willing to devote 6 to 8 hours per week represent an appreciable percentage since both choices represent not less than 32 % (1/3 of the informants) who are aware of the importance of English, motivated to learn it, and willing to devote the required time. This does not mean exactly that 51% of

informants who can devote only 2 hours per week are not motivated, but they may be unaware of the importance English has in the academic fields.

Learners' motivation for a foreign language does not only depend on how much time they would spend on self-studying but also on what they want to do with that language. Specific purposes of learning can clearly show the types of motivation learners have towards a foreign language. Further, learning with a purpose makes the learners willing to overcome difficulties they would encounter. Our informants were asked to grade the importance of their own purposes of learning English according to a list provided for them (see Appendix 1.1 question 10) which includes three major purposes of learning: educational, leisure, academic and professional purposes. In Table 10, below, we arrange the learners' choices according to these three major purposes of learning.

Major purposes	Totals:100%	Type of motivation
Educational purposes: pass exams	14.30 %	Instrumental
Leisure and vocational purposes: Music, pen-friendship, internet, etc…	10.70 %	Integrative
Academic and professional purposes: Read academic books and articles	75.00 %	Instrumental

Table 10: Undergraduates' purposes and motivation

Categorizing learners' purpose was done according to their first three choices from the list provided in the questionnaire. It was obvious that informants who selected a first choice of 'passing exams' are motivated to get their degrees in a short term; they represent only 14.30%. However, those who selected a first choice of 'reading academic books and articles' are also motivated to get their degree but are most significantly aware of the importance of English in a long term. Both of these categories represent 'instrumental' motivation, as opposed to 'integrative' motivation which is determined by learners' purpose of identifying themselves to the culture of the foreign language through

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music, mass media programmes, tourism and pen-friendship (c.f, Corder, 1973: 203). This category represents only 10.70 % among our informants. It does not mean, however, that this minority is not motivated. Both first and third categories represent instrumentally motivated learners who primarily want to see the utility and benefits of learning English. The second category represents affectively motivated learners who primarily consider emotional satisfaction of cultural feelings towards the foreign language community and culture as a purposive factor.

In order to confirm the above mentioned ideas, learners had to answer question N° 11 which takes into account Learning English for academic purposes as it provides a set of academic genres that learners would possibly like to read in English. Learners' answers were so important to analyse, here, because almost all of them (91 %) selected primary choices of reading academic subjects which are related to their university studies (Economics, Communication, History, Psychology, and Sociology). A few (09 %), however, gave priority to reading general subjects and information about Sports and other news. This purposive reading reflects how English is important for the learners throughout their academic development.

Proficiency level, difficulties and learning strategies:

The learners' attempts to read academic English texts have to be analysed with further possibilities of ease or difficulty in the foreign language. Question N°12 required from the learners to self-assess their own proficiency in reading English texts by pin-pointing the rate of ease or difficulty they encounter. In table 11 below, the majority of learners (61 %) found English texts very difficult to read while a minority of 02 % found

them very easy to deal with. Learners who graded English texts as just difficult to read represent 15 %, while those who found them rather easy represent 22%.

	Rate of ease or difficulty	Total 100%
a-	Texts are very difficult to understand	61 %
b-	Texts are difficult to understand	15 %
c-	Texts are easy to understand	22 %
d-	Texts are very easy to understand	02 %

Table 11: Undergraduates' proficiency level in reading

It is of capital importance for learners to be aware of their own potential in reading English texts because those who consider that their proficiency is too low (61 %) would either abandon reading and/or are conscious of the efforts they would need to make if ever they are to develop successful reading abilities. However, those who consider reading English texts as an easy task (they are only 02 %) presume probably that they no longer need an English course as long as their present proficiency can help them cope with English texts. Both categories b- and c- , though less than the majority, are very significant in terms of awareness and proficiency level; those who consider English texts as 'just difficult to read' (15 %) are most likely to read the texts effectively and use a lot of energy and effort to overcome the difficulties they would encounter, while those who consider texts as 'just easy to read' (22 %) would use less efforts and energy.

Despite the minimum five-year course at middle and secondary schools, the majority of first year university students still consider that heir proficiency in English is too low in general and particularly in reading English texts. The types of difficulties have to be determined through the same questionnaire in order to confirm learners' self-assessment of their own proficiency. Question N°13 requires from the learners to indicate the type of difficulties they encounter while reading English texts. It suggests five types of

difficulties –see Table 12 below, which include word meaning, sentence meaning, general/main ideas, specific ideas and supporting details, and meaning relations within the whole text. Learners' choices can be categorized as either single, double, or multiple type of difficulties.

Single-difficulty category of learners represents 44 % among which 16 % consider word meaning as their major difficulty among the five difficulties listed. Double-difficulty category of learners represents 40 % whose difficulties are spread out to ten (from 6 to 15) types and thus the percentage decreases in each type. Multiple-difficulty category of learners, however, represents only 16 % of the informants whose difficulties are spread out to six types, thus the percentage decreases in each type.

Category	Types of difficulties	Percentages per type	Prominence of a type in all types and categories
SINGLE DIFFICULTY: 44%	1. a-word meaning	16 %	45 %
	2. b-sentence meaning	08 %	37 %
	3. c-general/main ideas	04 %	36 %
	4. d-supporting details	07 %	40 %
	5. e-meaning relations	09 %	29 %
DOUBLE DIFICULTY: 40%	6. a + b	06 %	12 %
	7. a + c	06 %	10 %
	8. a + d	08 %	12 %
	9. a + e	03 %	06 %
	10. b + c	04 %	16 %
	11. b + d	05 %	15 %
	12. b + e	02 %	05 %
	13. c + d	03 %	13 %
	14. c + e	03 %	12 %
	15. d + e	03 %	12 %
MULTIPLE DIFFICULTY: 16%	16. a + b + c	02 %	06 %
	17. a + b + c + d	01 %	04 %
	18. a + b + c + d + e	03 %	03 %
	19. b + c + d	04 %	10 %
	20. b + c + d + e	02 %	05 %
	21. c + d + e	04 %	09 %
TOTALS: 100 %		100 %	

Table 12: Undergraduates' types of reading difficulties

The degree of precision in these categories and types helps us understand, from a preliminary glance, the difficulties faced by the informants according to each difficulty

type and hence we can consider that the majority of informants -in single and double categories (44 % + 40 %) have difficulties in reading and understanding English texts while a minority of informants (16 %) have very serious problems of understanding as their difficulties increase in complexity. However, if we consider each difficulty type in addition to its prominence, frequency among its own category (single, double or multiple) and the other types and categories, then the percentages become much more meaningful. For example, if we consider the prominence of 'word meaning' as a single difficulty alone, it simply represents 16 %; but if this percentage is added to the percentages of all the types of difficulties where it is mentioned within double and multiple types of difficulties, then it represents 45 % of the whole informants who have difficulties of understanding word meaning.

When the same process of frequency counts is applied to all the types and categories, we end up with 'supporting details' as another meaningful difficulty type as it represents 40 %. This correlation explains the fact that detailed, precise information is generally expressed in precise terminology that learners have to scan; if the difficulty of understanding this terminology is high then the whole process of scanning for specific information is hindered.

Although understanding sentence meaning, general ideas, and meaning relations within a text have low percentages -of 37 %, 36 %, and 29 % respectively, in comparison to the understanding of word meaning and supporting details, their importance should not be neglected. Grammatical and syntactic relations within a sentence may also represent major difficulties for learners even if they can overcome 'word meaning' difficulties through the use of dictionaries. If learners can hardly

understand the grammatical complexity of a given sentence, then drawing relationships between that sentence and other sentences in the text will represent a higher level difficulty. It is obvious, then, that the four types of difficulties range from 45 % to 29 % of frequency counts and hence draw our attention to their importance in determining the present proficiency level of the learners.

Whatever their proficiency level, the consequence lays in the strategies they follow to overcome their difficulties. High or low, proficiency is a level of performance which allows the user of a foreign language to receive and/or send information through a number of moves or strategies. Within this scope, the informants were asked to point out the strategies they use in reading English texts and classify them in the order they would use them while reading. Question 14 asks the informants to classify the order of reading steps and/or stages together with the moves and strategies they use while reading; question 15 asks the learners to determine from a list the strategies they adopt to overcome difficulties of understanding sentence meaning and meaning relations in a text, while question 16 asks them to determine out of a list the strategies they use to overcome their difficulties in understanding word meaning.

In question 14, ten moves and/or strategies are provided in a scrambled order for the informants to choose from, while reading a text. The moves and strategies are organised in five categories which summarize the nature of the moves and strategies into reading techniques: skimming, scanning, lexicon-semantic search, writer's purpose and reader' anticipation, and dependence. Informants' answers are set in four groups; each group represents a percentage of informants who choose a given strategy as a first step, a second strategy as a second step and a third strategy as a third step in reading –see table

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13 below. Group 1 represents 41 %, group 2 represents 32 %, group 3 represents 17 %, and group 4 represents 10 % of all informants. Each group is represented by its percentage in the column that indicates first, second, and third step of using a given strategy.

Group 1 represents 41 % of informants who, straightforwardly, skim the text to get the gist of it and then move -in their second step- to look for the meaning of difficult words in context, using an English dictionary or simply by translating the words into Arabic or French (using a bilingual dictionary). Their third move is to scan the text to understand secondary ideas and supporting details.

Strategies and moves	Groups	1st step	2nd step	3rd step	frequency
Understanding the general/main idea of the text; getting the gist: a **skimming** technique	1 2 3 4	41 % 32 %			73 %
Understanding secondary ideas and supporting details; a **scanning** technique	1 2 3 4		32 % 17 % 10 %	41%	100 %
Understanding difficult words through context, using a dictionary, translation: a **lexicon-semantic search**	1 2 3 4	10 %	41 %	32 %	83 %
Understanding the introduction and the conclusion: **writer's intention and reader's anticipation**	1 2 3 4			17 % 10 %	27 %
Seeking help from a teacher, a friend, a classmate, or someone else: **dependence**	1 2 3 4	17 %			17 %
Totals: 100 %		**100 %**	**100 %**	**100 %**	//////////

Table 13: Undergraduates' reading strategies

Group 2 represents 32 % of informants who also, directly read the text for its substance as a first skimming strategy, move in their second step to scan secondary ideas

and supporting details, and as a third step they would attempt to look for the meaning of words that still hinder their understanding. Groups 1 and 2 proceed similarly in the first step but they interchangeably use the second and the third steps. Both group 1 and 2 represent 73 % of informants who start reading a text through a skimming strategy. Group 2 (32 %) continues reading, as a scanning exercise. Then, they would stop reading and make a lexicon-semantic search when their understanding is hindered by difficult words. However, group 1 (41 %) does not continue reading further details for comprehension which is hindered by difficult words. From their first skimming of the text, learners' proficiency deprives them from further progress; so they stop reading, look up the meaning of words first, and then go back to the text. The strategies of these two groups, who represent a majority of informants, indicate to what extent learners use both top-down and bottom up strategies of comprehension.

Group 3 (17 %) do not proceed on their own; they first rely on the teacher or someone else to help them understand some aspects of the text, and then go through a scanning strategy, looking for detailed information. Last, they would attempt to understand what the introduction and the conclusion are about. Dependency is obviously the starting point of any kind of further reading; one that seems inherited from classroom, teacher centred pedagogy which usually provides an explanation of new vocabulary and thus deprives the learners from personal commitment and effort. However, group 4 (10 %) identify difficult, new words in the text and try to find their meaning –as a first step, and then go through a scanning strategy to look for detailed information. Their last step is to understand the introduction and the conclusion. Although both groups 3 and 4 use as a second step their strategy of understanding detailed information contained in secondary ideas and/or new vocabulary, group 4 is

much more independent because their efforts in lexicon-semantic search represent their personal commitment and strategy.

Looking deeper into the data of this section, provided as statistics in the table above, helps us draw some correlation between learners' choices and reading strategies. If we compare the list of steps provided in the questionnaire to the informants' first three choices we can say that the most frequently used strategies, either as a first, second or third step, are scanning (100 %), understanding lexicon (83 %), and skimming (73 %). However, the less used strategies are: understanding the introduction and the conclusion (27 %), and still less, seeking help from someone else (17 %). In addition, the table shows some limitations and shortcomings of the use of strategies as a first, second, or third step. For example, skimming, understanding the introduction and the conclusion, and dependent reading strategies are not at all used as a second step. Skimming and dependent reading strategies are not at all used as a second or third step. An explanation of this phenomenon is quite necessary here. Skimming and dependent reading represent two categories of learners: those who are capable of reading the text attempt to get the gist of it first. If ever they face further difficulties, they would then adopt another move or strategy. They either focus on the details or look up the meaning of difficult words. Those who are not able to do so tend to rely on the help of someone else, and then - depending on the kind of assistance provided to them, they would scan the text to understand the intention of the author or draw a relationship between their anticipations and the conclusion. It is also worth mentioning that scanning, and understanding the introduction and the conclusion are never used as a first step. Both strategies require a certain familiarity, background knowledge with the information provided in the text

and/or a certain proficiency level in English. Both strategies require a preliminary step of skimming.

The learners' reading strategies progress and develop in order to find solutions for the difficulties they face. Two types of difficulties were suggested to them in the questionnaire: understanding information in a sentence or a number of sentences, and understanding difficult-new words. Both difficulties are prominent in our findings shown in table 12 above. A list of solutions, strategies or techniques, are suggested for them to choose from. When asked about the strategies they would use to face the comprehension of a sentence or a number of sentences, they had to select solutions from the following:

-re-read the whole text from the beginning: anaphoric context;

-re-read the whole sentence(s) which is/are difficult to understand: literal meaning;

-continue reading without doing anything: cataphoric context;

-seek help from someone else: dependence/reliance:

-lay down reading the text: abandon

Informants' choices can be set into five groups (see table 14, below). Both the first and the third groups of informants -who represent 48 % and 08 % respectively, rely on the context of the sentence in order to understand. Anaphoric contextual search of meaning (for the first group) represents a strategy of building meaning according to information that has, or has not been, understood. This strategy shows a notion of doubt in the learners' understanding of what precedes and its relationship with the sentence(s) under scrutiny. So, learners re-read to make sure that what they have already understood has got a relationship with and/or helps them understand that sentence. However, cataphoric contextual search of meaning (for the third group) represents confidence of

the reader in what has been understood to anticipate further guesses which may help depict the meaning of sentences that hinder complete comprehension.

Groups	Strategies of understanding sentence meaning	Totals
01	re-read the text from the beginning: anaphoric context	48 %
02	re-read the whole sentence(s): literal meaning	32 %
03	continue reading: cataphoric context	08 %
04	seek help from someone else: dependence/reliance	07 %
05	lay down reading the text: abandon	05 %

Table 14: Undergraduates' sentence meaning strategies

The second group of informants who represent 32 % focuses on literal meaning, in an attempt to understand the sentence(s) under scrutiny. This restrictive move hinders learners' comprehension of texts because they do not draw a relationship between what has been read and what will follow. It is a break in the reading process which shows reader's disability to rely on information that has already been read and anticipate further developments in text comprehension. Both groups 4 (07 %) and 5 (05 %) represent dependent and helpless learners whose proficiency level is too low and hence are deprived of any kind of personal reading strategies. Even if informants of group 4 use a social strategy to rely on the help of a teacher or someone else to boost their ability in reading texts, informants of group 5 get quickly discouraged and, thus, abandon reading completely. Group 5 then, represents learners who have a very low proficiency in English and a lack of cognitive and/or social strategies.

Understanding new-difficult vocabulary is also a major problem that learners generally face when reading English texts. The informants were asked which techniques, strategies or solution they would choose to solve this problem. Out of the list provided for them in the questionnaire, informants had to choose the ones they would probably use. Their

choices –see table 15 below, are presented in six groups, each corresponding to a given strategy:

Groups	Lexicon/semantic search strategies	Totals
1	Use an English dictionary	39 %
2	Understand according to context	31 %
3	Find synonyms in the same text	04 %
4	Translate into Arabic or French: a bilingual dictionary	23 %
5	Seek help from someone else	01 %
6	Do nothing; abandon reading	02 %

Table 15: Undergraduates' lexicon/semantic search strategies

It comes out from this table that three major strategies are used by the informants. Group 1 (39 %) represents learners who would use extra-textual reference of looking up words in an English dictionary. This ability to use the dictionary must be elaborate and experienced enough to avoid misinterpreting the meaning of a word because the dictionary may provide different meaning for different contexts of the same word. Group 2 (31 %) represents learners who would rely on their contextual understanding to interpret the meaning of the new-difficult word. The learners, here, rely on their previous knowledge of English and the subject, their present understanding of the incoming information, and their anticipation of probable new information and new English words. This is a cognitive guessing game strategy which requires from the learners to use a relative number of probabilities of meaning interpretation and negotiation while reading. Group 4 (23 %) however, represents learners who rely on a bilingual (English-French or English-Arabic) dictionary. This bilingual strategy is useful in the sense that it encourages translation but it may turn out to be as confusing as the use of extra-textual information from an English-English dictionary.

A minority of informants, in Groups 3 (04 %), 5 (01 %), and 6 (02 %), use very distinct strategies. While Group 3 represents learners who are very precise in their

contextual meaning interpretation and thus are more predictive in meaning negotiation than informants from Group 2 -who use almost the same strategy, Group 5 represents learners who would rely on other people to help them understand and thus adopt a social strategy of learning. Group 6 represents helpless learners who abandon completely the reading activity certainly because of their low proficiency level and their lack of using cognitive and/or social strategies.

To sum up the characteristic features of the learners' population, relying on the informants responses to the questionnaire, we can draw the following conclusions:

- The learners' population is of young adults who attended at least a five-year English course at school;

- The learners are motivated to learn English in general and read English texts related to their discipline in particular.

- Despite their willingness to learn English, they still face a number of difficulties in reading.

- Almost all learners attempt to use cognitive strategies of comprehension (background knowledge, systematic comprehension strategies of sentences and words) while a minority would rely on social strategies (seeking help from someone) or abandon reading.

2. __Postgraduate students and teachers of the subject matter__:

The undergraduate population represents learners at the beginning of the academic process. Even if they already dealt with English for Academic purposes in some texts at school, they still have the opportunity to improve their proficiency during their undergraduate course. The postgraduate population and teachers of the subject matter at

the humanities and social sciences are rather at the end of the teaching/learning process in English: now, they have to rely on their previous learning experience to face whatever kind of texts they have to deal with in order to satisfy their academic needs.

A questionnaire was given to a sample of 100 postgraduate students and teachers of academic subjects -20 from each department- in order to investigate their learning experience and suggestions of improvement, their present needs in using English to satisfy academic and research requirements; the language skills and type of documents most frequently used.

2.1.　　　**Postgraduate population identity**:

As mentioned above, the postgraduate and teachers population is from five departments of the humanities and social sciences (see Appendix I.2, items 1, 2, 3, 4). 58 % of our sample have a Magistère degree and are still doing research to get a Doctorat, while 42 % have completed their research, got a Doctorat, and are now teachers/supervisors in various research projects. All Magistère holders said they were still doing research- of course preparing their Doctorat theses; the number of years they spent on doing research varies from 2 to 6. Some Doctors have completed their research while others are working on research projects; the number of years they spent doing research varies from 6 to 10.

2.2.　　　**Postgraduate learning experience and suggestions**:

The informants' experience in learning English is very diverse; all of them learnt English at the academic level but the number of years varies from 1 to 6. We can explain this by the fact that in some departments, like history, psychology and sociology, English was not taught at all during the undergraduate course and it is only at the postgraduate

course that a one-year compulsory English course was introduced. However, at other departments like economics and management, English is taught regularly at undergraduate and postgraduate courses. It is only during recent years that English became a compulsory subject at all university departments.

The informants' opinions about the utility, aspects of the undergraduate English course, and suggestions for improvement are covered in items 5, 6, and 7 of Appendix 1.2. Although the utility of the English undergraduate course is quite satisfactory for research, as 63% of the informants said they found it helpful, a number of inadequate features about the course are mentioned, and are shown in Table 16 below.

The postgraduate students' evaluation of the undergraduate course reveals a number of deficiencies. It appears, from this table, that 5 out of the 7 suggested features turned to be inadequate: course density, text selection/utility, methods used, reading/writing, and individual free practice. The course density of one session per week, generally devoted to English in almost all the university departments –except for economics and management which devote two sessions- is too low to contribute in the improvement of learners' proficiency.

Course aspects	Adequate	Inadequate	Totals
Course density	03 %	97 %	100 %
Teachers' competence	77 %	23 %	100 %
Text selection and utility	44 %	64 %	100 %
Methods used	35 %	65 %	100 %
Listening and speaking practice	62 %	38 %	100 %
Reading and writing practice	21 %	79 %	100 %
Individual free practice	15 %	85 %	100 %

Table 16: Postgraduates' evaluation of the undergraduate English course

The methods used, the choice of texts, the lack of reading/writing activities and individual free practice outside class hours deprive the learners from strategies of dealing

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with academic discourse on their own. Hence, when postgraduates and teachers of academic departments want to use English for their research theses and projects they face a number of difficulties -as we shall see below.

Consequently, when the informants are asked to suggest improvements, their answers correlate with their evaluation of the English course –see Table 17 below. The highest prominence goes first to the increase of course density. Diversifying learning materials and the choice of appropriate texts are also given a high importance. Reading and writing practice in addition to translation from English to Arabic are given prominence as well because research documents are mostly provided in English, either as reading resources or as virtual documents on the internet, and also because all humanities and social sciences are taught in Arabic.

Features to be improved	Yes	No	Totals
Course density	100 %	00 %	100 %
Diversifying learning materials	81 %	19 %	100 %
Selection of appropriate texts	65 %	35 %	100 %
Teacher's methodology	41 %	59 %	100 %
Listening and speaking practice	42 %	58 %	100 %
Reading and writing practice	76 %	24 %	100 %
Encourage translation	73 %	27 %	100 %

Table 17: Features to be improved in the undergraduate English course

2.3.   Postgraduate present needs:

In order to check the relevance of the informants' suggestions, we asked them to indicate learning tasks and activities which are important according to their present needs. Their choices, out of a list of suggested abilities, are shown in Table 18 below.

Learning tasks needed by postgraduates	Yes	No	Totals
Translation	73 %	27 %	100 %

Listening comprehension	32 %	68 %	100 %
Oral expression	41 %	59 %	100 %
Reading comprehension	76 %	24 %	100 %
Written expression	55 %	45 %	100 %
Grammar practice	48 %	62 %	100 %
Note-taking	62 %	48 %	100 %

Table 18 Postgraduates' needs of learning tasks

As expected, the most necessary skills and abilities selected by the postgraduate informants turned out to be reading comprehension and translation which scored 76 % and 73 % respectively. Note taking, written expression and grammar are also important as they scored more than 50 % each. However, listening comprehension and oral expression did not reach even 50 %. The reading skill in English for academic purposes is hence confirmed to be the most required ability. When difficulties in reading arise, translation is the quickest strategy a researcher may turn to in order to save time and energy. This strategy –in addition to others- is applied because the informants certainly find difficulties in reading and this has been already indicated by undergraduate informants and shown in the analysis of their questionnaire (see section 1.3, above).

The purposes of such needs have also to be confirmed by the postgraduate informants' answers to the rest of the questions. Consequently the next question in the questionnaire required from them to indicate the contexts in which they would have to use English for their research. The suggested contexts include travelling and handling a conversation, speaking and delivering a speech, listening and note-taking in conferences, reading specialist periodicals and writing research articles, and visiting internet sites.

Contexts of using English	Yes	No	Totals
Travel and conversation	11 %	89 %	100 %
Conferencing	00 %	100 %	100 %

Listening and note-taking in conferences	00 %	00 %	100 %
Reading specialist periodicals	87 %	13 %	100 %
Writing and publishing research articles	05 %	95 %	100 %
Visiting internet sites	83 %	17 %	100 %

Table 19: Postgraduates' academic English contexts

The results (see Table 19 above) show that the wide majority of the postgraduate informants use English to read specialist periodicals and visit internet sites, while a minority would use it to travel abroad or write research articles to be published in international specialist periodicals.

The penultimate question in the questionnaire asked the informants to indicate the type of English documents they would use in their research. Out of a list, they had to indicate whether they would use newspaper articles, research articles from specialist periodicals, research books and theses, internet articles, and multimedia programmes (audio and/or video recordings). The results of their choices (see Table 20below) show that the most frequently used materials –as research documents in English- are research articles (from periodicals or internet sites), books and theses.

Materials used by postgraduates	Yes	NO	Totals
Newspaper articles	17 %	83 %	100 %
Articles from specialist periodicals	88 %	12 %	100 %
Research books and theses	89 %	11 %	100 %
Articles from the internet sites	75 %	25 %	100 %
Multimedia (audio/video) programmes	14 %	86 %	100 %

Table 20: Postgraduates' academic materials and media

These results correlate to a great extent with the results of the two previous questions where the informants precisely indicated that the most frequently needed tasks are reading and understanding in academic contexts. A slight increase is noticed in the rate of using mass media resources -newspaper articles and multimedia programmes which

scored 17 % and 14 % respectively, because among the informants there are postgraduate students from the department of Communication (journalism) who would probably rely on these materials as research data.

The final question in the questionnaire asked the informants to write down the solutions they would find to solve difficulty problems, when they use English materials for their research. 60 % of the informants answered this question and all of them indicated that they would either use a dictionary, the computer translator, or seek help from a teacher of English. This shows that a majority of the informants have problems of using English on their own and even if they attempt to do so they still loose time and energy on translation.

We can summarize the results of this section –as data collection through a questionnaire, in a number of assumptions about the undergraduate course and the postgraduate present needs. It comes out clearly from the analysis and interpretation of the results that a wide majority of postgraduate population suggests improvements in the undergraduate course through an increase of course density, and focus on learning tasks and materials most appropriate and most frequently used in postgraduate research. An improvement in the undergraduate course will certainly save time and energy for the researcher who, now, either seeks help from the English teaching staff or will get stuck in time consuming and problematic translations.

3. **The teachers of EAP**:

The intermediate, mediator, between the undergraduate students of the English course and the postgraduate present academic needs are the teachers of English for Academic purposes. Their role implies their commitment to improve the undergraduate proficiency level in order to achieve a number of objectives which, among others, will help the learners deal with English related to, not obligatorily about, their academic subject areas in the future.

A questionnaire (see Appendix I.3) is given to a sample of ten teachers of EAP at the five departments of the humanities and social sciences (five departments mentioned above).These ten EAP teachers are the same who were in charge of running the first year students' questionnaire in a random way. The sample is representative (almost 1/3 of the population) in the sense that, during the last thee years, the average number of the whole population of teachers appointed by the Department of English to teach EAP at the five academic departments is 36. The questionnaire can be divided in three sections: the teachers' qualifications and experience, course planning (objectives, materials, and language skills and activities used), and materials design and development.

3.1.   <u>Teachers' qualifications and experience</u>:

All the informants -teachers of EAP at the five departments of the humanities and social sciences- had a BA in English as a Foreign Language and graduated during the academic years 2000 and 2003. By the time we run the questionnaire, these teachers had 1 to 3 years experience of teaching English at these academic departments. This presumes that all the informants, and hence all the teachers' population, received at least a general TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) course which is provided in the fourth year Licence curriculum. Although this is not a teacher-training programme it,

nevertheless, provides the future teachers with the essential elements of course planning and instructing.

3.2.   <u>**Course planning, materials, and methodology**</u>:

This second part of the questionnaire investigates the teachers' planning and methodology of the EAP course at the humanities and social sciences' departments. Questions –a- and –b- attempt to clarify the teachers' knowledge and/or design of the long-term and short-term objectives of the course. Their answers to these two questions were merely pedagogical goals of their own profession or inappropriate statements in view of the expected achievements of an EAP course. The teachers did not provide any kind of achievement to be attained by the learners on the short and long run. The following list of their answers reveals a lack of knowledge and writing practice of achievement objectives:

a- *'to develop their language competence'*

b- *'to have a good communicative competence, specially things about economy'*

c- *'to keep some grammatical principles of the language'*

d- *'to master English grammar'*

e- *'to develop their listening and writing skills'*

f- *'to learn the most important technical terms'*

g- *'to understand the lesson without relying on translation'*

h- *'to be involved in the lesson and ask questions about difficult words, contexts, etc...'*

i- *'to develop their listening skill by identifying sounds'*

j- *'to develop listening and reading'*

k- *'to speak and write good technical economic English'*

l- *'to develop their reading and oral skills to recognise the logical order of ideas in writing'*

These statements, in general, reveal inappropriate writing of objectives in terms that clearly state what the learners are supposed to do after successful instruction. Verbs like

'*develop, be involved, learn, keep, master,* and *understand'* do not express any kind of language performance that can be observed and measured as signs of successful learning. Further, the statements do not express contexts and conditions of performance which determine the materials to be used or the level of proficiency. They, in fact, express what the teachers intend to achieve through their pedagogical goals by focusing on the learning process (*develop; understand; learn; keep; master*) and classroom interaction (*be involved in the lesson; ask questions*). The statements which include expressions such as *'language competence'*, *'communicative competence'*, *'some grammatical principles of the language'*, *'English grammar'*, and language skills, show that the teachers have a background knowledge of language description and language learning but are not trained and, hence, fail to use that knowledge successfully in writing language teaching/learning objectives.

Only the following two statements represent what the learners can be able to do/perform with language: *'to recognise the logical order of ideas in writing'* and *'to speak and write good technical Economic English'*. Even if there is a kind of performance in these two statements, the acts of 'recognising logical order' and 'speaking and writing good technical Economic English' have to be determined by specifying what to speak/write about; a letter, a process, a phenomenon, a paragraph, an essay, a research article, etc…

Questions –c- and –d- required from the teachers to indicate the type and specify the source of materials they rely on to teach. Concerning the type of materials, only 40 % of the teachers rely on general English textbooks while 60 % rely on ESP and EAP textbooks. In addition to the materials found in these textbooks, 80 % of the teachers say

that they collect teaching materials from their colleagues and also design their own materials (see Table 21 below).

Materials used by EAP teachers	Yes	No	Totals
General English textbooks	40 %	60 %	100 %
English for Specific Purposes textbooks (Academic fields of the students)	60 %	40 %	100 %
Gather material from other teachers	80 %	20 %	100 %
Select and design personal materials	80 %	20 %	100 %

Table 21: EAP teaching materials

However, when they are asked to specify the source of their materials, the teachers do not provide enough information as only 40 % of them gave some incomplete references;

-Michael,B Smith - *The language of Trade* – no Date, no Publisher;

-No Author   - *Self background English Grammar* –no Date, no Publisher;

-Serradj Brahim- *The best of English Grammar*- no Date, no Publisher;

-No Author – *The emerging Discipline of Human Communication*- 1993 –Merrill Co, New York;

- No Author- *English Grammar for all Levels* – no Date, no Publisher

-Internet Sites –no Titles, no Date, no Address.

This very impoverished information –even for recently graduated and newly appointed teachers- about the authors, date and publishers of textbooks -which a majority of teachers indicated that they use in their courses- shows how poor and superficial is the knowledge of the informants about the importance of checking the source of their materials before using them, and how dramatic is the situation of the EAP teachers in general! We can presume from this situation that most EAP teachers exchange materials from each other (80 % -see Table 21 above) without seriously considering their authenticity. The choice of designing one's own materials (also 80 % of the informants)

is left to the third part of this section of data collection -and it is also indicated in the questionnaire.

EAP teachers' methodology has also to be investigated in this questionnaire. Questions –f-, -g-, and –h- focus on the language skills and abilities needed by the learners, the usual stages followed, and the type of activities suggested by the teachers, respectively. According to the previous questions about the course objectives and materials, a teacher is generally aware of what kind of abilities learners have to practice in order to improve their proficiency level. Consequently a teacher has to adapt his lesson plan –follow a number of stages, and focus on some activity types, systematically.

Teachers identify a number of skills and abilities needed by their learners. They mention all the four language skills with equal importance but specify that some abilities are necessary for classroom interaction and task performance. Among these abilities we record the following:

-*'speaking with the teacher without translation'*;
-*'express themselves'*;
-*'recognising structural clues'*;
-*'recognise word grouping'*;
-*' use the right words in writing'*;
-*'written and oral expression'*;

It is true that most foreign language teachers prefer their learners to interact in the foreign language, listen, read, and write as much as they can. Although the above mentioned abilities are performed and improved in almost every general English course, they do not show the commitment teachers and students should have towards English for Academic purposes. The informants' answers do not include any abilities relevant to

academic discourse and academic communication like defining, explaining, note-taking, summarizing, arguing, etc…

The usual stages followed by a teacher in his/her lessons show the systematic organisation of his/her method. The order and the stages provided by the informants show that almost all of them proceed through four major plans (see table 22, below) which can be classified within only two trends of methodology: top-down and bottom-up. The top-down procedure relies on background knowledge and comprehensive use of cognitive skills to understand a new situation, while a bottom-up procedure relies on accumulation of knowledge items to build up a comprehensive understanding.

Stages	Plan 1	Plan 2	Plan 3	Plan 4
Stage 1	-preparing a text	-vocabulary	-silent reading	-introduction of the lesson
Stage 2	-reading it in class	-lexis	-aural reading	-write the lesson
Stage 3	-asking questions about the context	-grammar	-aural comprehension	-explain each part of the lesson
Stage 4	-extract sentences from the text	-written expression	-oral composition	-students read the lesson
Stage 5	practice grammar rules;		-grammar practice	-students give examples
Stage 6	-learners give their Examples		-written Composition	-give exercises to students

Table 22: Major lesson plans of EAP teachers

It comes out from the four lesson plans that procedures followed in Plans 2 and 4, above, have a wide scope of application to various types of language materials while Plans 1 and 3 are limited to text comprehension and exploitation in class activities. Plan 2 represents the most classical lesson plan which proceeds through an explanation of

vocabulary items, using them as a basis for lexical exercises, and an illustration of grammatical rules with some examples. Both lexis and grammar are then used as a basis for written expression models of sentences.

Similarly, Plan 4 proceeds through a presentation of the lesson steps by the teacher who would allocate a number of structural activities to the students. Both Plans1 and 2 are teacher-centred and biased towards the practice of language structures.

Plans 1 and 3 which focus on text treatment as a major lesson plan proceed almost similarly. Their characteristic feature is that both attempt to deal with text comprehension for academic purposes. However, while Plan 1 considers the text only as a reading comprehension activity –biased towards sentence structure to extract grammatical rules, with an exemplification, Plan 3 widens comprehension activities to include silent and loud reading for listening comprehension, oral discussion of the text, grammar practice, and written expression as a formal outcome. Plan 3 is thus oriented towards more classroom communication and interaction strategies.

Within the same flow of ideas, question –h- in the questionnaire required from the informants to indicate the usual stages and activities they deal with, if the material presented to the students is –specifically- a text. Here the informants' answers have more correlation in the stages and activities suggested. All the informants state almost the same order of stages without really indicating what kind of activities or tasks the learners undertake at each stage. This brief record of the suggested stages summarizes their choices:

1- *Pre-reading; reading the text; reading comprehension activities; mastering the language (grammar); writing a paragraph; a discussion of their works*
2- *Pre-reading; reading comprehension; language practice; production*

3- Silent reading; loud reading by the teacher; re-read the text to show how natives speak; ask what they have understood; explain difficult words; a small discussion leading to practice in class or as a homework

4- Write the text; pre-reading; reading the text by the students; explain difficult words; summarize the paragraphs; summarize the text and give personal opinions

It is again clear through these stages that teachers follow the same major trends and plans discussed above. However, their lack of distinction between lesson plans and activities -which are rarely indicated in their choices, explains why they mention only *'writing a paragraph'*, *'summarize a paragraph'*, and *'summarize the text.'* It appears that our informants – and hence a wide majority of EAP teachers do not adopt appropriate tasks and activities as a given learning strategy for a step of their lesson. Their basic background knowledge provides them with a minimum, classical lesson plan which may not be efficient to teach English for Academic purposes. As we can notice, there are no suggested activities of the kind 'fill in/complete the table', 'read and note down', 'match items', 'fill in the blanks', 'transfer items from/to', or 'arrange the following items'.

3.3.   <u>Teachers' materials design and development</u>:

The third section of this questionnaire is devoted to teachers' abilities in authentic materials design and development. It includes an investigation of the purposes and the sources of the materials as well as the modification and the procedures applied by the teachers while developing such materials. It ends with an investigation into the teachers' experience and the difficulties they face in the field of materials development.

The first question (-a-) in this section investigated the purpose of selecting authentic texts by providing a list of presumed purposes teachers, generally, have in mind when

they want to implement their courses or diversify their sources of materials. From Table 23 (below) we can notice that the major purpose for EAP teachers to select authentic texts is to find enough subject specific vocabulary which they attempt to teach to their students. Achieving already defined objectives and illustrating grammatical relations are also important as each one gets 60 % of teachers stated purposes.

Materials design and development purposes	Yes	No	Totals
Satisfy learners' needs, interests, and motivation	40 %	20 %	100 %
Follow administration recommendations	00 %	100 %	100 %
Achieve already determined learning objectives	60 %	40 %	100 %
Expose students to real language contexts	40 %	60 %	100 %
Illustrate some grammatical relations	60 %	40 %	100 %
Teach specific vocabulary in context	80 %	20 %	100 %

Table 23: Materials design and development purposes

This shows that our informants' purposes are language oriented, as grammar and vocabulary seem to be more significant than needs, interest, and language contexts. It is also clear that the educational decision-makers / the administration staff of the academic departments do not recommend the use of authentic texts.

The type of texts selected may be either written by and for native speakers or for foreign language learners (question –b-). Our informants stated types give equal importance to both (50 % each) and hence do not provide us with any kind of preferences EAP teachers have. Nonetheless, this may also indicate that EAP teachers do not differentiate / distinguish authentic texts from non authentic ones. Hence, our next step (question –c-) in the questionnaire required from the EAP teachers to specify the exact type of authentic texts. This question helps us determine the genre of selected texts in order to find out whether EAP teachers would use a specific or a general text treatment when they use them with their learners (aspects to be covered in the next

questions –e-, -f-, and –g-). The specific choices of authentic texts made by our informants –reported in table 24 below- show the growing interest in internet sources for authentic texts (60 %) because internet connections are nowadays widely provided inside and outside university. However, the other three types are rarely selected because their sources are so scarce; academic English-written specialist documents can hardly be found in Algerian libraries or bookshops. Consequently, when our informants are asked to indicate the sources of the selected texts (question –d-), they do not provide any kind of information.

Authentic text types	Yes	No	Totals
Extracts from specialist textbooks	10 %	90 %	100 %
Newspaper articles and reports	10 %	90 %	100 %
Articles from special journals and periodicals	20 %	80 %	100 %
Articles from internet sites	60 %	40 %	100 %

Table 24: Types of authentic texts selected by EAP teachers

Question –e- in the questionnaire investigates the frequency of authentic text modification by EAP teachers. Keeping the authentic texts as they are presumes that the intended audience –the learners- has got a good proficiency level in English which enables them to read easily. However, the texts are always modified if the level of proficiency is low. As expected, all the informants say that they usually modify authentic texts. Consequently question –f- is intended to illustrate the types of modifications that the EAP teachers apply to the authentic texts, and this is shown in Table 25 below.

Teachers' modifications of authentic texts	Yes	No	Totals
Replace difficult words with easier synonyms	90 %	10 %	100 %
Rewrite complex sentences into simpler ones	00 %	100 %	100 %
Paraphrase the whole text into simpler language	20 %	80 %	100 %

Reduce the text: omit a part(s) or a paragraph(s)	60 %	40 %	100 %

Table 25: Types of modifications brought to authentic texts

It is quite clear that the teachers' modifications brought to authentic texts focus on word meaning and text length. On one hand, 90 % of our informants tend to replace difficult words with easier ones to suit the learners' proficiency level. This modification seems to correlate with the types of difficulties learners encounter when reading academic English texts (see Table 12, and Table 15, section 1.3 above) and also with the postgraduates' needs and tasks (see Table 18, section 2.3 above). On the other hand, 60 % of the informants tend to reduce text length, presumably, in order to limit the flow of information and discourse developments. The reason may be the time limit devoted to text treatment in class. Time constraints and course density are shown in the postgraduates' evaluation of their English undergraduate course (see Table 16, section 2.2 above) and suggested improvements (see Table 17, section 2.2 above). Teachers' awareness about these two aspects –learners' proficiency and course density- explain reasonably the types of modifications they apply to authentic texts.

The relevant question, in such a situation, is to ask whether these two major choices of EAP teachers -to simplify and reduce authentic texts- respond positively to learners' stated needs and strategies. In view of what has been analysed and reported about the undergraduates' proficiency level and types of difficulties (see section 1.3 above), teachers are acting as facilitators. Their above mentioned modifications do not provide the learners with required strategies (see section 1.3 above) of lexicon/semantic search but rather reinforce their reliance on their teachers.

Our assumptions can only be confirmed if our informants state the type of learning activities and tasks they usually provide while teaching with authentic texts; question –g-

in the questionnaire required from the informants to do so. Five steps/stages of a lesson plan are provided as major guidelines for the informants to complete with their suggested exercises, activities and/or techniques: Pre-reading; Reading comprehension; Language practice; Output and production; and further reading. Their answers are reported and discussed below.

In the 'Pre-reading' stage, almost all the informants suggest '*to introduce the topic*' of the text through '*a class discussion where learners give their opinions*' in order to '*make the learners interested in getting more knowledge about the topic.*' These suggested activities represent teachers' awareness about the importance of this stage but they do not illustrate it properly. Introducing a topic, discussing learners' opinions, and making learners more interested are teachers' pedagogical goals they would themselves achieve. There is no reference to learners' background knowledge about the topic, and no association of the topic to real, social or academic knowledge whatsoever.

In the reading comprehension stage, the informants suggest a number of exercises like *True/False questions, Comprehension (WH) questions, explaining difficult words, finding synonyms and antonyms, teacher reads in normal speed then learners read.*' We can say, here, that the first two classical comprehension exercises are prominent; True/False statements and Comprehension questions prevail in almost all reading comprehension tasks. Their appropriateness to develop reading comprehension is not always so certain. They, most of the time, represent an assessment of the learners' comprehension of information provided in the text which serves as a preliminary stage leading to the investigating, negotiation and interpreting text meaning. This latter is not found in the informants' suggestions.

Explaining difficult words is a very problematic activity as it is not clear whether it is a task carried out by the learners or the teachers. However, finding synonyms and antonyms in the text seems more effective for learners to practice their ability of lexicon semantic search in the text if they use it for the new/difficult vocabulary. Teachers' reading the text aloud is not an exercise for reading comprehension; it serves only as a model for word grouping, pronunciation, stress and intonation (pausing). Thus, there is an assessment of learners' comprehension, an attempt to provide word meaning strategies but there is no information processing (negotiation, application, or manipulation –transfer).

In the language practice stage, the informants suggest *'putting the verbs between brackets in the correct tense, completing sentences, making and/or completing dialogues by applying some grammatical rules, transforming sentences into reported speech, transforming sentences from passive to active voice and vice versa, spelling and spelling combinations of complex words, using reference pronouns, rewriting the same sentence(s) in different structural combination(s).'* The diversification of language practice activities reflects how important this stage is in the lessons devoted to authentic texts. There is a clear emphasis on tense and tense relations as well as sentence structure. However, the relevance of the exercises to the text itself –its information structure and rhetorical features are not obvious. We can even say that the exercises suggested reflect the stereotypic model of grammar treatment in the foreign language classroom while using reading comprehension texts.

In the output and production stage, the informants suggest only two activities: *writing a paragraph'* and *'summarizing the text.'* This limited scope of production activities do not open up the task of performance to learners applying what they learnt to do something else. The suggested activities do not provide any other contexts except the one that the learners have been exposed to. Although the two suggested activities provide observable and measurable performance, the activities are a synthesis of what the learners have learnt, not what the learners are able to do with what they learnt.

In the further reading stage, the informants do not suggest any distinctive or relevant activity. The only tasks assigned are '*give a similar text to be read'* and '*having an open discussion on the topic.'* Further reading serves to widen the scope of reading abilities to include intensive and extensive reading. The two suggested activities do not exactly fulfil this purpose. Even if a text is suggested as a further reading activity, there are no instruction as what the learners will do with the reading. Discussing a topic serves only as a pre-production stage to help learners write a composition inside/outside the classroom.

Question –h- in the questionnaire investigates the teachers' experience in designing and developing materials while using authentic texts. The question could have been asked at the beginning of the section but we preferred to put it at the end so that informants' answers would not be biased right from the start. Their answers excluded any experience gained from a teacher-training course, reference and source materials on the subject, or team work with other teachers. All the informants state that they developed personal experience from their own teaching practice.

The informants admit they still face a number of difficulties (question –i-) -while using authentic texts- among which we record the following: '*students are not interested enough*', '*there is no real syllabus to follow*', '*students proficiency level is not good enough*', '*the materials I select do not fit the level of the learners.*' These difficulties reflect the teachers' state of confusion and helplessness when using authentic texts. Even if they claim that the purposes of selecting such materials are to teach vocabulary in context and achieve learning objectives (Table 23 above), they are upset by the fact that learners' proficiency level is too low to achieve those purposes. The absence of 'a real syllabus to follow' reflects their ignorance of a number of research findings -carried out in Constantine University and elsewhere for Magistere Dissertations, and the lack of documents which provide authentic texts and appropriate tasks and activities.

The informants' suggestions to improve the course (question-j-) represent teachers' solutions to the difficulties mentioned above and can only be set in two main categories. The first category of suggestions is related to course design because some informants want some recommendations, from the educational institution, which indicate a specific programme to follow. Some informants express the need to have a minimum required knowledge which helps them cope with texts related to the academic subjects of their learners. Another category of suggestions, however, focus on teachers command of some pedagogical measures like '*adapting the texts to learners' level*, '*gaining learners confidence*', and '*developing more competence in materials development*'

4. **Summary of findings**:

The three questionnaires administered to three representative samples of the population involved in teaching/learning English for Academic purpose provide a number

of qualitative findings about the whole situation. These findings need a correlative summary in order to determine the required learning objectives, the learning procedure to be followed, and the type of materials to be developed and implemented.

4.1.   **Learning objectives**:

Despite the five year English course at middle and secondary school, the first year undergraduate students at the five departments of humanities and social sciences still need to learn English. The present learning situation reinforces what the learners have already learnt and prepares them to deal with English for academic purposes. The undergraduate population shows, right from the first year, an interest and a motivation to learn English for such a purpose (see Table 10). However, this long term objective is not achieved, according to postgraduate population who express a number of deficiencies in the undergraduate English course (see table 16) which is mainly affected by a low course density, inappropriate text selection, inefficient methodology, insufficient reading and writing practice, and absence of free individual learning.

The present needs and contexts of academic English use are clarified by the postgraduate students and subject specialist population. Their expectations imply that the definition of learning objectives should focus on developing the abilities to translate, read and understand, take notes, and practice writing grammatically. The contexts, the materials and media mentioned as prominent sources of academic information converge towards extracting data and information from research articles and documents from periodicals, journals and internet sites. Hence, there is a need to expose the learners' community to authentic academic English texts.

4.2.   **Learning difficulties and strategies**:

The major difficulties that undergraduate students face in reading English texts show that reading deficiencies lie in word meaning -which deprives the learners from understanding the detailed information, and in sentence meaning –which deprives them from drawing relation between the details and the general/main ideas (see Table 12). These difficulties remain prominent among the postgraduate population who now rely on translation or seek help from the English teaching staff to translate their academic documents.

The undergraduate students are motivated and more or less willing to learn (see Table 9 and Table 10) -despite their difficulties (see Table 11), and show a reasonable flow of reading strategies. The majority of the learners attempt to read through skimming by using two processes of comprehension: top-down and bottom-up. Some of them proceed from general ideas and move on to specific details to understand difficult vocabulary while some others proceed through specific details to get the gist of the text, and then focus on difficult vocabulary (see Table 13).

Their strategies to overcome these difficulties are also natural procedures of learning (see Table 14 and Table 15); re-reading the item(s) is an activity which shows determination of the learner to rely on himself in understanding from the context and using the dictionary when necessary. The relevant question is, here, if the learners have a background in learning strategies, why these strategies are not used by the postgraduate students and subject specialists? Do these strategies disappear through time, lack of practice or inappropriate learning experience and inefficient choice of materials and methodology?

4.3.   **<u>Materials development and implementation</u>**:

The teachers' commitment in the development and implementation of materials to be used in an EAP course is of capital importance in order to help learners improve their learning strategies and face academic requirements in the future. Despite their general background knowledge and short experience in teaching EAP, the teachers have a general command of teaching procedures but lack adequate strategies of materials development and implementation. They need practical involvement in materials selection, adaptation and development to implement their course.

These needs are obvious in the teachers' lack of defining precise learning objectives, designing tasks which focus on information processing, and developing exercise types most appropriate to academic discourse functions and notions. Their present strategies of text implementation are stereotypic and too general to satisfy the short-term and long-term objectives of teaching English for Academic purposes. That is why; the postgraduate students and subject specialists who spent a number of years learning English in their undergraduate and postgraduate courses still face major difficulties and seek help from someone else to solve their problems with English texts.

<u>Conclusion</u>:

We attempted to show, in this analysis, that the EAP course in the humanities and social sciences is a three-dimensional situation which gathers information from the undergraduate population, the postgraduate and subjects specialists, and the teachers of EAP. All of them represent the actors of a dynamic group. The undergraduate students

come to the English course with some hopes and expectation, relying on their modest proficiency and background knowledge, to achieve a certain proficiency in the foreign language. The postgraduate students and subject specialists, out of utility and despair, consider that their learning of English for a number of years has been in vain. The teachers of EAP attempt to help the undergraduate students through courses that do not actually prove to be efficient enough to give the postgraduate and subject specialist any satisfaction. Hence, our commitment in this research is to act on the teachers' experiential development of design and development abilities to select, design and develop materials to implement their courses.

CHAPTER FIVE

EXPERIMENT IMPLEMENTATION

Introduction

1. Methodology and procedures

2. Design of the experiment

    The participants' background knowledge

Objectives of the experiment

Content of the experiment

 3. Implementation of the experiment

Defining materials and their types

Learning objectives and strategies

Task and competency based learning

 4. The training project

Lesson plans

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The first example

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Our comments

 5. Production project: Materials design and development

Summary and conclusion

Experiment Implementation

<u>Introduction</u>:

This chapter deals with the implementation of an experiment in materials design and development for two experimental groups of teacher-trainees and postgraduate students. The experiment is conducted as a collaborative action research. It provides a description of the participants' background knowledge when they joined the experimental groups,

sets the objectives of the whole implementation which the participants have to achieve, and provides guidelines of the content. It explains the basic principles applied in the implementation according to the hypotheses of the research, and shows how the participants apply them in materials analysis, evaluation, and development. It also explains how the project is conducted because it serves as a post test which evaluates the participants' achievements according to the qualities of good language teaching materials.

1. **Methodology and procedures:**

The methodology of the present research relies on collaborative action of both the researcher and the participants in setting ground for the achievement of an objective which is to develop the ability of selecting, grading, analysing, and developing language teaching/learning materials (Crookes, 2003: 102-103). The role assigned to the researcher –during the experiment- is that of a supervisor, a reminder and a tutor. His task consisted of presenting, and at times exemplifying, the main principles and assigning roles to the participants in each stage of the experiment implementation (Grenfell, 2000: 21 and Littlemore, 255). His research tools are basically observation grids and diaries which help him track development in participants' performance in order to provide feedback whenever necessary.

The participants' collaborative role consisted of paying careful attention to the provided explanations and illustration about each step of the experiment, applying the acquired skills in various stages by performing the required tasks, and bringing into class their own contribution. The participants had to share their own active contribution with the whole class, accept criticism and suggestions. This dynamic, reflective research method is very positive in the sense that it makes every participant's experience a new

learning-by-doing experience for the rest of the group (Williams and Burden, 1997: 164-165).

2. **Design of the experiment**:

The rationale behind any research design – or the built up strategy or plan in attempt to obtain an answer to a research question and subsequently the hypothesis- is to identify the participants who took part in the experiment by describing their background knowledge, the content of the experiment and the context in which the experiment has been conducted –as part of a general or specific curriculum, and the objectives to be achieved through the implementation of the experiment.

2.1. **The participants' background knowledge**

The Ecole Normale Supérieure, in Constantine, re-opened in 1999 to provide the educational system with qualified teachers of English for both middle and secondary school. A course curriculum was elaborated –with our contribution- to achieve that purpose; it focused mainly on the development of language skills during the first two years and a progressive introduction of pedagogical subjects during the third and fourth years. During the third year participants attended courses in psychology, linguistics, and teaching English as a foreign language. During the fourth year they attended courses in applied linguistics, psychopedagogy, syllabus design and textbook evaluation, and materials design and development. In addition, they joined a teacher-training programme of limited periods –at middle and secondary schools, in order to observe classroom teaching, teach parts of lessons, design and teach their own lessons under the supervision of a teacher of English. During the academic year 2003/2004, the participants, in the first experimental group, were at the fourth year of their undergraduate and teacher-training

course. It was at this period that the subject of materials design and development was taught in one session of one hour and thirty minutes per week, and hence it provided us with the opportunity to implement its content and carry out the experiment and posttest.

The participants in the second experimental group were postgraduate students at the department of English who attended a six months course of one session per week in materials design and development as part of the postgraduate curriculum in 'Reading and writing convergences' during the academic year 2004/2005. All the participants had a B.A in English and attended a course in 'Teaching English as a Foreign Language' during the fourth academic year of the B.A, and were selected to be in the postgraduate course through an entrance test. This postgraduate course represented for us a second opportunity to do the experiment with a group of participants who are simultaneously postgraduates and part-time teachers at the academic departments of the university.

2.2. <u>Objectives of the experiment</u>

The course objectives, of the first experimental group, were clearly stated in the ENS curriculum as purposeful and practical achievements of the teacher-trainees to be able to analyse and evaluate the teaching materials at hand (they would use at school), and develop their own language teaching materials whenever needed (in cases where textbooks are not provided or when teachers are not satisfied with the material at hand). We contributed in the elaboration of the objectives and the content of the course from 1999 to 2003. The general goal of such a course is to provide the foreign language teachers with the ability of autonomy in selection, design and production of materials most relevant to learners' needs and objectives.

The course objectives and content, of the second experimental group, was also developed as our own contribution in the elaboration and teaching of the postgraduate course. The general objective of the course was to develop the postgraduate students' abilities to   analyse various kinds of materials already designed for foreign language teaching according to various academic views (linguistic, psycholinguistic, and methodological views). The specific objectives of the course aimed at making the postgraduate students able to:

-make a sound analysis and selection of materials from a range of textbooks which aim at teaching reading and writing skills; and

-design their own materials to teach reading and writing skills, within the scope of the postgraduate course.

2.3 <u>Content of the experiment</u>:

According to the ENS curriculum, the materials design and development course, which served as an implementation of the experiment with the first experimental group, includes the following aspects to be taught and illustrated in workshops: defining and exemplifying language teaching materials, learning objectives and strategies, task and competency based learning according to information processing strategies, materials analysis and evaluation, and materials design and development. Almost all of these aspects have already been taught in the third year TEFL course and will be explained below with much more practical involvement of the participants.

On approximately the same basis as above (concerning tasks, strategies and objectives), the postgraduate course –which served as an implementation of the experiment with the second experimental group- includes the following aspects:

1-Language teaching materials types: listening and reading materials (3 hours): structural, functional, and authentic materials

2- Analysis of authentic materials; principles (3 hours); source and context of communication, adapting authentic materials (language complexity and learning levels)

3- Communicative effectiveness and outcome: (3 hours): communicative contexts (discourse effectiveness), language abilities (outcome objectives)

4- Learning steps through the materials: (4hours 30 minutes): Bloom's taxonomy of thinking levels, learning strategies (R. Oxford), Learning tasks (D. Nunan and others)

5- Designing language teaching materials (9 hours): procedure (levels, objectives, tasks, follow up), practice (each postgraduate presents at least one type: biographies, stories, newspaper articles, adverts, letters, lists, weather forecasts, etc…)

6- Illustration and evaluation of materials and textbooks (7 hours 30 minutes): a critical analysis of a number of textbooks and their materials (in 3 seminar sessions, each postgraduate presents 1 textbook).

3. **Implementation of the experiment**:

As the methodology of the whole research is based on collaborative action, the teacher and the participants assume two complementary roles. The teacher is supposed to review content items that the participants covered in the TEFL undergraduate course, introduce further required information through reading extracts, and suggest practical tasks that the participants have to complete either individually, in pairs and/or in whole class discussions. The participants have to take notes about the various issues introduced, assume learning tasks of writing and rewriting objectives and instructions, apply the provided information in materials analysis (adoption and/or adaptation), and elaborate and present their personal work to the whole class for discussion.

3.1. <u>Defining materials and their types</u>:

Despite the introduction of a lecture on materials and media in the 'Teaching of English as Foreign language', a brief recall is made at the beginning of this implementation of the experiment (see chapter 3; 5). The reason is to check whether the participants can clearly make a practical distinction between the two terms. Hence, each participant is asked to write three examples of materials and three examples of media that he/she will read aloud to the group of participants. The whole class will discuss the appropriateness of each participant's choices, providing him/her with explanations and/or arguments.

The next step in this section is to make the participants distinguish the difference between materials use and usage characteristics. It consists of deciding whether an activity, exercise or task of language teaching focuses on meaning or on form. The purpose, here, is to make the participants aware of the complementarities that exist between language learning activities which present discourse –spoken or written and convey information/messages, and language learning activities which help the learners master language structures, mechanisms and rules. The same practical procedure is followed in class; every participant is supposed to write three activities for each activity type. Then, the whole class will criticize, accept, or reject each participant's choices.

This class discussion always leads to examine the two major principles of discourse analysis that have a great impact on communicative language learning: functions and notions. Language functions describe the purposes of the speaker/writer, the meaning of the information/message expressed in a piece of discourse. Notions represent the

conceptual features of rhetorical, grammatical and structural aspects of that discourse (see chapter 2). The functions / notions dichotomy and complementarities is not always obvious unless practical exemplification is supplied. Working in pairs, participants are required to select a unit from a secondary school English textbook, bring it to class and examine its functional / notional features. The availability of all Algerian English textbooks was very encouraging as the ENS library provides a great number of copies for each title. Each pair of participant is given 5 minutes to present the functional features of the unit as for example 'describing things, places, people', 'narrating a story', 'making predictions', and the notions practised in that unit as for example 'time', 'quality, quantity', 'reference', etc…

The materials provided in the English textbooks do not always present an ideal quality of materials. Their design and implementation has always been subject to Algerian educational system constraints; target population, objectives, methodology, and activity type. The participants are exposed to materials from other English textbooks which are not used in the Algerian English courses. The purpose is to make the participants discover materials from commercial textbooks which are designed and implemented for a wide or limited audience of learners, and see how different or similar they are to the Algerian textbook materials.

The authentic quality of some materials is made obvious in this stage of implementation. Emphasis is put on the analysis of the genuine/ original features of discourse which is presented as input information and on the distinction of the discourse functions and notions used by the writer/speaker. The participants are also supposed to distinguish the materials and media complementarities in both Algerian and commercial

textbooks. The participants distinguished a number of negative features allocated to the materials provided in the Algerian secondary school textbooks. The first distinctive feature of Algerian textbooks is that they scarcely present authentic texts –in speech and writing, to the learners. Almost all discourse types are written or re-written by the designers of the textbooks, and/or their authors (speakers or writers) are never mentioned. Hence the teacher is never provided with the source of the input material. The second distinctive feature of the Algerian textbooks is that they never provide the audio media that present aural language to the learners. Although all the Algerian textbooks provide aural/listening materials like conversations, dialogues, weather forecasts, etc…, cassettes and/or tapes are, however, never provided; it is always the teacher who serves as a medium of aural/oral communication by reading aloud the aural materials.

3.2. Learning Objectives and strategies:

In this second part of the implementation, participants have to clarify their conceptual framework of purposive learning by distinguishing general aims from pedagogical goals and performance objectives. The teachers' conceptual awareness about the three terms is of capital importance to the analysis, evaluation, design and development of language teaching materials. This is so obvious when the participants are asked to write a draft of three statements in which they indicate 'objectives' of their own learning of English as a foreign language. Their statements reveal total confusion of 'objectives' for 'aims' and 'goals'. A few examples of these statements can be examined here to show that general academic definitions of the three terms do not help much the foreign language teachers who need to put their academic knowledge into practice. For example:

-I learn English in order to be a teacher;

-I learn English to travel abroad;

-I learn English in order to master the language

- All these statements represent general goals which reflect learners' motivation, interest, and even career plans. The participants of both experimental groups had to examine Bloom's taxonomy and its specific details (see chapter 1.) in writing appropriate objectives to each level. The participants had to write first general objectives of learning English as a foreign language in order to make them aware of the confusion they can make between objectives and general goals. They had to focus their practice of writing objectives on 'a performance in the language' which shows what they can exactly do with it, after a learning experience. Their statements, then, became much more appropriate. For example:

    -I learn English in order to read books, newspaper, etc...

    -I learn English in order to write letters, essays, etc...

    - I learn English in order to listen to music, radio or watch TV channels.

Although these statements represent objectives of what any person learning English would like to attain, they in fact lack the pedagogical criteria of being included in a plan as an achievement after successful learning which can be observed and measured. Participants are requested to reconsider how educational objectives can be transformed into learning tasks and achievements; they consulted Anderson and Krathwohl (2001) suggestions (see appendix II) to write statements which can be achieved as a performance, at the end of a learning plan -of a unit or a lesson, which can be observed (heard or seen), and corrected by the teacher. They were given instruction to start their statements this way: '*at the end of the unit or lesson, learners will……………'*

The following examples of their statements show to a great extent the change that was brought to their understanding, conception and writing of educational objectives in terms of Bloom's taxonomy:

  -learners will look at the picture of a famous person and describe his/her
   physical appearance orally and in writing

  -Learners will tell their friends a joke and then write it down in a paragraph

  -learners will write a letter to a friend inviting him/her to visit their home
   town.

Extracts from Nunan (1988 a: 62-65), below, are provided as practical teachers' tasks of analysing objectives. The purpose of these tasks is to make the participants distinguish learning objectives from general goals, short-term from long-term objectives, teachers' roles from learners' roles. Some modifications are brought to these tasks with examples of Algerian contexts.

EXERCISE 1: Study the following lists of statements and see if you can identify what distinguishes each list from the others.

List A: - to complete the first ten units of the New lines English textbook.

    -to teach the difference between the present perfect and the simple past tenses.

    -to provide learners with the opportunity of understanding authentic language.

List B: -students will take part in a role play between a shop keeper and a customer.

    -students will read a simplified version of a newspaper article and answer

    comprehension questions on the text.

    -students will complete the pattern practise exercise on Page 48 of the

    Secondary school English textbook 'My Book of English'.

List C: -learners will obtain information on train departure times from a railway

    information office

    -learners will provide personal details to a government official in a formal

interview.

-learners will listen to and comprehend the main points in a radio news bulletin.

EXERCISE 2: The following are either Learner or Teacher behaviour.Identify them by L or T:

-to present rules of subject-verb agreement;

-to explain the difference between the direct and indirect object pronouns;

-to write answers to questions on a reading selection;

-to model the pronunciation of dialogue sentences;

-to repeat after the speaker on a tape;

-to mark whether a statement heard is True or False;

-to introduce cultural material into the lesson;

-to review the numbers from One to a Hundred;

-to describe in English a picture cut from a magazine.

EXERCISE 3: The following are examples of learners Input and Output behaviours. Identify them with "I" or "O"

-to pay attention in class;

-to recite a dialogue from memory;

-to study lesson Twelve;

-to learn the rules for the agreement of the past participle;

-to look at foreign magazines;

-to attend a make up lab period;

-to write a brief composition about a picture;

-to read a paragraph aloud with no mistakes;

-to watch a film on Britain;

-to answer questions about a taped conversation.

EXERCISE 4: Indicate the performance, conditions, and level in the following performance objectives.

1-Working in pairs, learners will provide enough information for their partner to draw their family tree. Enough information will be provided for a three-generation family tree to be drawn.

2-Students will extract and record estimated minimum and maximum temperatures from a taped radio weather forecast. Four of the six regions covered by the forecast must be accurately recorded.

3-While watching a videotaped conversation between two native speakers, learners identify the various topics discussed and the points at which the topics are changed. All topics and change points are to be identified.

OBJECTIVES:	Performance	Conditions	level
-1-			
-2-			
-3-			

Further practical implications of Bloom's taxonomy and Nunan's pedagogical tasks lead the participants to consider whether already designed materials do clearly define learning objectives. Every participant had to examine whether a teaching/learning unit provided in Algerian secondary school English textbooks defines an objective, or specifies some activities as being an act of performance, achieved by the learners after successful learning. This practice was carried in class as workshops where every participant presented his/her analysis to the whole group for further discussion.

The textbooks were of two kinds: those that state the objectives in functional and notional (grammatical achievements) and those that state none. In the case of textbooks that state the objectives of the teaching materials, the participants had to discuss whether the suggested activities and the instructions lead the learners to process information for comprehension, practice language enough to use it properly, and produce an observable and measurable output. However, if the textbook does not provide an objective for the unit or lesson, the participants had to determine and write the objectives and consider

whether it fits the content of the material –information provided as input, learning activities and output.

During this stage of the experiment, the participants faced a major problem of determining the 'Level of proficiency' of the learners for whom the materials have been designed. For if the participants' task of 'writing objectives' relies on setting an expected outcome of the learners <u>after</u> learning, the level of proficiency required participants' knowledge of their presumed learners' present level <u>before</u> exposing them to the teaching materials. There seems to be a major confusion among the participants for two different conception of the term learners' *level*: one that describes proficiency and another that identifies a grade –school year. Clarification of the terms leads us to attribute qualities to each proficiency level and attempt to correlate it with grade levels. We considered the following list of proficiency levels and tried to link each with school-grade levels corresponding to first, second, or third year middle or secondary school:

-Beginners: first year of learning English, commonly introduced at the first and second year middle school curriculum

-Post beginners: second and third year of learning English, commonly provided for the second and third year middle school pupils

-Pre-intermediate: third and forth year of learning English, commonly provided for first and second year secondary school pupils

-Intermediate: fourth and fifth year of learning English, commonly provided for second and third year pupils at secondary school

-Post-intermediate: sixth and seventh year of learning English, commonly provided for first and second year undergraduate students at the department of English

-Pre-advanced: eighth and ninth year of leaning English, commonly provided for the third and fourth year undergraduate students at the department of English

-Advanced: Free learning experience.

3.3. <u>Task and competency based learning</u>:

At this stage of the experiment, the participants are involved in a complex task of relating the structure of input (information and discourse) to task, activity, and exercise types. The cognitive task of the participants in de-structuring information provided by the author helps them discover how information items are linked to each other. The pedagogical task of relating the information structure to rhetorical devices of discourse helps the participants distinguish language items (vocabulary, grammar, etc…) which learners need to learn. Both tasks represent, for us, participants' metacognitive awareness of their analysis, design and development abilities in the field of language teaching materials.

The participants are introduced to aspects of information structure in a piece of discourse by analysing the flow of information provided in various pieces of discourse. Linguistic concepts of 'old and new', 'given and new', and 'theme and rhyme' are discussed and provided with examples of texts which provide the learners with already known information on which further new information is presented. We note, here, according to our observation that the participants notice quickly the logical order of information structure which is always relative to the authors discourse organisation.

For example, old information is not always the initial point in the discourse structure. It is commonly provided as a reference structure in order to make the learner link –

recall- what he already knows with the new information. The place of the argument, the cause of an event, the detailed explanation of a historical account, etc…are not always structured in a typical order to make the reader interpret discourse in a way or another. Discussions of such aspects of information and discourse structure always lead the participants to draw schemes of information structure and text/rhetorical devices which link information to discourse.

Concepts of information processing strategies (perception, identification and recognition, understanding, retrieval and rehearsal, retention and recall), schemata, and learning strategies are introduced as comprehensive theoretical frameworks (see chapter 1) which coincide with learning objectives. The consequent value of such conceptual framework is in the development of tasks and activities which help the learners deal with comprehension of information (see chapter 3).

The analysis of already existing materials, in various workshops, helps the participants determine whether the instructions provided for each activity/exercise leads the learners to practice information processing –looking for and negotiating meaning- and/or learn language items and structures which help/or do not help them improve their language abilities. It is a state of the participants' reflections and questioning about the validity, the place and feasibility of the activity/exercise, in comparison to the learning objectives and nature of the tasks required to achieve those objectives (see illustration of educational objectives exemplified with potential activities provided by Anderson and Krathwohl, 2001, in Appendix II).

4. <u>The training projects</u>:

4.1 <u>Lesson Plans</u>:

Lesson and unit planning is the most comprehensive framework which contains and puts into practical teaching/learning situations all the aspects of language materials. Whatever the nature, type, length or difficulty of a language teaching/learning material, designers and teachers do always provide procedural steps for the users (teachers or learners) of that material.

The participants of both experimental groups were exposed to a variety of already designed materials which generally proceed through the following steps:

- Warming up: background knowledge –pre-reading or pre-listening

- Reading Comprehension: information processing /comprehension and discourse Organisation

- Language practice: notions, discourse representation and cohesion structure (exemplification, explanation and manipulation)

- Production: Functional output, communicative output

4.2. <u>Materials analysis and evaluation</u>

When all the above mentioned aspects of implementation are covered, the participants are required to use them in a comprehensive way. Working individually, or in pairs, the participants had to select a Unit from a textbook, analyse and evaluate it according to:

- Grade and Proficiency levels

- Topic type and information structure

- Functions and notions

- Objectives

-Activity type and lesson plan (presentation, comprehension, practice and production)

-Instructions and items appropriateness.

At this stage of the experiment, the participants of the first experimental group are trained to use what they learnt about objectives, discourse and information processing to analyse already designed materials provided in Algerian secondary school textbooks. Even if they used these materials to learn English themselves at school, they have now to look at them with a critical eye. During workshops, pairs of informants presented each a description and an analysis of a language teaching material. The purpose of the task is to make them able to make decisions as whether they would adopt the unit as it is in their future career or adapt it according to their analysis and evaluation. They, of course, had to make use of the knowledge and practice they received in this implementation and their knowledge from other subjects taught like linguistics, psychology, psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics.

We provide, here, four examples of this training in materials analysis and evaluation. The participants, by and large, covered all the secondary school textbooks in their analysis and evaluation. However, for constraints of space, we provide these four examples for two main purposes. The first purpose is to illustrate the variety of materials designed for Algerian learners and included in secondary school textbooks. The second purpose is to provide a variety of our participants' achievements in materials analysis and evaluation, before they start the task of designing their own materials.

Every example deals with one language teaching material from a secondary school textbook. During the participants' presentation of their task to the whole group, our role was limited to note taking about their comments and the correlation of their remarks with the material at hand. The other members of the group were following with them and taking notes (copies of the textbook or photocopies of the materials are always

provided). At the end of the presentation, members of the group are invited to make their criticism of, or ask questions about, the presentation. Our own notes, in addition to the group's remarks and comments, are provided after the first three examples, and after the fourth example, below.

4.2.1. <u>The first example</u>:

We provide here the whole material and the integrity of the account of the analysis of Unit 2 -'Inventions and Discoveries' In *Comet* (16-19) for Third Year Secondary School- as presented by the participants:

<div align="center">'Inventions and Discoveries'</div>

<div align="center">*Comet*: (16-19), the third year secondary school.</div>

I- PRE-LISTENING

1/ Let's talk about it.

Television is a recent invention. Can you name other inventions and explain their utility?

II- LISTENING

2/ Listen to the following passages and write TRUE or FALSE in front of each sentence.

  a) Curiosity is the only cause of invention.
  b) The wheel was invented after the bricks.
  c) No one knows when the bow and arrow were invented.
  d) They were invented for hunting.
  e) An invention is something that has not existed before.

III- POST-LISTENING

3/ Class discussion

Of the inventions mentioned in the text, which one do you consider the most important and useful? Justify your answer.

TEXT FOR LISTENING COMPREHENSION

Inventions

Inventions are the result of man's curiosity about the world around him, and of the urge to fill an expressed need. It was the need for more durable building materials that led man to invent bricks about 4,000 B.C. The date of the invention of the bow and arrow has been lost in time, but it is fairly certain that it was for the purpose of providing early man with a quicker and surer means of killing animals for food. We look upon thousands and thousands of things today as commonplace, but at one time the world did not have them. They all had to be invented.

Inventions have provided our world with matches, telephones, wire, needles and thread, light bulbs, radio, television, motors, medicines, and even paper and ink. Inventors, being curious and at the same time seeing need, bring their ideas and the necessary materials together to produce something new –something that has not existed before- an invention.

IV- PRE-READING

4/ Let's talk about it.

What are the main means of transportation?

V-READING: TEXT FOR READING COMPREHENSION

Transportation

Have you ever thought about important transportation is to the world? Without transportation modern life could not exist. We would have to get or make our own food, our own clothes, newspapers, and mail. Everything that we have come to depend on is brought to us. Even the water that we drink is transported through pipelines from wells and reservoirs to our homes and offices. We have come to depend on the availability of three principal kinds of transportation: land, sea, and air. Automobiles, railroads, trucks, and pipelines are the principal means of land transportation. Just think how paralyzed our society would be without any mechanical means of land transportation! We would have to spend, once again, on animals as such as donkeys,

horses, oxen, camels (or even dogs, like the Eskimos). Instead of street cars, subways, autobuses, bicycles, and taxis, we would have to rely on our own feet. Ships, barges, submarines form the chief means of water transportation, carrying people and goods across (even under) oceans, seas, and lakes, and along rivers big and small. Without our principal means of air transportation, the airplane, we would have to slow down our lives and commerce. It would not be possible to mail a letter in Istanbul in the morning and have it delivered in New York in the afternoon. We could not breakfast in San Francisco and have dinner in Paris. Other means of air transportation such as helicopters, supersonic jet passenger transports, and space rockets will bring the peoples of the world into even closer contact.

5/ Count and find out.

Read the text and find out the number of times the word "transportation" appears in it. What are the words of the same family?

6/ Find titles.

Read the text again and divide it into paragraphs. Find a suitable title for each one.

7/ Make a list.

Read the text again and make a list of the things we can get for everyday life thanks to transportation.

8/ Read the text again and answer the following questions.

a) What are the principal means of land transportation?

b) What animals were used for transportation?

c) What means of transportation are used across seas and oceans? Which one is used under the oceans?

d) What are the means of air transportation mentioned in the text?

9/ a. Find synonyms.

Read the text again and find out the words that are closest in meaning to the following

ones: **essential   existence   like   nearer**

9/ b. Find opposites.

Read the text again and find out the words that are opposite in meaning to the following

Ones: **even   without   everything   under**

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10/ Read the text again and write:

a) The three forms of the irregular verbs used.

b) The sentences that are in the passive voice.

VI-POST-READING

11/ Discussion: The three kinds of transportation: land, sea, air have advantages and disadvantages. Discuss each one of them.

VII-WRITING

12/ A mini-project: Decide for a discovery or an invention and write the effects it has on our everyday life. Notes: name – shape – description – what it is used for – who made it – its effects on our life.

VIII- GET READY

13/ Read the following passage and find a suitable title.

Science has improved human life in many ways. Scientists are discovering or inventing many things that make our life easier and more comfortable. In agriculture more sophisticated machines and better fertilisers have increased food production. In factories, computers are producing more things more quickly and more economically. In medicine, vaccines are invented all the time to save thousands of lives. Communication satellites have brought the whole world into our sitting rooms. Transportation is cheaper, quicker, safer.

14/Find in the text the opposites of the following words:

worse - slowly - decreased - few.

15/ Write the three forms of the irregular verbs used in the text.

16/ Rewrite three sentences from the passage using the passive form.

IX- TIME FOR A SONG: 'blowing in the wind' by Bob Dylan

X- READING FOR LEISURE: 'Inventions of the future'

Analysis and evaluation of the material

- **Proficiency and grade level**: Intermediate level, 3ème AS,

-**Objectives:**

*learners will be able to describe inventions and give their opinions towards them;

*learners will be able to discuss such topics and express their own ideas.

-Language functions: describing and expressing opinions about different ideas.

-language notions: the use of the forms of irregular verbs and the passive form

-The activities:

1. **Pre-listening**: the first activity is considered as a kind of warming up by which the learners get some kind of readiness to be involved in the classroom.

2. **Listening**: in the second activity the pupils have to answer with <u>true</u> or <u>false</u>. Indeed, this activity is very easy and does not require from the learners expressing all their mental capacities. We suggest that it is better to give comprehension questions concerning the text like: <u>finding</u> the main idea and all the <u>sub-ideas</u>.

3. **Post-listening**: in the third activity, learners have to express their points of view by being able to discuss. Indeed, it is considered as a good activity.

4. **Pre-reading**: furthermore, the fourth activity is regarded as a warming up to the reading activity.

5. **Reading**:

*In the fifth activity, learners have to find out the number of times such a word and words of the same family appear in it. Indeed, learners of this level will find it too easy because such type of activities should be given to beginners.

*In the activity N°6, learners have to read the text another time by dividing it into paragraphs and then give a suitable title to each one. Indeed, it is considered as a good exercise in which the learners will learn how to analyse a given text into separate paragraphs.

*In the activity N°7, learners will read the text again and try to make a list that is taken directly from it. Here, the learners will find, obtain, everything from the text; they will get no benefits.

*In the activity N°8, learners have to read the text again and answer the "WH questions". It is an easy and direct activity; meanwhile, it is preferable to give them another activity like: making a comparison between the different means of transportation.

*Activity N°9 consists of finding synonyms of words. It is considered as one of the best activities. However, the words given in the activity are very easy, very simple, in comparison to the level of the learners.

*In the activity N° 10, the learners have to read the text again and distinguish the forms of irregular verbs used in it: moreover, to find out sentences that are put in the passive form. Indeed, it is considered as being a good activity.

6. **Post-reading**: Activity N° 11 is a discussion. It is a good activity in which the learners will have the opportunity to discuss such topics and to express their own ideas at the same time.

7. **Writing**: Activity N°12 is a mini-project. It is considered as a useful and productive activity in which the learners are guided by some notes that they have to follow and by combining and joining them together in order to produce a coherent essay. As a production learners can describe inventions as simple as possible and can discuss and speak fluently and express their own ideas in a simple way.

4.2.2. The second example:

We present here the whole material and the original account of the analysis provided by the participants in the second example:

<div align="center">

Unit 2: PLANNING FUTURE ACTIVITIES
'Cycling through Africa'
The New Midlines (22-28) for Second Year Secondary School.

</div>

LISTENING COMPREHENSION

Exercise 1: Listen to your teacher. Number the activities in a chronological order. An example is given.

F- I'll have my car washed at the filling station.   1

A- I have an appointment with the tailor   _____

B- I plan to go to the bank.   _____

C- I'll go to the office.   _____

D- I'll get dressed for the wedding   _____.

E- I'll go to the hairdresser's.   _____

F- I'll have my car washed at the filling station   ___1___

Exercise 2: a) Complete column A with the activities in the right order.

b) Listen to your teacher again and complete column B.

An example is given.

A	B
ACTIVITIES	**WHEN**
1- I'll have my car washed at the filling station	Before I go to the office
2-	
3-	
4-	
5-	
6-	

Page 23: A map of Africa and a map of Algeria

READING COMPREHENSION

Cycling through Africa

Twenty nine year-old French man Bernard Colso and his Dutch wife Geertruida Koop aged 24, have set off from Oran since Monday on a 30.000km-trip through Africa on two wheels.

Their last stop over in Algeria will be at Bordj Badji El Mokhtar, a small village situated at te extreme far south of the country and which can only be reached after crossing the Tanezrouf, 750 kms of complete desert. The two cyclists will, of course, cover this part of their journey on a lorry which will pick them up when they get to Reggane.

Their itinerary will lead them to Gao and from there, they will sail down the river Niger, as far as Mopti; they will carry on with their trip through Mali, Upper Volta, Ivory-Coast, Ghana, Togo, Benin, the Cameroon, the Congo, Zaïre, Kenya, Tanzania and probably Zimbabwe. Up to that point, the journey will have taken over 18 months. The two globe-trotters are thinking of either going to Madagascar and then flying back home or cycling through the Sudan and Egypt before taking the plane to France.

Unlike his wife, Geertruida, Bernard Colso, who is a language student, has a long experience in cycling. In 1976, he travelled 13.000 kms on a bicycle to the remotest point north of Norway. The following year, he covered the distance Paris-Istanbul. In 1979, he

toured Canada, the U.S.A, Central and South America. In Brazil, he reached Ushuaia, the furthest southern point of the planet.

   After a short and enjoyable stay in Oran, Geertruida and Bernard are in Algiers at the moment. They intend to travel to Constantine and later head towards El-Oued. From there, they are planning to join Reggane via Ghardaïa, EL-Golea, Timimoun and Adrar. Their journey through Central and East Africa as far as the Nile Delta will last nearly 22 months.   **Translated from El-Moudjahed, Oct 23rd, 1983**

Exercise 1: Read the text and:

      a) Answer the question: Will the couple cycle all the way through their trip?

      b) Find the two paragraphs describing their trip in Algeria.

Exercise 2: Read the text carefully and draw the cyclists' routes on the maps

      a) In Algeria.

      b) From Bordj Badji El Mokhtar onwards.

STRUCTURE PRACTICE

    *TIME CONJUNCTIONS + PRESENT PERFECT

Exercise 1: Read the following example.

  New suit/ Hairdresser's. **Once I have picked up** my new suit, I'll go the hairdresser's.

Write similar sentences with the cue below. Use time conjunctions: when, after, as soon as, once, …

Filling station/Office. Lunch/Bank. Florist's/Tailor's. Hairdresser's/Wedding ceremony

Exercise 2: Samir's day off is Tuesday. Look at his diary to find out what activities he has planned for the day. Make complete sentences using the present perfect or the present simple after the appropriate time conjunctions.

Morning	**Afternoon**
1. Leave/ house Go/post office	1. Have/lunch Play chess/brothers
2. Borrow books/library Meet/friends	2. Watch/TV Do/homework

Exercise 3: What are your plans for the weekend?

 ** TO HAVE SOMETHING DONE

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Example: I'll have my car washed at the filling station.

Exercise 1: Pair work

Use the notes on the next page to make a conversation on the following model.

Then change roles

Example: A: My car is very dirty.

B: Why don't you have it washed?

or: You should have it washed.

1- Slacks / too long	Shorten
2- Car / dirty	Wash
3- Glasses / loose	Tighten
4- Colour or skirt / horrible	Dye
5- Hair / too long	Cut
6- Watch / slow	Repair

Exercise 2: Your friend has found a flat but a lot of things have to be done before he can move in. Look at the picture below and make sentences like this.

The tap is leaking. He will have it repaired.

Or, He has got to have it repaired.

Things damaged	What to do
-Tap	Replace
-Socket	Repair / mend
-Waterpipe	Plaster
-Tile	Paint
-Lamp	Connect
-Ceiling	Put
-Gas	Fix
-Window pane/ shutter	Change

COMMUNICATION

How to say

	shall / will ………………………….
I	intend to …………………………….

We	plan to …………………………….
	am/are thinking of ………………….

Exercise 1: Group work.

A and **B** are journalists interviewing the Coslo couple before they leave Oran (jobs, families, tastes, hobbies, etc… and their future plans after the trip). **C** and **D** are the Coslo couple.

Exercise 2: Pair work

A	B
You are a delegate of the "Amicale des Algériens en France". You want to find out about the conditions thatwill be offered to the children during their holidays in Algeria	You are in charge of organising the holiday camp.

Begin like this:

A: Where do you intend to set up the camp?

B: We are thinking of (place). It is situated near …….. It has ………

A: What kind of accommodation will you provide?

COMPOSITION: Choose one of the following subjects:

Exercise 1: Imagine you are the representative of the Emigrants. Write a report based on the information you've collected from the interview you had with the camp organizer. You can start your report like this:

The organizers in Algeria intend to set up the camp somewhere near …….

Exercise 2: As part of your summer job at Altour, you have been asked to write a description of an itinerary for a group of Canadian tourists who want to tour the south.

Using the following list and map, describe the itinerary they will follow. Start like this: Your first stop will be at Bou Saada, the city of happiness …

P: 28, a map and a list of seven Algerian towns are provided.

Exercise 3: Write a letter to a penfriend telling him/her about your plans for the future (studies, job, travelling, ertc…).

Analysis and evaluation of the material

- **Proficiency and grade level**: intermediate learners, 2ème AS.

-**Objectives**: by the end of the unit the learners will be able:

   *plan and order a set of activities for the day;

   *plan and describe a trip and give information about a place to visit.

-**Specific objectives**: learners will be able to use the future tense "I plan to, I intend to, I am/we are thinking of", time conjunctions, past participle and simple present.

-**Function**: planning future activities

-**Notions**: time (simple present, pas participle, and simple future)

-**Materials**: a text in addition to two maps of Africa and Algeria

1. **Warming up**: there is no suggested activity for this step. It is better to give the learners some information about Algeria

2. **Listening comprehension**: there are two comprehension activities:

*Activity one: to make a set of sentences in a chronological order by giving the first sentence through listening. This activity is very useful to help the learners know how to put order in a set of activities, and memorize and think at the same time.

*Activity two: it consists of listening and filling in the blanks.

3. **Reading comprehension**:

*Activity one: there are only two questions; one is a direct WH question which is easy to find in the text and does not deserve a lot of analysis. The same thing can be said about the second question. In this activity there is no analysis, and this does not help the learners to get the main idea of the text.

*Activity two: through reading the text, learners will put the cyclist's route on the map through reading. It is a direct question where the learners will only follow the steps to draw the routes without giving much importance to the order of the events in this text.

Reading is not enough, and it is not sufficient. Thus, it is better if there are some questions of comprehension which make the learners think and use their minds like to ask them indirect questions which need analysis and not stated directly in the text.

4. **Practice**: it is divided in to two parts: A and B

A/ Time conjunctions and present perfect

Analysis- Exercise 1: following the example to write sentences using the given conjunctions

Synthesis- Exercise 2: using the given table which contains Samir's activities to write sentences using the present perfect or the present simple.

Production –Exercise 3: what are your plans for the weekend? It is a productive exercise.

B/ To have something done.

Exercise 1: production using an example; introduce the structure and explain its meaning. The learners learn the structure through drills.

Exercise 2: based on the picture. Learners make sentences relying on a given model. The benefit of this exercise is to introduce the learners to new words. We can say that in practice, it gives much more importance to the present perfect and the future rather than to the other elements and structures like: 'I intend to…'

Each exercise in the structure practice consists of an example for the learners to write without the analysis (they just follow the model and without thinking. There is a repetition of the types of the exercise; there is no production in the practice which does not cover all the elements stated in the objectives.

5. **Production**:

-Communication:

*Exercise 1 is a group work. It is a role play where the journalist asks the couple using forms of planning future activities (the structure is given above to use).

*Exercise 2 is a pair work. It is a conversation with the camp organiser.

-Composition:

*Exercise 1 is writing a composition relaying on the previous exercise.

*Exercise 2 is writing a composition relaying on some given information and a map.

*Exercise 3 is a letter to tell about your plan to a friend of you.

We can say here that there is much more production than practice because the learners aren't given enough time and exercises to master some structures. The production reflects the competence stated in the objective.

4.2.3. <u>The third example:</u>

We present here the whole material and the integrity of the comments made by the participants about a language teaching material entitled 'Nescafé' In *My New Book of English* (52-57) for First Year Secondary School.

'Nescafé'

Nescafé is drunk in most countries, and the taste of the soluble coffee depends on the blend of the different types of coffee beans. So, first of all, the coffee is carefully blended to suit consumer taste in each different country. This is why throughout the world there are different types of Nescafé .

Basically, the manufacture of Nescafe is very simple. It starts off with the roasting operation. On leaving the plantation, the coffee is a pale greyish green, known as 'green coffee'. To obtain its beautiful brown colour, and its aroma and flavour, it is roasted at high temperature in a roasting machine. At 100° C, the beans turn a pale yellow colour , towards 150° C, they begin to turn brown and swell, and start to give a good coffee smell, and roasting point is reached between 200 and 250° C; by which time the beans, now dark brown, have practically doubled in size and give out a strong aroma. After roasting, the coffee is passed through a machine which removes all foreign bodies which may have become mixed up with the beans when they were harvested.

The next stage of the process is grinding. The coffee goes through a mill and is ground down to equal-size particles. The manufacture then reaches a stage well-known to everyone who makes fresh coffee at home. After grinding the coffee, you pass boiling water through it to extract the liquid coffee. Exactly the same procedure is followed in the factory… The freshly ground coffee is put into huge percolators containing circulating boiling water, and a highly concentrated liquid coffe is produced.

After that, the liquid coffee is dried in a current of hot air. This process is known as 'atomisation' and is widely used in the food industry. The liquid coffee is atomised at the upper end of a metal tower which can be as high as thirty metres. The water evaporates instantly, and the fine coffee particles cool upon falling to the lower part of the tower.

Finally the powdered coffee is put into jars under vacuum conditions, so that the coffee can be preserved almost indefinitely. All the consumer has to do is to put a teaspoonful of the powder in a cup, add the boiling water, and there's your cup of 'instant coffee'.

A few words explained

To blend: to mix two or more types of the same product.

Swell: increase in size.

Harvested: crops collected

Grinding: breaking coffee beans into smaller grains.

Mill: small machine for crushing coffee into powder.

Percolator: a pot in which hot water passes slowly through crushed coffee beans into a container below.

1) Re-order the paragraphs

In one minute, you should be able to put these five paragraphs in their correct order. There are certain words that should help you. Can you say which ones? Put a number from 1 to 5 in the space provided.

	After that, the liquid coffee is dried in a current of hot air. This process is known as 'atomisation' and is widely used in the food industry…
	Basically, the manufacture of Nescafe is very simple. It starts off with the roasting operation. On leaving the plantation, the coffee is a pale greyish green, known as 'green coffee…'
	Finally the powdered coffee is put into jars under vacuum condition, so that the coffee can be preserved almost indefinitely. All the consumer has to do is ….
	Nescafe is drunk in most countries, and the taste of the soluble coffee depends on the blend of the different types of coffee beans. So, first of all, the coffee is carefully blended…
	The next stage of the process is grinding. The coffee goes through a mill and is ground down to fine equal-size particles. The manufacture then reaches a stage ….

2) Answer the following question according to the text

1. What makes coffee taste differently?

2. Is coffee originally brown?

3. Describe the roasting operation.

4. What happens to the coffee beans after the roasting operation?

5. Describe the process of grinding?

6. How are colour, aroma and flavour obtained?

7. How is instant coffee prepared?

8. Write all the words expressing a colour in the second paragraph.

9. How is concentrated liquid coffee produced?

10. Why is powdered coffee put into jars under vacuum conditions?

11. How many stages can you distinguish in the making of soluble coffee?

12. What happens to the coffee beans at the following temperatures: 100° C, 150° C, 200° C-250° C

3) Multiple choice Questions: tick the most suitable ending.

1. The coffee is roasted to

  a) separate the grains.

  b) mix the grains.

  c) obtain a beautiful brown colour, aroma and flavour.

2. The coffee is ground to

  a) boil the grains.

  b) break the grains into small particles.

  c) remove foreign bodies.

3. The liquid coffee is atomised to

  a) produce hot coffee.

  b) produce soluble coffee.

  c) produce powder.

4) Observe the following pattern

| We roast coffee |
| Coffee is roasted |

Is it necessary to say who roasted the coffee, to declare who the agent is? In a process, the process itself is important, the agent is not important.

So there is no need to say 'Coffee is roasted by us.'

Now do the same.

      1) We blend coffee.

      2) We pass coffee through a machine.

      3) We remove all foreign bodies.

      4) We grind coffee.

      5) We atomise the liquid coffee.

      6) We remove foreign bodies.

      7) We dry the liquid coffee.

5) Observe and draw conclusions

a) Who is 'you' in 'You pass boiling water through it' in the second paragraph?

  -Select some sentences where 'you' is used and turn them into the passive.

Is it necessary to say who the agent is?

Does it make any difference?

 -Select some passive voices in the passage and use 'you' + active voice.

Does it make any difference?

b) Why is the passive voice used in

 - 'So first of all the coffee is carefully blended.'

  Who is the agent?

 - 'They were harvested.'

  Who is the agent?

6) Select past participles used and give their infinitives. Classify infinitives of regular and irregular verbs.

REGULAR VERBS	IRREGULAR VERBS

Classify the regular verbs according to the pronunciation of 'ed'

/ id /	/ d /	/ t/

7) Debating: For or against instant coffee?

You are in favour of instant coffee. Find someone who prefers fresh coffee. Prepare arguments and present them to the rest of the class. They will decide who presented the most convincing arguments.

8) Find in the text words or expressions that are closest in meaning to the following:

1. step	2. very hot	3. technique	4. enormous	5. smell

9) Find in the text words or expressions that are opposite in meaning to the following:

1. complex	2. slow	3.previous	4.lower	5.weak

10) Observe

Greyish: not exactly grey, but close to it. What could you say about

Yellowish?	Youngish?	Tennish?

11) Say if the statement is true, false or not mentioned

Statements	T	F	N
1. Nescafe is drunk in very few countries.			
2. Soluble coffee has always the same taste.			
3. Manufactured coffee is known as 'green coffee'.			
4. People prefer Nescafe to fresh coffee.			
5. After roasting the coffee beans become smaller.			
6. Grinding coffee means reducing grains to powder.			
7. Instant coffee is prepared with cold water.			
8.Fresh coffee tastes better than Nescafe			

13) Re-order these sentences to make a logical paragraph.

 a) After roasting, all foreign bodies are removed.

 b) After grinding, boiling water is passed through to extract liquid coffee.

 c) First, the coffee is carefully blended.

 d) Then it is roasted up to 250° C to give a strong aroma.

 e) Next the coffee is ground.

14) Write a composition on the following:

 Who prepares fresh coffee at home?

 Write a step-by-step description of how fresh coffee is prepared in your house.

 Compare your description with that of a class mate

Analysis and evaluation of the material

-Grade and proficiency level: 1ere AS, pre-intermediate level.

-General objective: The learners will write a chronological paragraph to describe a process.

-Specific objectives:

- The learners use sequencers to express order or chronology.

- The learners transform nouns to adjectives

- The learners transform sentences from active voice to passive voice and vice-versa.

-General function: Description of a process

-Notions: adjectives, backward reference, regular and irregular verbs, active and passive forms, the time sequencers (first, second ….)

Activity 1: Re-order the paragraphs. Here, the pupils order five paragraphs in one minute depending on certain words (sequencers). This activity is of reading comprehension related to the first specific objective.

Activity 2: Answer the following questions according to the text. The pupils answer reference questions which the answer is directly or explicitly mentioned in the text.

Activity 3: Multiple choice questions: tick the most suitable ending. The pupils are given statements with different possibilities, and they have to choose the most suitable possibility. This is an activity of reading comprehension.

Activity 4: Observe the following pattern and do the same with the given sentences.

This is an activity of practice in which an example is extracted from the text to show how passive form is structured and what is the difference between the active and the passive in terms of structure and meaning. This activity is related to one of the specific objectives stated at the beginning of this analysis.

Activity 5: Observe and draw conclusions. Again, there is an example extracted from the text to explain how language works or how it is structured. Here, the activity is about 'passive voice'. Therefore, it is related to one of the specific objectives. It is an activity of practice.

Activity 6: here, three instructions are given; -select the past participles and give their infinitives; -classify infinitives of regular and irregular verbs; -classify the regular verbs according to the pronunciation of 'ed'. It is an activity of grammar practice.

Activity 7: Debating: for or against instant coffee? This activity may be considered as a guideline.

Activity 8: Find in the text words or expressions that are closest in meaning to the following; it is an activity of reading comprehension.

Activity 9: find in the text words or expressions that are opposite in meaning to the following. This is an activity of reading comprehension, too.

Activity 10: observe a given word from the text and compare some given words to it. It is an activity of practice related to one of the specific objectives (using adjectives).

Activity 11: say if the statement is true, false or not mentioned. It is an activity of reading comprehension.

There is no Activity 12.

Activity 13: re-order the statement to make a logical paragraph. The statements are taken from the text to be put in a logical order. This is an activity of reading comprehension.

Activity 14: write a composition on the following. The pupil is asked to write or describe the process of preparing fresh coffee. This is an activity of production, and it is related to the general objective of the lesson.

Criticism

1. In fact, the material is not very interesting at least for many pupils.

2. There is no warming up in which there is a reference to pupils' background knowledge as an introduction to the lesson. The warming up is very important because it also prepares the learners psychologically and creates a good atmosphere for teaching.

3. The text is directly followed by the explanation of some words extracted from the text. This is really an offence the teacher made. S/He, in fact, spoon feeds the learners while s/he is supposed to encourage them to make intelligent guesses and deduce the meaning of the words from the context.

4. There are no activities of listening comprehension. This is a reading and writing material (except activity 7). It seems that it is a testing material rather than a teaching one.

5. Activity 2 is a set of direct (reference) questions. The teacher doesn't make his pupils minds work; the answers are written explicitly in the text so that the learners will just copy them. Teachers should give inference questions that make the learners use their minds and interpret the answers from the text.

6. The same thing is found in activity 13. The learners will learn nothing; they just copy the answer from the text. The teacher, here, thinks that learning is repeating like parrots while teaching is making the learners think.

7. The teacher does not know if he is teaching or evaluating. He pretends to be teaching, but the learners hardly learn new things through these activities which are not valuable. Even, in the last activity of production, the teacher gives a composition about the same topic (coffee). S/he could have given another topic like: 'write about your daily life habits'.

8. There is a problem in writing the instructions. In activity 3, 'tick the most appropriate ending' is not clear. We expect the learners to ask the teacher what he means. Anyone who reads the instruction of activity 6 expects that the following two instructions are parts of the first one But this is not the case. It would be better if the teacher divides the activity into three sub-instructions. The last activity contains a contamination variable which is "fresh coffee". This word is not clear. What does "fresh coffee" mean?

9. The activities are not sufficient and the length of each activity is not appropriate. Teaching activities should be generous in design. The more the pupils apply, the more they expand their knowledge.

10. Again, activities 7 and 8 are not valuable. The teacher is spoon feeding the learners. He is reducing their capacities to think. Why doesn't he give the meaning from the context?

11. Activity 11 would be better if put in listening comprehension.

12. There is no order in the activities. The teacher starts with comprehension then moves to practice; something which is logical. But after that, he comes back to comprehension and finishes with production. The activities should be in this order: comprehension, practice, and then production.

Conclusion: the preceding comments draw attention to the fact that the teaching material is not suitable for teaching because it is essentially designed for testing. The activities given, in fact, uncover the teacher's philosophy about teaching. He assumes that teaching is spoon feeding and learners' minds are empty (banking conception). There are no activities for listening and speaking which are very important language skills. The teacher is ignoring the process of teaching which starts first with a warming up and ends with production.

4.2.3.1. <u>Our comments</u>:

The participants' contribution in these three examples of material analysis and evaluation is positive to a great extent. The participants covered all the criteria and took into account all the aspects related to choice of text, nature of exercise and activity type, relationship with objectives, learners' interests, and teaching/learning procedures. Their conclusions that the materials sometimes lack order and organisation of learning steps, and/or require more time to be realised are quite appropriate.

4.2.4. <u>The fourth example</u>:

The new textbook, for first year secondary school, is designed and implemented according to a competency based course (cf. Chapter 3 syllabus design: 155-156). The participants undertook this analysis out of curiosity to deal with the newly introduced materials of this textbook because they would be soon dealing with it-as teacher-trainees, and would be using it as teachers in the near future.

The example provided is Unit 2 'Once upon a time', sequence three: developing skills -from *At the Crossroads* (46-47) for First year secondary school- and it is followed by the participants' contribution in terms of analysis and evaluation.

Unit 2: 'Once upon a time'. Sequence three: developing skills,
At the Crossroads (46-47) for First year secondary school.

1. **Look at the book cover below and answer these questions** (picture of the book cover Charles Dickens' Hard Times. The picture shows a painting of an industrial city)

A. Who is the author of the book?

B. What is its title?

C. What does the picture illustrate? Tick in the appropriate box and justify.

  a. a beautiful village ☐   **b.** an industrial town ☐   **c.** a tourist resort ☐

2. Read and check your answers to questions B and C above.

Coketown was a town of red brick. It was a town of unnatural red and black like the painted face of a savage. It was a town of machinery and tall chimneys, out of which interminable serpents of smoke trailed themselves for ever and ever, and never got uncoiled. It had a black canal in it, and a river which ran purple with ill-smelling dye. Vast piles of building full of windows trembled all day long because of the piston engines of the machines, which worked up and down monotonously like a melancholy elephant.

Coketown contained several large streets all very like one another, and many small streets still like one another. The people who lived there were also like one another. They all went in and out at the same hours to work in the textile factories near their homes.

You saw nothing in Coketown but some rare facilities. The infirmary stood next to the town hall. The library was opposite to the M'Choakumchild school. The bank was between the Old Church and the prison. All public inscriptions were written in black and white. So all the buildings looked like one another. There was neither a leisure centre nor a public library where children could go.

(Adapted from Charles Dickens' ***Hard Times***)

3. Read the passage on the previous page again and answer the questions below. Give evidence from the text.

a. What does the author compare Coketown to?

b. Why was the canal black?

c. What did most people in Coketown do for a living?

d. Was Coketown a peaceful or a noisy town?

e. Was it a good place to live in? Why or why not?

4. Complete the sentences below with information from the text.

a. The smoke from the factories resembled ……………………..

b. The piston engines were similar to ………………………

c. The people who lived in Cokeztown looked like ……………………….

5. How does the author convey the idea of …

a. dirtiness in paragraph 1 (§ 1)?

b. monotony in paragraph 2 (§ 2)?

c. boredom in paragraph 3 (§ 3)?

6. Imagine you are a novelist. Write an introductory paragraph about an imaginary town or village where your story will take place.

   Make the best use of the information below.

a. What was the name of your imaginary town/village?

b. How big was it?

c. Where was it situated and how was its geography?

   -   It was in the east/ south-east / centre ….. of the country.

   -   It was on the Mediterranean coast / the Shlef River ….. / hills / in the mountains / the Soummam Valley / the Sahara desert …..

   -   It was hilly / flat …..

   -   The land was rocky / sandy / good for farming …..

   -   It was about 40 / 50 / ….. kilometres away from ….

d. What facilities were there in the town / village?

   -It had a beach / market / Town Hall / hospital …..

e. How many people live din the town / village, and what did they do for a living?

f. What was life like there? Boring / exciting / depressing.

<p align="center">Analysis and evaluation</p>

-Objectives:

-The learner will be able to anticipate the content or the message through a title or a picture;

-The learner will be able to answer comprehension questions and justify his answer with arguments.

-**Proficiency and grade level**: Intermediate learners, 1ere AS

-**Materials**: a text and a picture; it is a good way to develop learners' anticipation, it would help them to get a general idea of the story, a picture always attracts the readers' attention.

1.**Warming up**: The teacher may ask the learners to name the authors they know and some of their books . S/He may also ask them if they know about Charles Dickens. If their answer is 'Yes', the teacher may ask them to name some of his books; if not, the teacher will tell them something about the author and his books including 'Hard Times'. Then, s/he may ask them that if they want to know what this story is about, they will have to look at the picture and answer the questions.

2. **Reading activities**:

-The first activity includes WH questions which answers are found directly in the text, and a few inference questions which make the learners use their minds to find the answers.

-The second activity asks the learners to complete some information from the text and this will be much less useful than the previous activity because the learners will be just copying the information from the text and do not make any guessing.

-The third activity asks the learners a difficult question: 'how does the author convey the idea?' This is a problem for the learners who do not know how to answer such a question. Or, may be they have not been prepared or taught about how a given author, or authors, convey their ideas, etc…

3. **Practice and production**: the learners are asked to write an introductory paragraph to a story about an imaginary town. They are guided by six questions which do not provide them with any answer.

4.2.4.1. <u>Our comments</u>:

Our comments on this materials analysis and evaluation are –in comparison to the previous ones (4.2.3.1, above), very critical. The analysis and comments do not cover the entire unit though. The participants limited their task to analyse the third section which deals with 'developing skills'; a sequence which focuses on the development of reading and writing abilities. The participants ignored the map of the book which specifies the language functions of asking for directions, locating places, comparing and narrating, and did not give importance to the language forms provided in the same map. Their comments on the activities are too superficial and inappropriate –especially for the third activity which they considered as difficult; in fact the activity invites the learners to discover the author's style and helps them make abstractions of the terms 'dirtiness', 'monotony', and 'boredom'. The participants stopped their analysis and evaluation task at page 47 while the sequence continues on pages 48 and 49 with much more interesting and beneficial learning tasks for the learners. Our general comment is that these participants did not take the task seriously and thus ended with a very poor work; their class mates considered this as a very bad achievement.

5. <u>Production project: Materials Design and development</u>:

The last phase of the experiment consisted of assembling all the participants' acquired/improved skills in materials analysis and evaluation to elaborate, design and develop their own materials. The project consisted of making the participants choose an authentic text and use it as a source of input information, apply information structure,

functional and notional analyses of discourse in order to determine its required proficiency level and the objectives of using it in a language teaching/learning context.

The project will represent the participants own achievement which can bring to them a personal satisfaction of their development. However, for us, the project of materials design and development will serve first as a tool of assessment for the various implementation measures applied in the experiment (section 3 above) and second as a posttest of the whole experiment which results will be compared to the pretest in the next chapter.

<u>Summary and conclusion</u>:

Throughout this chapter we attempted to put into practice what we believed in as academic achievements in the field of materials design and development by following a collaborative action research in the implementation of all the experiment. The method consisted mainly of introducing a number of principles on information structure and organisation, discourse function and notions in authentic texts which can serve as a basis for materials design and development. Pedagogical implementation required the examination of the interrelated and interdependent performance objectives, learning strategies and production outcomes together in the process of materials development. The collaborative action relied on exemplification and participants' contribution by first practising materials analysis and evaluation, and last by developing their own materials.

The conclusion we come to at the end of this chapter is that the task was huge and time consuming because individual tracking of the participants and correction -feedback- alternatives were very frequent. As the stages of the experiment progressed, the participants were much more involved, and hence much more demanding, in terms of discussions, criticism and collaboration.

CHAPTER SIX

EVALUATION OF RESULTS AND FINDINGS

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    Experimental group two

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    The material

3. The posttest

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Number and appropriateness of items

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Comparative evaluation of rates

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Example 1: 'Postman spent five days in car boot'

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Example 3: 'Hero rescues girl under bus'

Example 4: 'Best man is the groom'

9. Summary of qualitative findings

Conclusion

Evaluation of results and findings

<u>**Introduction**</u>

In this chapter we provide an evaluation of the pretest and posttest achievements. Hence there is a description of characteristic features of the whole population who took part in the experiment in order to establish correlative relationship between background knowledge, before the treatment and the achievements of the participants after the posttest. It provides a thorough description of the pretest and posttest content, evaluation and analysis of results. A comparison of pre-test and posttest achievements of each group separately is necessary in order to find out whether the achievements of the two experimental groups have changed due to the experiment implementation. A qualitative comparison of the achievements of the two experimental groups with the control group determines, at the end, the rate and significance of components which prove the efficiency of the treatment.

1. <u>**Population:**</u>

The population involved in the experiment is set into three groups of participants. The control group, the first and the second experimental groups took part in the pretest and the posttest. Hence this choice helps us compare the background knowledge and abilities of the two experimental groups to those of the control group before the experiment, and also compare their achievements –after the experiment- to the same control group who did not receive any kind of treatment. The participants of the control group are part time teachers who can improve their own abilities through their own experience but are not associated to any aspect of the experiment.

Control group:

A group of ten EAP teachers at the five departments of the humanities and social sciences have already been identified in the situation analysis. In addition to the questionnaire that they answered, they were also asked to take part in the pre-test. Their age varied from 23 to 27 years. All of them have a B.A in English, received a general TEFL course during the fourth year, and have an average experience of 1 to 3 years of teaching EAP.

Experimental group one:

A group of 20 undergraduates attending a teacher-training course at the ENS – Constantine, participated in the experiment during their undergraduate teacher-training program. All of them received the same general TEFL course during the third year program. Their age varies from 20 to 24 years; they have no experience of teaching whatsoever.

Experimental group two:

A group of 14 postgraduate students took part in the experiment during their postgraduate course in 'Reading and writing convergences'. They were selected out of approximately 400 candidates (a selective entrance test for candidates to the postgraduate course). Their age varied from 22 to 41 years old. All of them received a general TEFL course in the B.A English course but have different teaching experiences; three of them did not have any teaching experience, four of them taught English at academic departments for a year, three had a three year teaching experience, while four of them had five to sixteen years experience of teaching English at secondary school. This heterogeneous experience may seem misleading in terms of participants' background knowledge and teaching experience, as it may also be non distinctive if the participants were not at all involved in guided materials design and development. Tracking their evolution throughout the experience and evaluation of their achievements in the post test will help us determine the impact of this heterogeneity.

2. __The pretest:__

The pre-test consisted of the participants' elaboration by design and development of a teaching material, relying on an authentic text. All three groups, control and experimental, were given a short newspaper article to read, analyze and develop into a teaching material. Very short instructions were given to them as guidelines which will help us evaluate their abilities in materials design and development.

__The material__:

This newspaper article is extracted from Land (1983: 20) which, according to him, is intended to intermediate learners of English. Our choice of this newspaper article is motivated primarily by its authenticity, reality, and appropriateness to secondary school

learners and first year university students whose proficiency in English varies from pre-intermediate to intermediate levels.

The genre type of this newspaper article can be classified as 'news in brief' among the mass media communication nomenclature that would use 'narrating' and 'reporting' functions to describe strange, outstanding, distinctive social events and stories (see chapter 2, section: 5.1).

The first blackbird (The Daily Mail May 26th, 1973)

Mrs Myra Webb, who was told by doctors that she would never hear again, lived for six years in a world of silence. But yesterday she heard a blackbird sing in the garden of her home at Brighton, Sussex. 'My hearing is coming back-and it's wonderful.' She said. Mrs Webb, 26, claims to be the first woman in Britain to have her hearing restored by acupuncture, the needle therapy widely practised in China. After six months' treatment she can listen to music again, carry on a conversation with the aid of a hearing aid - and has got a job as typist with the South Electricity Board

'It's marvellous to hear people talk.' She said at her home in Stanstead Crescent, Brighton. Mrs Webb began to loose her hearing at the age of 12 after a virus infection. 'By the age of 20 I had no hearing whatsoever.'

'A friend told me about acupuncture and I went weakly for treatment. One night when I was in the kitchen I heard a faint sound and realised it was my musical kettle boiling. I went weak at the knees. My hearing has slowly improved since.'

Her husband David, 26 year old insurance worker, said: 'She is thrilled by the results and is continuing the treatment.'

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3. <u>The post test</u>:

After the treatment, at the end of the experiment, the control group and the two experimental groups of participants are involved in a materials design and development project. The 10 participants of the control group are asked to complete this task either

individually or with any one of their colleagues: they submitted 10 projects (see Appendix IV) a month later than expected. The participants of both experimental groups, however, were asked to work in pairs to complete their task and submit it at the end of the second term. Thus, 20 participants of experimental group one submitted 10 projects (see Appendix: V) and 14 participants of experimental group two submitted 07 projects (see Appendix: VI). The free choice given to control group participants and the pair work assigned to the participants of both experimental groups is founded on the principle that materials design and development is always a collaborative task among teaching staff whatever their qualifications. Showing newly designed materials to teacher colleagues, seeking their help and advice, is a common practice all over the teaching communities and a recommended measure for teacher development.

The materials:

A wide range of newspaper articles were suggested to all participants who selected the article they wanted to develop as a teaching/learning material. Fifteen newspaper articles (Appendix III) were selected by all the participants of the three groups. These articles are of the same genre type and approximate length as the pre-test, above. They deal with a variety of topics that can be of interest to teachers, as well as learners of approximately pre-intermediate and intermediate levels. These articles, though not completely academic, include a number of issues which raise concern among the students' community (accidents, racism, social solidarity, justice, illness and miracles, social behavior, history) and present authentic language which can help learners rely on their background proficiency level to face academic terms and expressions in the future.

4. **The instructions**

In order to avoid any confusion in the participants' role and performance in the pre-test and the posttest, we preferred to bring them about to focus their attention on three major tasks:

1- Reading the newspaper article with the purpose of using it as a material for foreign language learners. This preliminary stage appeals to the participants' cognitive and metacognitive awareness of their role as designers who will manipulate the learners' learning process.

2- Analysing the organisation of information structure, the discourse functions and notions of the newspaper article. This draws their attention to 'new' information items and 'language practice' which correspond to their learners' level and achievement objectives.

3- Developing learning activities according to a general lesson plan of 'presentation, comprehension, practice, and production activities'. This instruction, at least, would remind the participants of the general background knowledge they received in the TEFL course.

The instructions had to be written in a straightforward, non ambiguous, short and precise way. They were stated as follows:

'-Read the newspaper article and determine the procedure of developing it to be used as a foreign language teaching material.
-Explain and determine the nature and purpose of the article (information, functions and notions), the proficiency and grade level it fits and, then, define the objective that the learners will achieve.
- Design a lesson plan and write complete activities which you think are necessary for each step of Presentation, Comprehension, Practice and Production outcome of learning activities.'

5. <u>Evaluation criteria and grading</u>:

Establishing distinctive and valid criteria of evaluation of both pretest and posttest achievements is a complex task. It requires both comprehensive and detailed characteristics of our assumptions and reasons of carrying this research. The evaluation has to be comprehensive in the sense that it covers aspects related to 'information processing, discourse functions and notions' together with pedagogical aspects of purposeful, procedural, and productive learning.

We suggest, hence, ten criteria of evaluation; each criterion is scored from 0 to 3, according to the answers provided by the participants. If the answer does not give any consideration to the criterion, it is graded 0; if the answer is inappropriate or false, it is graded 1 (for at least, the participant has targeted a given quality of materials design and development and has, hence, attempted to deal with it); if the answer is stated but wrongly expressed (lack of concision and precision, leading to ambiguity or misinterpretation, and hence needs qualitative improvement), it is graded 2; finally if the answer is stated in exact terms that clearly determine the expected quality of the material and/or the learners' task, it is graded 3. This type of evaluation provides possibilities of quantitative (statistics) and qualitative (arguments) interpretation of results in such a field as language teaching (cf. Saadi, 2005: 20-21).

5.1. Content topic and information structure:

This criterion evaluates participants' awareness of the content topic that the text deals with. Expected answers of the participants should at least mention –in the case of the pretest- 'medical treatment', 'acupuncture', 'court case' or 'hearing problems' when analyzing the material. If the participants are aware of the importance of such information, this will certainly lead them to design activities that deal with information

processing and, hence, comprehension (vocabulary, sentence relations, conjunctions, sentence structure, etc…).

5.2. <u>Language functions</u>:

This criterion evaluates the participants' knowledge and application of discourse analysis to authentic texts as to determine the intention of the author. The participants are expected to provide expressions like for example 'narrating a story', 'reporting a judicial case' or 'an event', 'describing past events', or 'explaining/defining a medical treatment/acupuncture.'

5.3. <u>Language notions</u>:

This criterion evaluates the participants' knowledge and application of rhetorical notions used by the author to express his/her ideas and intentions. Grammatical notions, structural combinations and relations, and specific vocabulary items are important markers of discourse. The participants are expected to mention at least 'time and time relations' 'direct and reported speech', 'age', 'jobs', 'hearing-aids/acupuncture, etc…

5.4. <u>Proficiency level</u>:

This criterion reveals the participants' knowledge of, and ability to determine, the proficiency level of the text in question and its suitability to expected learners. Their answers are expected to provide proficiency levels like for example 'pre-intermediate' or 'intermediate' and also class levels 'first, second, third year secondary school / first year at university', etc…

5.5. <u>Achievement objectives</u>:

This is a crucial criterion which relies on the successful answers in the previous criteria. The participants are, here, required to express the expected outcome of the learners according to their further answers to the other criteria –below. They are expected to write a statement which defines clearly what the learners are able to do at the end of the material with regard to what they have learnt throughout. Examples of such statements can be 'learners will (be able to) narrate a story, report past events and experience, describe an illness and its medical treatment' and represent an expected productive outcome in speech and/or writing that will be observed and measured. Additional sub-objectives can also be considered as positive answers like 'using the past tense, reference, adjectives, adverbs, etc…

5.6. <u>Lesson plan</u>:

This criterion evaluates the participants' organization of the material into steps of a lesson plan which leads the learners progressively from familiarization with the topic towards the production stage. The informants' answers are expected to include the following steps: 'warm-up/pre-reading, reading comprehension/post reading, communication/language practice, and follow-up/outcome, production.'

5.7. <u>Number and appropriateness of activities</u>:

The participants are expected to supply each lesson step with an appropriate number of activities which in turn depends to a great extent on their analysis of information, discourse functions and markers, and pedagogical measures they are to undertake throughout the lesson plan in view of making the learners achieve the defined objectives. We presume that approximately three activities are, at least, necessary for each lesson step.

5.8. <u>Explicit instructions</u>:

Directions, examples and sentence starters are written by teaches in order to make the learners carry out a given task. Imperative directions are generally used to lead the learners to distinguish a given model or to focus attention on an example which is extracted from the input material. Sentence starters are provided by the teacher who takes part in the task, as a classroom interaction support, to initiate learners' participation. The purposive, clear, and exemplified instruction is a very successful quality of a language teaching material. Exemplification is almost always necessary when learners are performing a given task for the first time.

5.9. <u>Number and appropriateness of items</u>:

The number of items provided in any activity determines how generous the material is; it shows to what extent learners are given opportunities of learning through extensive practice of the items. The appropriateness of the suggested items to the purpose of the activity determines the relevance of the participants' choices and decisions about the relationship of the items with the activity type as being either 'information processing', 'discourse functions', 'language practice' and/or a 'production task'. Hence, a minimum number of four appropriate items is required in each activity.

5.10. <u>Production outcome</u>:

The expected achievements of the learners must correspond to the defined objective; this may be described as a functional outcome where the learners apply what they have learnt and practiced to perform the same function used in the input material. It may also be described as a communicative outcome where the learners are asked to react/respond to the input material by giving their own perception of, or opinions about, events, facts,

etc… Here, the participants are supposed to instruct the learners to produce an observable and measurable outcome; a follow up activity -in their plan- which serves as an evaluation of the materials' efficiency in relation to the lesson plan. Learners may even be asked to perform orally, first- and sometimes in pairs or in groups, and then express their ideas in writing.

6. **Results and comments**:

The pretest and the posttest are to be evaluated according to the same ten criteria and the same grading (from 0 to 3) –above. Each participants' project is evaluated separately first (best score would be 30), and its score is added to all other participants' scores to make the total score of the group. Every participant's mean is calculated through percentage achievement, and all participants means are then calculated through the total means divided by the number of participants in the group. Every criterion mean is calculated through dividing the total scores of the participants in one criterion by the number of participants (to obtain a percentage achievement), and then all criteria mean is obtained through the total criteria means divided by the number of criteria.

6.1 **The results of control group participants:**

We present, here, the results and comments on the achievements of the control group participants in the pretest and the posttest.

6.1.1 **Pretest achievements:**

Evaluation criteria	# 1	# 2	# 3	# 4	# 5	# 6	# 7	# 8	# 9	# 10	Total	Means
Content/Information structure	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	**4**	**13,33**
Language functions	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	0	0	**14**	**46,67**
Language notions	1	0	2	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	**5**	**16,67**
Proficiency level	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	**16**	**53,33**
Achievement objcetives	3	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	**12**	**40**

Lesson plan	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	**6**	20
Nbr/ of Approp activities	1	1	1	3	3	2	1	2	1	2	**17**	**56,67**
Explicit instructions	0	0	0	0	1	3	1	1	1	1	**8**	**26,67**
Nbr/ of Approp items	1	1	0	0	1	2	1	0	1	1	**8**	**26,67**
Production outcolme	1	0	2	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	**9**	30
Participant(s) Total scores	**12**	**9**	**9**	**10**	**11**	**12**	**9**	**10**	**8**	**9**	**99**	33
Partcipant(s) Means	**40**	**30**	**30**	**33,33**	**36,7**	**40**	**30**	**33,3**	**26,67**	**30**	**33,00**	

Table 26: Pretest achievements of the control group

It appears, from Table 26 above, that the results of the control group in the pretest are below average in total scores and means. The ten participants obtained 99/300 scores which represents 33% of the expected best achievement in all criteria of evaluation. When the criteria are examined separately according to the scores and means of all participants, it comes out that the reasons of failure can be said to be the bad scores and means in the following criteria: 'content and information structure' (only 13.33%), 'language notions' (only 16.67%), 'lesson plan' (only 20%), 'explicit instructions' and 'number of appropriate items' (only 26.67% each), 'production outcome' (only 30%), 'achievement objectives' (40%), and 'language functions' (46.67%). However the participant had average scores in only two criteria of evaluation: determining the 'proficiency level' (53.33%) and 'number of appropriate activities' (56.67%).

6.1.2 Posttest achievements:

The posttest was given to the participants eight months after the pretest. A whole academic year of teaching English for academic purposes – in addition to their previous experience- was a chance for them to improve their abilities in the design of their materials and the development of their lesson plans and presentations.

Evaluation criteria	# 1	# 2	# 3	# 4	# 5	# 6	# 7	# 8	# 9	# 10	Total	Means
Content/Information structure	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	**5**	**16,67**
Language functions	1	0	0	0	2	0	2	0	2	2	**9**	**30,00**

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Language notions	1	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	3	0	**7**	**23,33**
Proficiency level	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	2	**6**	**20,00**
Achievement objectives	1	0	2	1	3	3	2	1	1	3	**17**	**56,67**
Lesson plan	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	**18**	**60,00**
Nbr/ of Approp activities	1	1	2	1	2	2	2	1	2	1	**15**	**50,00**
Explicit instructions	1	0	1	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	**14**	**46,67**
Nbr/ of Approp items	1	1	0	2	1	1	1	1	1	0	**9**	**30,00**
Production outcolme	1	2	2	3	2	2	1	2	2	2	**19**	**63,33**
Participant(s) Total scores	**10**	**6**	**9**	**11**	**16**	**12**	**17**	**9**	**15**	**14**	**119**	**39,67**
Partcipant(s) Means	**33,33**	**20,00**	**30,00**	**36,67**	**53,33**	**40,00**	**56,67**	**30,00**	**50,00**	**46,67**	**39,67**	

Table 27: Posttest achievements of control group

However the results of the posttest, in Table 27 above, show that the participants obtained slightly higher –but still low- scores and means according to the same criteria of evaluation. In total, they obtained 119/300 scores which represent just 39.67% of best expected means. When the criteria are examined separately, we can notice that some of them were low, increased slightly, but remain rather low: 'content and information structure' (16.67%), 'language notions' (23.33%), and 'number of appropriate items' (30%). However, an improvement is noticeable in some criteria which now have an average score like 'achievement objectives' (56.67%), and 'explicit instructions' (46.67%). We can even notice a distinctive improvement in other criteria which were low in the pretest and increased remarkably: 'lesson plan' (60%), and 'production outcome' (63.33%). Unexpectedly, other criteria were average or low and decreased in the posttest; some did slightly, others were severely worse: 'number of appropriate activities' (50%) 'language functions' (30%), and 'proficiency level' (20%). We can simply say, at this primary description of the control group scores and means, that the results are inconsistently increasing and decreasing because the participants relied only on their experience and that their performance was not engaged into a carefully planned and comprehensive process of materials design and development.

6.2. <u>The results of experimental group one</u>:

Following the same order of presentation, we will describe first the pretest and then the posttest of the experimental group one.

6.2.1. <u>Pretest achievements</u>:

It appears, from Table 28 below, that the total scores and the means of the experimental group one are also low. All the twenty participants obtained 224 / 600 scores which represent only 40% of the best expected results.

Evaluation criteria	# 1	# 2	# 3	# 4	# 5	# 6	# 7	# 8	# 9	# 10	# 11	# 12	# 13	# 14	# 15	# 16	# 17	# 18	# 19	# 20	Totals	Means
Information structure/ Content	2	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	**8**	**13,33**
Language functions	2	0	1	2	1	0	2	2	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	2	2	1	1	1	**21**	**35,00**
Language notions	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	3	0	0	0	2	2	1	0	2	2	2	3	1	**28**	**46,67**
Proficiency level	1	2	1	2	1	2	3	2	2	2	3	2	2	3	2	1	1	2	2	1	**37**	**61,67**
Achievement objcetives	1	2	3	2	2	1	3	1	1	3	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	**30**	**50,00**
Lesson plan	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	2	1	**16**	**26,67**
Nbr/ of Approp activities	2	1	3	2	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	3	2	1	1	1	1	3	2	1	**32**	**53,33**
Explicit instructions	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	0	0	**17**	**28,33**
Nbr/ of Approp items	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	**20**	**33,33**
Production outcolme	1	2	2	1	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	**15**	**25,00**
Participant(s) Total scores	**14**	**12**	**15**	**13**	**9**	**8**	**15**	**12**	**8**	**10**	**11**	**14**	**11**	**8**	**8**	**11**	**9**	**13**	**13**	**10**	**224**	**37,33**
Partcipant(s) Means	**46,67**	**40,00**	**50,00**	**43,33**	**30,00**	**26,67**	**50,00**	**40,00**	**26,67**	**33,33**	**36,67**	**46,67**	**36,67**	**26,67**	**26,67**	**36,67**	**30,00**	**43,33**	**43,33**	**33,33**		**40,00**

Table 28: Pre-test achievements of experimental group one

When the means of all the criteria are put together, the rate gets even lower to 37.33%. Out of the ten criteria of evaluation, seven have below average and even low rates: 'content and information structure' (13.33%), 'production outcome' (25%), 'lesson plan' (26.67%), 'explicit instructions' (28.33%), 'number of appropriate items' (33.33%), 'language functions' (35%), and 'language notions' (46.67%). However only three criteria have average or above average rates: 'achievement objectives' (50%), 'number of appropriate activities' (53.33%), and 'proficiency level' (61.67%).

6.2.2. <u>Posttest achievements</u>:

Evaluation criteria	# 1	# 2	# 3	# 4	# 5	# 6	# 7	# 8	# 9	# 10	Total	Means
Content/Information structure	1	1	1	1	0	2	0	2	2	0	**10**	**33,33**
Language functions	3	3	3	2	2	3	2	2	3	3	**26**	**86,67**
Language notions	2	0	0	0	2	2	0	0	3	2	**11**	**36,67**
Proficiency level	2	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	**26**	**86,67**
Achievement objcetives	2	3	2	3	2	3	3	3	3	2	**26**	**86,67**
Lesson plan	3	2	2	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	**27**	**90,00**
Nbr/ of Approp activities	3	2	2	2	3	3	2	3	3	3	**26**	**86,67**
Explicit instructions	3	2	2	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	**27**	**90,00**
Nbr/ of Approp items	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	**22**	**73,33**
Production outcolme	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	**30**	**100,00**
Participant(s) Total scores	**24**	**21**	**18**	**22**	**23**	**26**	**20**	**25**	**28**	**24**	**231**	**66,67**
Partcipant(s) Means	**80,00**	**70,00**	**60,00**	**73,33**	**76,67**	**86,67**	**66,67**	**83,33**	**93,33**	**80,00**	**80,00**	

Table 29: Posttest achievements of experimental group one

The results of the posttest show, in this table, that the scores and the means of all participants in the experiment increased distinctively and even doubled in both rates of participants and criteria (80% and 66.67% successively). We can notice that even the criteria which had low scores and rates –in the pretest- increased, doubled or tripled in the posttest. For example, 'content and information structure' increased from 13.33% to 33.33; 'language functions' from 35% to 86.67%; 'Proficiency level' from 61.67% to

86.67%; 'achievement objectives' from 50% to 86.67%; 'lesson plan' from 26.67% to 90%; 'number of appropriate activities' from 53.33% to 86.67%; 'explicit instructions' from 28.33% to 90%; 'number of appropriate items' from 33.33% to 73.33%; and 'production outcome' from 25% to 100%.

This distinctive increase in the participants' performance and the rate of criteria completion is exceptionally hindered by the fact that the criterion of 'language notions' rather decreased from 46.67% to 36.67%. Only a qualitative comparison of the projects –below- can provide us with a convincing explanation of this failure. We can rather say that this distinctive increase in the criteria application proves the positive effects of the treatment during the implementation of the experiment and reinforces the principle of tracking participants' abilities through collaborative action. Again, it will be only through qualitative comparison of the projects that these results have to be justified.

6.3. The results of experimental group two:

In the same order of presentation, below are the descriptions of results achieved by the second experimental group in both pretest and posttest.

6.3.1. Pretest achievements:

In the table below, the fourteen participants of the second experimental group show low proficiency in materials design and development in the pretest. Their total scores of 157/420 represent only 43.33% of the expected best performance. The rate of successful ten criteria completion goes down to 32.14%. Among the ten criteria, only one reached beyond average rate: the 'number of appropriate activities' reached 50%.

Evaluation criteria	# 1	# 2	# 3	# 4	# 5	# 6	# 7	# 8	# 9	# 10	# 11	# 12	# 13	# 14	Totals	Means
Content/Information structure	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	**9**	**21,43**
Language functions	2	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	2	2	1	0	**13**	**30,95**
Language notions	1	1	2	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	**12**	**28,57**
Proficiency level	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	2	**18**	**42,86**
Achievement objectives	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	**18**	**42,86**
Lesson plan	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	**9**	**21,43**
Nbr/ of Approp activities	2	1	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	2	1	2	2	**21**	**50,00**
Explicit instructions	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	**19**	**45,24**
Nbr/ of Approp items	1	1	2	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	3	2	1	**20**	**47,62**
Production outcome	2	1	0	1	1	2	1	0	1	2	1	2	2	2	**18**	**42,86**
Participant(s) Total scores	**14**	**10**	**14**	**10**	**11**	**8**	**10**	**8**	**8**	**12**	**13**	**14**	**13**	**12**	**157**	**32,14**
Partcipant(s) Means	**46,67**	**33,3**	**46,7**	**33,3**	**36,7**	**26,7**	**33,3**	**26,7**	**26,7**	**40**	**43,3**	**47**	**43,3**	**40**	**43,33**	

Table 30:   Pretest achievements of experimental group two

However, all the other criteria reached low or below average means: 'content and information structure' as well as 'lesson plan' had 21.43% each; 'language notions' 28.57%; 'language functions' 30.95%; 'proficiency level', 'achievement objectives', and 'production outcome' had 42.86 each; 'explicit instructions' 45.24%; and 'number of appropriate activities' 47%.

Despite the heterogeneous qualities of this second experimental group (age and previous experience in teaching –see previous chapter: 1.3. population) and the homogeneous and selective criterion in terms of proficiency as postgraduate students and teachers, the results are low and almost similar to those obtained by the control group (who are just teachers of EAP) and the experimental group one (who are teacher-trainees.)

6.3.2. <u>Posttest achievements:</u>

Evaluation criteria	# 1	# 2	# 3	# 2	# 5	# 6	# 7	Totals	Means
Content/Information structure	3	2	2	2	3	3	0	**15**	**71,43**
Language functions	3	3	2	3	2	2	3	**18**	**85,71**
Language notions	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	**20**	**95,24**
Proficiency level	3	3	3	2	2	3	3	**19**	**90,48**
Achievement objcetives	2	2	3	3	2	2	2	**16**	**76,19**
Lesson plan	3	2	3	2	3	3	2	**18**	**85,71**
Nbr/ of Approp activities	3	2	3	2	3	3	2	**18**	**85,71**
Explicit instructions	3	3	3	2	3	2	3	**19**	**90,48**
Nbr/ of Approp items	2	2	3	3	3	3	2	**18**	**85,71**
Production outcolme	3	3	3	2	3	3	2	**19**	**90,48**
Participant(s) Total scores **T**	**27**	**25**	**28**	**24**	**27**	**27**	**22**	**180**	**85,71**
Partcipant(s) Means **a**	**90,00**	**83,33**	**93,33**	**80,00**	**90,00**	**90,00**	**73,33**	**85,71**	

Table 31: Posttest achievements of experimental group two

The scores and means of experimental group two are shown in Table 31 above and represent successful performance of the participants who reached 180/210 scores, corresponding to 85.71% of their task completion and application of all the criteria. This success is quite clear as all the criteria reached good and very good means, rating from 71.43% in 'content and information structure' to 90.48% in both 'proficiency level' and 'production outcome'. Any further explanation of this successful performance in the posttest requires, as we said earlier, a comparison of the projects carried out by all groups in the posttest, and will hence lead us to comparative and qualitative analysis.

7. <u>Comparative evaluation of results and achievements</u>:

The table below summarizes the results of all three groups in both pretest and posttest achievements. We will present, here, a comparison of the three groups' results in terms of pretest, posttest, and rates of increase or decrease for each group, and we will refer to this table in every step.

Evaluation criteria	Control Group			Experimental Group 1			Experimental group 2		
	Pretest means	Posttest means	Differ in %	Pretest means	Posttest means	Differ in %	Pretest means	Posttest means	Differ in %
Content information	13,33	16,67	**025,06**	13,33	33,33	**150,04**	21,43	71,43	**233,31**
Language functions	46,67	30	**-035,72**	35	86,67	**147,63**	30,95	85,71	**176,93**
Language notions	16,67	23,33	**039,95**	46,67	36,67	**-021,43**	28,57	95,24	**233,35**
Proficiency level	53,33	20	**-062,50**	61,67	86,67	**040,54**	42,86	90,48	**111,10**
Achievement objective	40	56,67	**041,68**	50	86,67	**073,34**	42,86	76,19	**077,76**
Lesson plan	20	60	**200,00**	26,67	90	**237,46**	21,43	85,71	**299,95**
Number of activities	56,67	50	**-011,77**	53,33	86,67	**062,52**	50	85,71	**071,42**
Instructions	26,67	46,67	**074,99**	28,33	90	**217,68**	45,24	90,48	**100,00**
Items	26,67	30	**012,49**	33,33	73,33	**120,01**	47,62	85,71	**079,98**
Outcome	30	63,33	**111,10**	25	100	**300,00**	42,86	90,48	**111,10**
Participants' means	**33**	**39,67**	020,21	**40**	**80**	100,00	43,33	85,71	097,80
Criteria means	**33**	**39,67**	020,21	**37,33**	**66,67**	078,60	32,14	85,71	166,67

Table 32: comparative evaluation of pre-test and posttest achievements

7.1. <u>Results and achievements in the pretest</u>

As we can notice in the table above, all three groups achieved nearly the same means of task completion of all criteria by all participants in the pretest: the control group got 33%, the experimental group one got 37.33%, and the experimental group two got 32.14%. The means of the pretest tell us quite clearly that whatever the status of the participants (undergraduate students and teacher-trainees, postgraduate students with more or less experience in teaching, or even teachers of EAP), their background knowledge and their previous practical experience did not help them satisfy the requirements of the ten criteria.

Even if we focus the comparison on particular average achievements of the three groups in three criteria we find again a lot of similarity. For example, in the identification of 'proficiency level', the control group had 53.33%, the experimental group one had 61.67%, and the experimental group two had 42.86. The second example concerns the writing of an 'achievement objective' where the control group obtained 40%, the experimental group one obtained 50%, and the experimental group two obtained 42.86%. The third example is about the 'number of appropriate activities' where the control group obtained 56.67%, the experimental group one obtained 53.33%, and the experimental group two obtained 50%.

When we compare the low means of achievements in some other criteria, we find that the three groups got also approximately the same low results. For example, in 'content and information structure' both the control group and the experimental group one had 13.33% each and the experimental group two had 21.43%. The second example of low results concerns 'lesson plan' where the control group obtained 20%, the experimental group one obtained 26.67%, and the experimental group two obtained 21.43%. Even if the difference

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between the results in average scores and low scores is small, approximately 10%, some differences range from 02% to more than 20%. However the big differences do not affect our interpretation of the results as far as the achievement means of the three groups are low: between 33% and 37.33%. The results of the pretest rather confirm our situation analysis comments (see chapter 4, section 3) which underline the fact that most EAP teachers have a general knowledge about lesson plans, achievement objectives, and learning outcomes –in both aspects of materials use and materials development- but lack a lot of practical implication in dealing with real materials instruction and development.

7.2. <u>Results and achievements in the posttest</u>:

The posttest means, in the table above, show that the control group obtained 39.67% for both participants' and criteria means while the experimental group one obtained 80% for participants' means and 66.67% for criteria means, the experimental group two obtained 85.71% for both. These results in the posttest show clearly that there is a noticeable, distinctive increase in the achievements of both control groups while the control group remained at its low level of achievement. So, in view of the three groups' achievements in the pretest and posttest results, we discuss –below- the comparative results of each group.

7.2.1. <u>The control group comparative achievements</u>:

The slight increase of means, in control group results, is obtained by the distinctive increase of just three criteria means: 'lesson plan' increased from 20% in the pretest to 60% in the posttest, 'explicit instructions' from 26.67% to 46.67%, and 'production outcome' from 30% to 63.33%. Even if the means of these three criteria almost doubled or tripled, the increase in some other criteria remains low. Worse is the fact that three criteria means

decreased: 'language function' was below average in the pretest with 46.67% and decreased to -35.72% in the posttest, the 'proficiency level' was average with 53.33% and decreased to -62.50%, and 'the 'number of appropriate activities' was 56.67% and slightly decreased to 50%.

This inconsistency of control group achievements, in both pretest and posttest results and means, in the application of the ten criteria and task completion of materials development, shows that general knowledge about language teaching principles does not suffice to help a teacher use and/or develop his/her language teaching materials. The low scores and means, and the irregularity of criteria means increase an/or decrease prove that the participants apply haphazardly what they know to a materials development situation which requires much more training and application according to some principles.

7.2.2. <u>The experimental group one comparative achievements</u>:

The experimental group one results show that the participants increased their scores and means in nine out of ten criteria. Exceptionally, the criterion of 'language notions' slightly decreased from 46.67% in the pretest to 36.67% in the posttest. Despite this slight discrepancy, all the other criteria means increased distinctively. There is even a clear outstanding increase in six criteria means: 'content and information structure', 'language functions', 'lesson plan', 'explicit instructions', 'number of appropriate items' and 'production outcome' more than doubled and/or tripled.

These results confirm by and large the assumptions of this research, the positive impact of the hypotheses, and somehow prove the efficiency of collaborative action as a research

method in the implementation of the experiment. The focus that has been put during the implementation of the experiment on materials types, learning objectives and strategies –see chapter 5, section 3- proved its efficiency in terms of percentages. Training the participants to apply these principles in order to analyze and evaluate materials –see chapter 5, section 4- also proved its impact on methodological implication in the development of authentic materials by positive quantitative results in the design/writing of lesson plans, number of appropriate activities and items, and production outcome.

7.2.3. The experimental group two comparative achievements:

The results of experimental group two show that the participants increased their scores and means distinctively in all ten criteria This distinctive increase can be noticed in three criteria: 'achievement objectives' increased from 42.86% in the pretest to 76.19% in the posttest, the 'number of appropriate activities' increased from 50% to 85.71%, and 'explicit instructions' increased from 47.62% to 85.71%. The increase is even outstanding in seven criteria where the means more than doubled and/or tripled.

Here again -and like the results of the experimental group one, the results of the experimental group two confirm the assumptions of the research and the positive impact of the hypotheses, and prove the efficiency of collaborative action as a research method in the implementation of the experiment. Furthermore, the good proficiency level of the participants in this experimental group (see chapter 5, section 2.1) favored these very positive results. However, the discrepancy in their teaching experience neither deprives the participants from obtaining very good scores nor affects the outstanding criteria means in the posttest.

7.3. <u>Comparative evaluation of rates:</u>

As a summary of all the quantitative findings, in Table 32 above, a third column is devoted to each group's rates of percentages in order to show the rates of increase or decrease per single criterion, and two last lines are devoted to show the rates of increase or decrease per participants, and per all criteria means.

When we consider single criterion rates (on the third column of each group), the results show that the control group obtained the lowest rates of increase and three rates of decrease, ranging from +200% in 'lesson plan' and keep decreasing to reach negative rates down low to -35.72% in 'language functions'. However, the experimental group one obtained one highest rate of +300% increase in the 'production outcome' criterion and other high rates ranging from +150.04% in 'content and information structure' and decreasing to +40.54% in 'proficiency level'. The discrepancy is the negative, decreasing rate in 'language notions' which goes down to -21.43%. The experimental group two obtained very high rates in all criteria that rate from +71.42% in 'number of appropriate activities' and keep increasing up to +299.95% in 'lesson plan'.

The control group rates of increase in both participants' means and all criteria means are low: the group obtained only +20.21% in both. However, the experimental group one reached high increase rates of +100% in participants' and +78.60% in criteria means, and similarly, the experimental group two reached high increase rates of +97.80% in participants' and +166.67% in criteria means. This last rate is the highest among all rate differentials.

8. <u>Qualitative comparison of projects in the posttest</u>:

Qualitative evaluation and comparison of posttest results of the three groups does not require only statistical, quantitative arguments but a reconsideration of good materials qualities in general –see chapter 3, section 6.3 on materials principles and processes. Hence, an overall examination of all the teaching materials produced by the three groups (see appendixes IV, V, and VI) is necessary. In addition, and as the participants chose their authentic texts from a range of 15 newspaper articles, four texts were common to the three groups and consequently require careful qualitative and comparative evaluation.

<u>Overall qualitative comparison and evaluation</u>:

The general qualitative comparison of the posttest concerns the qualities of planning, activity and item types and generosity, objectives and instructions, as well as the functional and/or communicative outcome that the participants supplied for the materials that their learners –who would use the materials-, can perform.

The planning requirements distinguished in the first four criteria of evaluation –see section 5 above- are determinant factors in the elaboration of the rest of the teaching materials' activities. While the participants of the two experimental groups applied them, with average, above average and even noticeable success, the control group participants did not give them the required importance. These criteria (content and information structure, language functions and notions, and proficiency level) represent the hypothetical foundations of this research which can lead to distinctive improvement in the quality of the teaching materials.

Hence, the participants of both experimental groups –one and two (see Appendixes V and VI respectively) make appropriate use of these criteria and consequently provide the

learners with generous materials in terms of appropriateness and number of activities and items. However, the control group (see Appendix IV) participants make few and inappropriate use of these criteria application, and hence produce very short and inappropriate activities and items for their teaching materials. As we can notice in Appendix 4, the control group participants produce ten short materials of only 21 pages. However, experimental group one participants produce ten fairly generous materials of 37 pages in Appendix V, and experimental group two participants produce 7 fairly generous materials of 38 pages in Appendix VI.

This generosity is clearly verifiable through the number and activity type provided at the stage of comprehension. So, while the control group activities are always limited to 'WH questions', 'True / false statements', easy 'synonyms' and 'antonyms' activities, the two experimental groups extend the activities to hierarchical information structure in tables and schemes of actions (to help the learners understand content organization) and provide lexicon-semantic search tasks (to expand learners' vocabulary) and focus on the comprehension of details. The control group activities test learners' comprehension while the two experimental groups' activities go beyond evaluation of learners' comprehension of present knowledge to provide various alternatives for understanding information.

The practical implications of good planning are also reflected in the quality of statements of objectives, the design of a lesson plan, and the writing of instructions. Although the control group participants achieve equal scores and means in the statement of 'achievement objectives' to the second experimental group (both groups achieved above average and almost equal scores and means), the control group participants fail to reflect this acceptable

result into 'explicit instructions' and exemplifications while the experimental group two participants do succeed. Almost all control group participants write ambiguous and teacher-oriented instructions -instead of learner performance-oriented instructions, which represent their pedagogical intentions. This failure consequently affects exemplification and number and appropriateness of items. In many examples (see appendix IV, control group: # 2, # 3, # 5, # 9, and # 10), the control group participants do not even provide items for the suggested activities; they just mention what they themselves want to do, not what their learners are supposed to practice and learn.. Quite clearly, however, the participants of the two experimental groups express their pedagogical aims and goals separately from the instructions they write for the learners.

The control group participants' lesson plans are rarely clear and often stereotypes while the two experimental groups lesson plans are clear and adapted to the content and information structure, and discourse functions and notions of the text. It is here that we can find the explanation to the discrepancy of the experimental group one low achievement scores and rates concerning the 'language notions' criterion (see 6.2.2 and 7.3 above). Even if the participants did not determine clearly the language notions, their awareness of this criterion is shown in what they could design as language practice activities supplied with appropriate instructions, examples, and items. However, some control group materials determine some language notions and fail to supply appropriate instructions, examples, and items.

The functional, production outcomes that the users of language teaching materials need are those which help them attempt to use language through a given skill (speaking or

writing) by producing messages that functionally serve the same purpose of discourse (narrating, reporting, defining, describing, etc…). The communicative, production outcome that users of language teaching materials need are those which help them react (orally or in writing) to the functional input they received (expressing opinions, arguing, planning, etc…). Within this qualitative framework, the control group participants limit their instructions to summarizing the input (of the texts), suggest odd activities, and/or give erroneous misleading instructions. However, the participants of the two experimental groups provide guided and free production activities which properly rely on functional and/or communicative outcome.

The successful use of comprehension activity type is a valuable result of the experiment. The participants can diversify the activities if they develop metacognitive designing skills about their pedagogical acts in order to help the learners develop strategies of information processing (comprehension) and discourse (cohesion and coherence) discovery and manipulation. These qualitative findings confirm our assumption that the good language teaching materials are those that suggest for learners to do things not those that presume to do so without practical implications. Thus, the successful definition of achievement objectives and directive instructions and exemplifications -for each activity in both experimental groups' projects, consolidate the foundations of the research proposals, the hypotheses, and the implementation of the experiment according to collaborative action, give positive results.

Qualitative comparison of common materials and projects

The three groups involved in the evaluation of this experiment through the posttest had to choose a newspaper article from the fifteen articles suggested to them –see appendix 3. As

their choices were done at random, four of these articles were commonly selected and used by participants from the three groups. This random choice gives us the opportunity to provide a qualitative comparison of these four materials -which represent at least 40% of the whole sum of all the materials produced-

Example 1: 'Postman spent five days in car boot':

The table below represents qualitatively the results of our evaluation of the materials produced by the three groups. It is clear, here, that the scores obtained by the participants and the criteria means show that the control group participants fail while the two experimental groups succeed to a great extent. Our concern, now, is to explain the reasons of success or failure by relying on the evaluation criteria and direct reference to the material at hand.

Evaluation criteria	CG, # 4	E G 1, # 9	E G 2, # 2
Content information	0	2	2
Language functions	0	3	3
Language notions	0	3	3
Proficiency level	0	2	3
Achievement objective	1	3	2
Lesson plan	2	3	2
Number of activities	1	3	2
Instructions	2	3	3
Items	2	3	2
Outcome	3	3	3
Participant's total score	**11**	**28**	**25**
Participant's Criteria means	**36,67**	**93,33**	**83,33**

Table 33: Participants' comparative achievements in Example 1

Close comparative evaluation of this materials shows that the # 7 control group (Appendix IV) does not focus on any kind of careful planning. Altogether, the 'information structure', 'language functions' and 'notions', as well as the 'proficiency level' are completely ignored. However, experimental group one # 9 (Appendix V) completely

specifies the required planning elements and states the needed visual materials (picture of a car). Almost similarly, experimental group two # 2 (Appendix VI) determines the required factors for materials design.

Consequently, the statement of an achievement objective by the control group participant turns into a pedagogical goal of the teacher who attempts to express good intentions without stating what the learners are expected to do exactly while 'reading', 'writing' or 'understanding grammar'. Quite clearly, however, the statements of achievement objectives in both experimental groups' participants turn into productive outcome, with less accuracy for experimental group two #2 who relied only on 'reading' and 'reporting' a story without specifying the utility of 'narrating.'

In the design of a lesson plan and a number of activities, the control group participants attempt to write a plan consisting of pre-reading, reading, language practice, and production outcome. However the pre-reading questions are not appropriate to the topic theme of the article and do not help learners bring about their background knowledge to process information through reading. The number of appropriate activities which would help the learners in this case is limited to testing learners' comprehension; there is no focus on vocabulary items, cause and effect, etc… Nevertheless, the number of items and instructions provided in every activity suggested are acceptable. A good production outcome is provided though; the participants suggest three activities which start at the summary of the story, requires from the learners to write a report on the 'postman', and proposes a 'further reading' with a follow-up activity of narrating. This feature of some language teaching materials of designing good production outcome activities –as is the case here- without

adequate learning procedures and activities is commonly found in tests where the learners are expected to show to what extent they understand the text and to produce immediately something similar afterwards.

The generosity (in length and diversity) of both materials produced by the experimental groups' participants can clearly be determined through a discussion of their suggestions in the materials presentation. For example, in the pre-reading step, both participants exploit learner's background knowledge to help learners identify some concepts and then require from all the class to discuss them in an anticipation 'guessing game'. In the reading step, the activities abound with appropriate items and carefully written instruction which (in the case of experimental group two #2) stand separately from teacher's aims and additional specification of materials and media (picture of a car in experimental group one #9). The activities themselves are diversified (Wh questions, MCQ, tables, vocabulary matching, cloze procedure, etc…) and precise, concise instructions are provided at each activity with much more accuracy in #9.

The language practice and manipulation activities are of the same sort in terms of diversity and length but #9 relies better on the discourse rhetorical features provided in the text, while #2 does not do enough and leads the learners to reproduction in a very quick shift. The production outcome step is as good as the control group participant in terms of design and instruction. However, #9 adds a communicative outcome which, in addition to the functional outcome like the other participants, creates a new context of communication: 'organising a search for a missing person.'

<u>**Example 2: 'Abandoned baby coloured, say police':**</u>

In this second example, the control group # 7 (Appendix IV) achieves average success while both experimental group participants # 6 (Appendix V) and # 3 (Appendix: VI) do much better. Although control group # 7 attempts to specify the content and information structure, there is a failure in the identification of the information components and their confusion with discourse structure. Nevertheless, there is an acceptable coverage of the language functions, notions (by identifying language forms instead), and proficiency level which lack specifications.

Evaluation criteria	CG, # 7	EG 1, # 6	EG 2, # 3
Content information	1	2	2
Language functions	2	3	2
Language notions	2	2	3
Proficiency level	2	3	3
Achievement objective	2	3	3
Lesson plan	2	3	3
Number of activities	2	3	3
Instructions	2	2	3
Items	1	2	3
Outcome	1	3	3
Participant's total score	**17**	**26**	**28**
Participant's Criteria means	**56,67**	**86,67**	**93,33**

Table 34: Participants' comparative achievements in Example 2

Experimental group one #6 considers the content and information structure of the article unsuitable for the learners' and hence rewrites it completely without providing the reasons of this reconstruction –as chronological order, cause and effect, etc.... The other principles of design are covered in an acceptable way with precise rhetorical characteristics of the writers' discourse moves. Experimental group two #3 provides as good identification of the language functions and proficiency level as the control group participants, and with better precision in the information elements. Much better, the identification of the notions is done in the true

sense; the participants do not mention the language forms but the exact names of the notions as concepts of 'time, place, cause and effect'

The consequence of the control group participants' failure to provide the context of information structure and components straightly appears in the definition of an appropriate objective which in this case lacks precision of what to 'narrate' about. However both experimental groups' participants provide detailed and contextual expected performance of their learners. As experimental group one #6 has already identified the discourse type as 'expository' through 'the story of an abandoned baby to debate relations between whites and blacks', the statement of the objective consequently underlines the ability of 'exposing' a given problem and 'arguing, agreeing, and disagreeing', and complementarily using the language forms. Almost similarly, and with the same degree of precision, the experimental group two #3 states the objective in a consecutive way to what the participant has identified in the first planning principles.

In the lesson plan and number of appropriate activities, the control group #7 provides a low performance in all aspects. The warming up step focuses on a superficial scope of information and does not go any further to prepare the learners to deal with the article. The comprehension stage of reading is limited to a set of six superficial and inappropriate questions. The two language practice activities are not identified separately from comprehension and do not relate in any way to the discourse type used in the article. The third activity is odd because its instruction is badly written and hence the learners will not be able to produce the expected sentences.

The two experimental groups' participants, however provide a rich lesson plan which is diversified by generous and appropriate activities. The warming up activities contextualize the priming questions and sentence starters in either 'abandoned baby' or 'colored people and racist' situations, hence preparing the learners to anticipate what the article is about. In the reading comprehension step, both #6 and #7 provide three activities each which vary in type (extracting information from the text, MCQ for both general and detailed information, tables for matching information items, true/false statements, and sentence completion) and hence provide various alternatives of meaning processing for the learners.

The language practice step is designed and developed in the same generous and diversified way. The rhetorical devices, notions, and language forms that have been identified in the planning principles are successfully covered by the participants, with an additional activity of word meaning in context provided by experimental group two #3. The instructions and the number of appropriate items are good in the activities of experimental group one #6 but are much better exemplified from context in experimental group two #3.

In the production outcome step, the control group failure gets worse; the suggested activity turn into narrating about famous people who lead antiracist movements. However the two experimental groups' participants remained faithful to the principles of analysis of the article and to the statements of achievement objectives. Experimental group one #6 suggests two contexts of free writing –opinions about the newspaper article itself and causes of abandoning children in the learners' community. Experimental group two #3 suggests a first activity where the learners rewrite the events of the story and then provides choices, in the second activity, which help the learners either narrate the story of an abandoned child,

identify causes of, and solutions to the problem of abandoned children, or pretend they were the United Nations secretary who would defend those babies. The appropriateness of these activities and their instructional, suggestive style give them definitely a much higher functional and communicative value than the one suggested by the control group participants.

It is qualitatively clear, in this second example, that the design principles –the first four criteria- are determinant factors in the design and implementation of the language teaching/learning material. The appropriateness, generosity and diversity of comprehension, language practice and production activities are not designed by chance. They are the results of awareness, attention and application of consecutive steps and the successful collaborative, reflective, and tracking experience.

Example 3: 'Hero rescues girl under bus':

In this third example, the quantitative results show that the participants' materials are not as good as the previous example. The control group participant #6 is below average, the experimental group #7 is above average while experimental group #7 is rather good. The three materials are developed without overt precision about the content and information structure; hence, the three materials get no credit in the evaluation of this criterion. However, while the control group participant #6 continues neglecting the other criteria, experimental group two #7 covers the same criteria successfully and experimental group one participant #7 makes a successful attempt to indicate the language function and the proficiency level but ignores the language notions -which are mentioned in the statement of achievement objective and teacher's goals.

Evaluation criteria	CG, # 6	EG 1, # 7	EG 2, # 7
Content information	0	0	0
Language functions	0	2	3
Language notions	0	0	3
Proficiency level	0	3	3
Achievement objective	3	3	2
Lesson plan	2	2	2
Number of activities	2	2	2
Instructions	2	3	3
Items	1	2	2
Outcome	2	3	2
Participant's total score	**12**	**20**	**22**
Participant's Criteria means	**40,00**	**66,67**	**73,33**

Table 35: Participants' comparative achievements in Example 3

This example reinforces our explanation of the discrepancy found in the experimental group one achievements concerning the criterion of 'language notions' (see sections 6.2.2, 7.2.2 and 8.1 above) where almost all experimental group one participants do not precisely mention the 'language notions' but make good use of them in defining the achievement objectives or designing the language practice activities.

The statement of an achievement objective is surprisingly successful for the control group #6 who indicates a contextual, functional performance to be realized with the help of 'tenses', 'direct speech' and the 'conditional'. The experimental group one #7 also successfully indicates a performance objective together with a number of notions (order, tense direct/indirect speech, and sentence structure). The experimental group two #7 attempts to do so but fails to provide some order in the stages and appropriateness of contexts. Its achievement objective by the learners should start first with a class discussion 'of solidarity in their society' and then, as a second stage, the learners would 'write a narrative paragraph'.

The consequent design and implementation of the article with learning activities shows that the control group #6, like the previous control group examples, starts with a superficial

consideration of the warming up activity in which there is no reference to terms like 'accident' or 'rescue'. However, experimental groups one and two participants make a better link between these referential terms (as background knowledge) and anticipating what comes afterwards. The design of the lesson plan and the number of appropriate activities are approximately the same in the three materials of the three participants. Despite the generosity of activities in both experimental group participants' works, they get equal credit with the control group participants' material. The reason is that the control group participants suggest a plan, design some activities but fail to feed these activities with precise instructions and enough appropriate items. The two experimental group participants make the same moves in lesson plan and number of activities and improve their materials with precise instructions and appropriate exemplifications, making, thus, their activities much more accurate to a learning procedure than the control group participants do.

In the final step of the material, the control group participants –out of no where, come back to the terms 'accident' and 'rescue' to ask the learners to write a paragraph. There is clearly no link between what the learners could learn in the previous activities and developing the ability to write a paragraph. The only correlation of this outcome activity is to be made with the statement of achievement objective which is assessed as a successful contribution, above. Even though, the activities of comprehension, and language practice, do not suggest any kind of skills or abilities which would probably make the learners able to use language structures to write a paragraph. The experimental group two participant suggestions for the production outcome are not accurate; 'funny' stories are not the appropriate topic theme, 'imagining' a dialogue can not be made real unless learners perform or write it, and in the 'homework' assignment the learners will not know what to with the findings of their

'investigation'. The experimental group one participant suggestions in the production stage are much more accurate, precise and contextual. A guided writing activity precedes free writing, a set of terms are provided to help the learners start writing, and precise expressions and contexts are indicated in the final instruction.

Example 4: 'Best man is the groom':

In this forth and last example, the quantitative achievements of the three groups' participants range from average -for the control group #5, to above average and good results for experimental groups one #5 and two #4, respectively.

Evaluation criteria	CG, # 5	EG 1, # 5	EG 2, # 4
Content information	1	0	2
Language functions	2	2	3
Language notions	1	2	3
Proficiency level	0	3	2
Achievement objective	3	2	3
Lesson plan	2	3	2
Number of activities	2	3	2
Instructions	2	3	2
Items	1	2	3
Outcome	2	3	2
Participant's total score	**16**	**23**	**24**
Participant's Criteria means	**53,33**	**76,67**	**80,00**

Table 36: Participants' comparative achievements in Example 4

These achievements need to be qualitatively interpreted – like the previous examples, starting from the main four criteria of design. Regarding the content and information structure, the control group participant #5 indicates a minimum statement which is not appropriate; the newspaper article is not 'about marriage' as such. However the experimental group one #5 ignores completely this criterion while experimental group two #4 gives it a maximum detailed account of the 'characters' involved in a number of 'events'.

Concerning the language functions, notions, and proficiency level, the control group participants obtain the lowest achievements because they limit the language function to 'narrating' and ignore 'reporting', do not mention language notions but rather language forms, and ignore completely the proficiency level. The experimental group one participants do better because, even if they also limit the language functions to 'narrating', they state the notion of time but complete it with language forms, and indicate properly the proficiency level. A little better is the performance of the experimental group two participants; they indicate 'narrating and reporting' as language functions and make a list of 'notions' where each notion is exemplified. However, they give first year university students a little higher proficiency level.

The consecutive element in the next stage of materials design is the statement of achievement objectives. Even if the three participants' materials mention an achievement objective, both the control group and experimental group two participants provide a clearly contextualized performance: 'narrating a funny or strange event' and 'narrate and report past events' successively. However, the experimental group one participants #5 neither provide the context of performance, nor extend it to include the ability of 'reporting'; it is limited to the usage of some language forms.

The implementation of the newspaper article with a lesson plan, appropriate activities, instructions and items makes the differences distinguishable between the control group and the experimental groups, one and two. In the lesson plan, the control group seems to give a good start by designing an appropriate 'warming up' and providing 'listening' and 'reading' comprehension questions. But, soon the plan turns into a test-like plan which does not

provide any learning opportunities. Hence, the plan, the number, appropriateness, and precision of activities, instructions and items lose their value.

Experimental group one #5 make up the lost credit –in the previous criteria, and design a simple, very appropriate, warming up activity with the help of 'pictures'. They proceed through careful restructuring of information elements with the help of tables in the comprehension activities despite the limited number of items. Their lesson plan, number of activities and instructions are very appropriate. Experimental group two #4 provide acceptable lesson plan and activities which are supplied with much more appropriate items than the control group and experimental group one. This generosity in the contribution of experimental group two makes the material longer.

In the production outcome step, the control group and the experimental group two participants get similar credit because both miss some necessary elements. The control group participants do not provide the learners with any kind of narrating possibilities -neither at sentence nor at paragraph level, and hence it seems to be a shortcoming to require from the learners to do something they have not practiced. The experimental group two participants suggest four possibilities of outcome but none of them requires from the learners to 'narrate and report' –as specified in the achievement objective; instead, they ask the learners to give their opinions and describe processes –without specifying the abilities and skills.

The lack of precision and contextualization in both groups make their suggestions less appropriate than the experimental group one. The latter, and despite its shortcoming in the 'content and information structure' criterion –see table 36 above, makes good progress in the

production stage by designing a 'guided production' which focuses on cohesion (tense) and coherence (order of sentences). The production step is, in this case, much more fruitful: the participants suggest a communicative outcome first, and then a functional one. Both contexts, then, will properly provide the learners with the opportunity to express themselves in specific contexts.

9. <u>Summary of qualitative findings</u>:

In the four examples of materials development, we can make some comments and conclusions about the utility of information structure and language functions and notions in comparison to the design and development of teaching materials performed by the participants in all three groups. We can notice that even if none of the participants -from the three groups- gives importance to overt specification of 'content and information structure', and experimental group one participants do not provide explicit 'language notions', both experimental groups participants' materials could achieve better results than the control group participants' material. This may be explained only according to two possibilities. The first possibility is that 'language functions' are more influential; the two experimental groups' materials specify them while the control group material does not. The second possible explanation is that correlation of 'proficiency level' and 'achievement objectives' with the expected 'learning outcome' have a major influence on the participants awareness about the appropriateness of activities, instructions, and items provided through the learning process.

We consider the first possibility a consecutive result of the implementation supplied during the experiment (see previous chapter, section 2 and 3); the second possibility being just complementary because both experimental groups' participants have been practicing

'materials analysis and evaluation'-see previous chapter, sections 3 and 4- while the control group participants did not. Hence, they have learnt how to be systematic in their materials development while the control group participants still rely on some theoretical knowledge that does not help them much.

<u>Conclusion</u>:

 The quantitative evaluation of the whole experiment shows to a great extent the successful achievements of both experimental groups in comparison to the control group. The qualitative evaluation and comparison of participants' achievements - by overall description and comparative evaluation, with reference to specific examples from the three groups, reinforces the qualitative evaluation and gives the reader an objectively achieved conclusion: information structure and discourse functions help teachers design and develop materials for language teaching/learning, and using these –information and discourse- methodologically improves the teachers' abilities to do so.

CHAPTER SEVEN

PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Introduction

1. Pedagogical implications

2. Pedagogical recommendations

3. Teacher/Learner development and autonomy

Conclusion

Pedagogical implications

<u>**Introduction:**</u>

In the following pages, we will try to shed light on the positive achievements of the results and their pedagogical implications for further research actions and projects. We will also recommend some measures to be taken with regards to the teaching of English for Academic Purposes at the University of Constantine. The wide impact of this research is to be interpreted as an open end to the field of teacher autonomy in materials design and development.

1. <u>**Pedagogical implications:**</u>

Throughout this study there has been great focus on some principles which have direct impact on the design and development of language teaching materials in general and language teaching materials for EAP in particular. Information processing is given prominence in the analysis of input materials because secondary school learners and undergraduate students who learn EAP must be prepared to face contexts where they will be involved to process information most relevant to their subjects. Hence materials, courses and syllabi designers have to take this feature as an essential element in any designing, planning, or development project. Ignoring information structure and models of its analysis, comprehension, and communication will simply hinder learners' academic achievements and deprive them of a necessary research tool.

Information processing, as a cognitive skill is practiced and developed through the use of learning strategies which guide and reinforce the learning process. Learning English for Academic Purposes, like any other kind of learning, must be based on <u>old</u> and <u>new information</u>. Through gradual progress, the exploitation of learners' background knowledge in active memory tasks makes active learning neither old nor new, but a mixture of both. These purposeful, dynamic learning procedures must be applied to syllabus design which in turn must be implemented with authentic and realistic language teaching/ learning materials. In order to achieve such a combination of pedagogical tools, teachers, researchers, as well as course and syllabus designers must apply a number of measures –most of which have been discussed in this research.

Academic discourse, though it is part of general discourse, stands now in its own right as a field of capital importance for teachers of English for academic purposes. Their knowledge

about its information structure and organization will help them analyze and synthesize it in a perceptual cycle in order to plan, organize and develop their own materials. When teachers are able to analyze academic discourse, they will certainly determine the cue features which activate schemas representation. The schemas will act as a framework of input representation that, again, will serve as a guideline to determine 'language functions'. The latter will actually have direct impact on the teacher's design and development of comprehension strategies for their learners. The teachers' knowledge of the 'language notions' generated by the 'functions', and which in turn generate 'language forms', gives them the possibility of implementing authentic materials with appropriate application and practice activity for their learners.

In a programmed learning process, the teachers' role is, quite often, limited to the use and application of the already designed materials. Through time, the routine application of these materials becomes so mechanical that the teachers' only contribution in implementation turns into writing tests. It is only when teachers develop such abilities of analysis and synthesis -§ above, that they can escape their stereotype, fossilized test writing habits and engage into designing materials for a learning purpose. Teachers' involvement in this field must be a frequent practice because the required skills cannot be learnt in a limited period of time, but rather develop and improve through a regular long lasting experience.

Making teachers apply their own strategies of information and discourse analysis in order to design activities which help their learners cope with academic discourse through a learning process is a complex, problematic and interrelated hierarchy which can be explained by two major terms: cognition and metacognition. This research implies that teachers should

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'know' and be able to 'put into practice what they know'; a cognitive skill of identifying, understanding, applying –by analysis and synthesis- what they know to design and develop language teaching materials for their learners. The latter being a state of awareness about the impact of their own decisions-of selecting, planning and development- on their learners. This is a state of metacognition in the sense that the teacher –as a material designer, has to think about the consequences of his/her own pedagogical choices and acts on the cognitive application and development of their learners' strategies.

This state of affairs leads directly to the type of activities, instructions and items designed by the teacher to implement his/her materials. Would the designed objective be achieved through the learning plan, activities, and items? This question will always haunt a teacher who is uncertain of his/her choices or adopts a stereotypic model to all types of authentic materials. However, a teacher who develops metacognitive knowledge and skills will be confident in leading learners' cognitive development towards successful learning strategies.

The combination of teachers' metacognitive and cognitive skills is best revealed through his/her development of achievement objectives, learning tasks and outcomes, and the ability to write them down in a carefully designed plan. This activity is then conceptually linked with decision-making and monitoring learning strategies. There is consequently, in this sense, a reorientation of the teachers' role from instructors of a given teaching/learning program to the role of designers, mediators, consultants, advisors, and problem-solvers.

 2. **Pedagogical recommendations:**

Materials design must be given the importance it requires in the undergraduate and teacher-training courses. It is a necessary stage, either in pre-service or in-service courses and seminars which should avoid occasional situations and adopt a regular program. Materials design and development is almost always left to 'professional' course and textbook designers while teachers are rarely associated to such a business. On many occasions the teachers are just informed of the forthcoming changes in the courses and textbooks they are supposed to use. It has become a common practice that course and textbook designers write the content and instructional information for the teachers to follow while using the designed textbook materials. And it is only after the beginning of the course that in-service seminars are organized. Such a practice is counterproductive because it will keep the teacher practicing the same role of instructor.

It is highly recommended, then, that teachers should be associated to all the steps in reform projects right from the start. If they are neglected or informed about changes at the very last moment, they will certainly not consider themselves committed to bring success and expected achievement of the reforms. To avoid lack of teachers' commitment to the success and improvement of existing materials, teachers need a lot of extra-program resources and facilities. They need easy access to authentic materials and enough time and energy to turn them into language teaching/learning materials; language resource centers have to be created for this purpose.

In the case of teaching English for academic purposes, or even for science and technology, resource centers do not even exist and the teachers are just required to feed their courses with whatever materials they can find. Given the general and theoretical

teaching proficiency they achieve in the undergraduate course, their contribution to the teaching process will remain low. It is not until pre-service and in-service training courses are organized, and resource centers are provided, that we can expect positive contribution on the part of EAP teachers.

Theoretical courses alone do not suffice in such a field; only practical training, according to a collaborative action and reflective teaching can better improve the teachers' abilities. Although this remains a very exciting and promising area of pedagogical research at the present time, it will certainly be promising in terms of research findings. Teachers' collaboration in, and reflections on, their own materials development projects can be the framework where theoretical issues can be compared and measured according to realistic language teaching/learning situations. It is the space where teachers can manipulate analysis checklists, observation and evaluation grids, to improve their own design –metacognitive-strategies, and hence, through their learners achievements, measure the success or failure of their own design.

When a collaborative and reflective context can be provided, the training projects will not only be limited to information processing strategies, but also expanded to include affective and social strategies. In the short term, teacher-trainees and beginning teachers may not benefit immediately from reflections on immediate classroom practices because they need a period of familiarization with classroom atmosphere, but they will develop critical thinking of existing materials, introduce additional materials and activities where necessary. In the long term, teachers will gain command of classroom management, learning tasks and

strategies, develop their own materials and even contribute in editing their own textbooks for a larger community of learners.

Tutoring of beginning EAP teachers has been recommended and institutionalized at the Department of English during the last decade, but its results cannot yet be seen in real practice. At the beginning of every academic year a number of graduates are appointed to teach English at the departments of the humanities, social and exact sciences without any further supervision from the experienced teachers who are supposed to act as tutors. It is highly recommended, now, that if the department of English appoints the EAP teachers to various departments, it will have to supervise the pedagogical practice and assume the responsibility of tutoring them.

The framework of this responsibility of tutoring can be realized through the creation of an EAP resource center, as mentioned above, for EAP teachers. It will serve as a space for supervision and a workshop for the analysis (adopting/adapting) of existing materials and the elaboration (design and development) of authentic materials. This experience proved its efficiency with the LMD reforms in the English department undergraduate course. It can work quite successfully with EAP teachers, now that the LMD reforms are introduced at all Constantine University departments. The EAP resource center will, then, generate adequate methodology and pedagogical measures in the implementation of both EAP and EST courses.

 3. **Teacher/Learner development and autonomy:**

The implications of this research can lead into further considerations in the Algerian educational system. A liberal, so-called market economy and management of affairs, is gaining ground in the school system; private courses, private schools, and private editors nowadays compete with the central, institutionalized educational policy. As a developing community, we cannot stand apart from the educational benefits of such liberalization and rely only on one source of course implementation at all school levels. Diversity of educational resources is not to be limited to EAP courses but also include other school levels.

Free access to information, knowledge and business –on the internet, open the way to the educational market to flourish with free and wide access to materials which can be advantageous for both teachers and learners. This freedom and democracy of education can be the right opportunity for Algerian teachers to promote their abilities of enriching the educational arena with materials designed for learning –not just testing materials. Teachers' contributions in this field will be competitive and/or complementary if they take into account the learners needs and expectations of good learning outcomes. Hence, the learners will have a variety of courses and materials to choose from, and learn English outside class hours, according to their own purposes, willingness, and time availability.

Conclusion:

Teachers' and learners' autonomy can be achieved in a free and democratic framework which depends immensely on the contributors' –teachers', response to the needs of the consumers –learners. Teachers' autonomy is a state of maturity which can only be achieved if the teachers develop a state of awareness or metacognitive awarenes of the impact of their

materials design, lesson plan, and learning tasks which promote learning strategies. Learners' autonomy is a state of consumer satisfaction –cognitively purposeful achievement-of learning goals and expectations. This duality is, and will always be, the dynamic process of educational development in general and the successful achievement of language courses in particular.

Summary and Conclusion

We have attempted throughout this research to identify and define the basic elements of the learning process as perception, recognition, and comprehension of information. We have established that the evidence of the learning activity is the ability to recall which is performed in retention, retrieval, and rehearsal tasks. The whole process of information processing is represented in schematic frames of meaning. The pedagogical purpose of this comprehensive representation implies the learners' use of learning styles and strategies in order to achieve learning objectives. The scope of this study has been limited to the investigation of cognitive, information processing strategies which help the learners to process old and new information according to clearly determined objectives and guiding instructions. The pedagogical choices of objectives, activity types and instructions orient the learners to use

and favor some strategies in order to understand meaning. Thus, the direct impact of information processing and learning strategies lead the course and materials designers to focus, primarily, on the representation of meaning -information itself, within stretches of discourse.

Studying language from a sociolinguistic point of view is in itself a prominence given to meaning in context by considering the impact of discourse –meaning in context and form- on the interpretation of a message among a given community. The developments in discourse analysis studies, hence, biased the research tendencies to shift from register and general discourse analysis towards specific genre analysis. The research findings of scientific and academic discourse supply the course and materials designers with more specific writers' moves, functions, information structures, and language forms most frequently used among the academic and scientific nomenclature. The utility of these findings is established through the familiarization of learners- by exposure, with varying degrees- to conventional language and specific genres, and their progressive inclusion among their future academic nomenclature.

The combination of research findings in information processing strategies and discourse-genre categories supply the course and materials designers with consistent data to implement the teaching learning contexts. Learning procedures which satisfy learners' needs are the common grounds between syllabus, course design and its implementation with teaching/learning materials. On one hand, the design of learning tasks -for comprehension, language practice, and communicative production outcomes, is the result of learning procedures and strategies adopted by the designers. On the other hand, the selection of input

material, appropriate activities and items, and the communicative production contexts are the result of genre –functional and notional, analysis. The latter makes academic English courses distinct from general ones. Developing language teaching/learning materials requires, first, the ability to analyze and evaluate existing materials and the ability to plan and implement newly selected material according to the above mentioned strategies and task procedures, duly associated

The real situation of teaching English at the humanities and social sciences departments, at Constantine University, was the practical field of investigation which provided us with important data about the learners' community, the postgraduates and teachers of these subjects, and the teachers of English for Academic Purposes. All three population groups –in the situation analysis- helped us determine the learning needs, difficulties and strategies, the expectations and the required genre types, and the teaching/learning deficiencies which hinder the expected achievements. We, accordingly, come to the conclusion that an improvement of teachers' abilities in materials design, to satisfy learners' needs and achieve expected objectives, is very necessary.

The research method had to cope with three criteria of an experimental method: the content of the implementation, representing the principles, research variables and hypotheses; the methodology of the experiment itself which determines features of change (tracking, collaborative action, reflective teaching, feedback, etc…); and testing tools (population –control and experimental groups- pretest, posttest, and evaluation criteria). The results of this collaborative action research are both quantitatively and qualitatively successful. The evaluation of control group and both experimental groups' achievements show quantitatively that the research achieved successfully the expected results.

Comparative and qualitative evaluation of the participants' achievements, from the three groups, supports the findings.

The real results and findings of research in general, and research projects in particular, are their positive effects on the consumer community. The researcher may gain academic and intellectual consideration among his academic nomenclature but his research will remain sterile if it does not bring changes in behaviour and attitudes among the whole –academic-community. We expect from this experimental research to have a positive impact on EAP teachers' methodology and materials design and consequently be fertile enough to yield in the near future some teacher-developed materials in our bookshops and library shelves.

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APPENDIXES:

Appendix I.1: Undergraduate students' questionnaire

Appendix I.2: Postgraduates and teachers' questionnaire

Appendix I.3: EAP teachers' questionnaire

Appendix II: Bloom's taxonomy revisited

Appendix III: Fifteen authentic newspaper articles

Appendix IV: Control group posttest materials

Appendix V: Experimental group one posttest materials

Appendix VI: Experimental group two posttest materials

QUESTIONNAIRE ADRESSE AUX ETUDIANTS DE 1ère ANNEE

DES DEPARTEMENTS DE SCIENCES HUMAINES

UNIVERSITE MENTOURI CONSTANTINE

Département : ……………………….

Ce questionnaire nous aidera à améliorer les conditions et méthodes de votre apprentissage de la langue anglaise. Nous vous prions de bien vouloir répondre aux questions posées en complétant les information demandée, en faisant un choix, ou bien en classant les choix qui sont proposés.

Nous vous remercions de votre collaboration.

1- Age : …. Ans   Sexe : M   ☐   F   ☐

2- Série du Bac :…………………………Année d'obtention :   ……

3- Combien d'années avez-vous appris la langue anglaise ?

Au Collège : ......ans   Au lycée : ……. Ans

4- Et pour combien d'heures par semaine ?

Au collège : ….heures/semaine   Au lycée : ……heures/semaine

5- Quels sont les livres scolaires que vous avez utilisés en cours de langue anglaise ?

Au collège : ………………………….... Au lycée ….…………………………

……………………………………… ………………………………………..

……………………………………… ………………………………………

………………………………………

………………………………………..

6- Avez-vous reçu des cours supplémentaires ou particuliers en anglais ?

 Oui :   ☐ Non :   ☐

Si votre réponse est Oui, Précisez le nombre d'heures par semaine et le nombre d'années/mois :

 ….. heures / semaine   ……. Années   …….Mois

7- A part vos livres scolaires, avez-vous utilisés d'autres livres et documents ?

    Oui : ☐   Non: ☐

    Si votre réponse est Oui, Préciser les livres et document utilisés :

    ……………………………………………………………………………………………

    …………………………………………………………………………………………

8- Avez-vous encore besoin d'apprendre l'anglais à l'université ?   Oui : ☐ Non : ☐

9- Combien d'heures par semaine pouvez-vous réserver à l'apprentissage de l'anglais personnellement ?

    2 heures :   4 heures :   ☐ heures :   ☐ heures :   ☐   ☐

10- Dans quel but apprenez vous l'anglais? Choisissez par ordre d'importance (1,2,3, etc. …)

    a- Ecouter des chansons en anglais --- ☐

    b- Réussir aux examens --- ☐

    c- Voir des programmes TV et Ecouter la radio ------------------------------------ ☐

    d- Voyager à l'étranger où l'on parle anglais -------------------------------------- ☐

    e- Lire des documents relatifs à votre formation (livres, articles, revues, etc. …)- ☐

    f- Ecrire des lettres amicales et/ou professionnelles ----------------------------- ☐

    g- Visiter des sites et surfer sur Internet --- ☐

    h- Autres buts, Précisez SVP : …………………………………………………….

11- Quels sont les sujets que vous préférez lire en anglais ?

    a. Sport --- ☐

    b. Informations internationales -- ☐

    c. Politique --- ☐

    d. Economie, finances, etc. … --- ☐

    e. Histoire -- ☐

    f. Problèmes et phénomènes de société ------------------------------------- ☐

    g. Psychologie et comportement --- ☐

    h. Faits divers (incidents, accidents, catastrophes, histoires personnelles, etc. …)-- ☐

    i. Autres sujets, Précisez SVP : ……………………………………………………

12- Quand vous lisez un texte en anglais, le trouvez vous ? (cochez une seule case)

    a- très difficile à comprendre ; -- ☐

b- difficile à comprendre ; --- ☐

c- facile à comprendre ; -- ☐

d- très facile à comprendre ; -- ☐

13- Si vous avez des difficultés à comprendre, elles se trouvent au niveau de la ;

a-compréhension de quelques mots ; --- ☐

b- compréhension de phrases complètes ; ------------------------------------ ☐

c-compréhension de l'idée générale ou principale ; ------------------------ ☐

d-compréhension des détails et idées secondaires ; ------------------------ ☐

e-compréhension des relations entre les idées exprimées ; ---------------- ☐

14- Quelles étapes suivez-vous en lisant un texte en anglais ? Choisissez par ordre croissant (1, 2, 3, etc. …)

a- Prendre des notes pendant la lecture ; --- ☐

b- lire tout le texte pour avoir une idée générale ; ------------------------------- ☐

c- chercher le sens des mots dans un dictionnaire ; ------------------------------ ☐

d- lire et comprendre tous les détails et idée secondaire ; ----------------------- ☐

e- lire l'introduction et la conclusion ; -- ☐

f- chercher le sens des mots difficiles dans le texte lui-même ; ---------------- ☐

g- souligner les mots clés ; -- ☐

h- souligner les phrases clés ; --- ☐

i- attendre que l'enseignant –ou autre personne- vous aide ; --------------------- ☐

j- faire autres choses, précisez SVP : …………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………….

15- Si vous ne comprenez pas le sens d'une ou quelques phrases dans le texte, vous ;

a-revenez au début du texte et vous relisez ; -------------------------------------- ☐

b- relisez la ou les phrases jusqu'à compréhension ; ---------------------------- ☐

c-continuez à lire sans rien faire ; -- ☐

d-demandez de l'aide à une personne (enseignant, amis, famille, etc.…) ; -------- ☐

e-abandonnez la lecture du texte ; -- ☐

f- faites autres choses, Précisez SVP : …………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………….

16- Si vous ne comprenez pas le sens d'un ou quelques mots dans le texte, vous ;

a- cherchez le sens dans le dictionnaire ; --- ☐

b- essayez de comprendre d'après le sens général du texte ; ----------------------- ☐

c- demandez de l'aide à une personne (enseignant, amis, famille, etc…..) ------ ☐

d- chercher des synonymes dans le texte ; --- ☐

e- traduisez ces mots en arabe ou en français ; --------------------------------------- ☐

f- abandonnez la lecture ; --- ☐

g- faites autres choses, précisez SVP : ……………………………………………

APPENDIX- I. 2 :

QUESTIONNAIRE ADRESSE AUX ENSEIGNANTS

ET ETUDIANTS INSCRITS EN POSTGRADUATION

DEPARTEMENTS DES SCIENCES HUMAINES

UNIVERSTITE MENTOURI CONSTANTINE

Nous vous prions de bien vouloir répondre aux questions inclues dans ce document et qui sont relatives à votre expérience dans l'apprentissage de la langue anglaise et aux besoins auxquels vous faites face maintenant dans vos différents domaines de recherche.

Ce questionnaire nous aidera à collecter des données sur l'efficacité de votre apprentissage antérieur et nous guidera dans le développement de matériels et moyens didactiques à mettre en œuvre dans l'avenir. Cette recherche s'inscrit dans le cadre de l'élaboration d'une thèse de doctorat d'état et la conduite d'un projet de recherche.

Veuillez compléter les informations, mettre une croix dans la case correspondant à votre choix et/ou classer les choix selon l'ordre demandé.

Nous vous remercions de votre collaboration.

Prof. Hassan SAADI et M. Hacene HAMADA
Département des langues. Université Mentouri Constantine

Département : ……………………………   Faculté : ……………………………

1- Qualification ou Diplôme :   Licence : ☐   Magistère : ☐   Doctorat : ☐

2- Votre recherche est :   En cours : ☐   terminée : ☐

3- Pour combien d'année avez-vous fait de la recherche ?   ….. ans, …..mois

4- Combien d'année avez-vous appris l'anglais ?   ………. Ans

5- Est-ce que l'apprentissage que vous avez reçu en graduation vous aide maintenant ?

   Oui : ☐   Non :   ☐

6- Selon votre expérience, quels sont les aspects négatifs de cet apprentissage ?

   a- Insuffisance du volume horaire hebdomadaire ; --- ☐

   b- Insuffisance des compétences des enseignants ; --- ☐

   c- Les textes utilisés ne répondaient pas à vos besoins ; --------------------------------- ☐

   d- Les méthodes utilisées ne vous aidaient pas à progresser ; --------------------------- ☐

   e- L'apprentissage de la compréhension et l'expression orale était inadéquat ; -------- ☐

   f- L'apprentissage de la lecture, la compréhension et de l'écriture était insuffisant; -- ☐

   g- Manque d'apprentissage individuel en dehors des cours de langue ; ----------------- ☐

   h- Autres aspects négatifs (précisez) : …………………………………………………

      …………………………………………………………………………………....

7- Quels sont les aspects qui doivent être améliorés dans l'apprentissage de l'anglais ?

a- Augmentation du volume horaire ; --- ☐

b- Diversifier les matériels didactiques et les mettre à disposition des étudiants ; ----- ☐

c- Un choix plus approprié des textes utilisés ; --- ☐

d- Adopter une meilleure méthodologie par les enseignants ; --------------------------- ☐

e- Encourager l'apprentissage de la compréhension et l'expression oral ; ------------- ☐

f- Encourager l'apprentissage la lecture et l'expression écrite ; ----------------------- ☐

g- Encourager l'apprentissage de la traduction; -- ☐

h- Autres,précisez SVP : …………………………………………………………………

   …………………………………………………………………………………

8- Selon votre expérience et vos besoins actuels, quelles sont les activités les plus nécessaires à l'apprentissage de l'anglais ?

a- Traduction -- ☐

b- compréhension orale -- ☐

c- expression orale --- ☐

d- lecture et compréhension --- ☐

e- expression écrite -- ☐

f- grammaire -- ☐

g- prise de notes -- ☐

h- Autres,précisez SVP : ……………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………

9- Actuellement, quelle est l'utilité de la langue anglaise pour vos recherches ?

a- Voyage et conversation ; -- ☐

b- Donner des conférences en anglais ; ------------------------------------ ☐

c- Compréhension et prise de notes lors des conférences ; ------------------ ☐

d- Lecture et compréhension de documents de votre spécialité ; ----------- ☐

e- Ecriture et publication de vos travaux de recherche. --------------------- ☐

f- Visiter des sites sur Internet; --- ☐

10- Quels genres de documents en langue anglaise utilisez- vous pour vos recherches ?

a- Articles de presse ; -- ☐

b- Articles de périodiques et revues spécialisées ; --------------------------- ☐

c- Livres et thèses de recherche; --- ☐

d- Articles téléchargés à partir d'Internet; ------------------------------- ☐

e- Programmes multimédia (enregistrement audio et/ou vidéo) ----------- ☐

f- Autres, Précisez, SVP : ……………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………

11- Si vous avez des difficultés à les utiliser en langue anglaise, que faites vous ? Précisez SVP :

………….

………………………………………………………………………………………………

…… ……………… ………….. …………………………… ……………… …   Merci de votre

Collaboration

APPENDIX- I. 3:

QUESTIONNAIRE TO TEACHERS OF English for Academic Purposes

at The Departments of Humanities and Social Sciences (University of Constantine)

This questionnaire serves as a data collection tool for a Doctorat d'Etat in applied Linguistics and a Research Project in Pedagogy carried by Prof. Hassan Saadi and M. Hacène HAMADA.

It investigates the English course aspects related to objectives, teaching and learning, and methodology applied at the departments of human and social sciences. Whatever your qualifications and experience in the field, your answers will be of a great help to us. Will you please fill in or complete the required information and make choices wherever necessary. Thank you very much for your contribution.

1. **Qualification and experience** :

a- Degree: …………………………………. Academic Year: ………………

b- Number of years teaching EAP: ……… years

c- At which Department(s): …………………….. ……………… ……………….

2. **Course Planning (Objectives, Materials, methodology)**:

a- What are the Long-Term Objectives of teaching EAP to students of human and social sciences?

……………………………………………………………………………………….

…………………………………………………………………………………………

b- What are the Short-Term Objectives of these courses for First year Students at these Departments?

………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

c- What are the materials you rely on to teach?

Materials	Yes	No
I- General English Textbooks		
II- English for Specific Purposes textbooks (Academic field of students)		
III- Gather materials from other teachers		
IV- Select and design your own materials		

d- If your choice is YES for either one of Lines I, II, and/or III (in the table above), please indicate references below:

Author(s)	Date	Title	Publisher

e- If your choice is YES for line IV (in the table above), Will you please complete required information at the end of this questionnaire.

f- What are the most useful language skills or abilities needed by your students:

…………………...

…………………………………………………………………………………...

g- What are the usual language activities you deal with in your lessons (by order of progression):

1 ……………………………   2 …………………………………..

3…..……………………………..   4………………………………………

5……….…………………………   6 ……………………………………

h- What are the usual stages you follow when you deal with a text in your lessons:

1 …………………………………..   2 …………………………………..

3 …………………………….......   4………………………………………..

5 …………………………………..   6 ………………………………….

3. **Materials Design: select and design your own materials** (choice IV- table above);

a- For which purpose(s) do you decide to select these materials?

- Satisfy learners needs, interests and motivation; ………………………….. ☐

- Follow administration recommendations; …………………………………. ☐

- Achieve teaching and learning objectives already determined; ……………… ☐

- Expose students to real language contexts; …………………………………….. ☐

- Illustrate some grammatical relations; ……………………………………… ☐

- Teach specific vocabulary in context; …………………………………….. ☐

- Others, please specify: ……………………………………………………………

b. What kind of language texts do you select?

- Authentic texts written to native speakers; ……………………………………… ☐

- Foreign Language Teaching texts which fit your learners level; …………… ☐

- Others, please specify: ………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………..

c.   If you select authentic texts do you usually select:

-Extracts from specialist textbooks related to students academic field; ……… ☐

-Newspaper articles and reports; …………………………………………… ☐

-Articles from special journals and periodicals; ………………………………. ☐

-Articles from Internet sites; ……………………………………………………… ☐

-Others, please specify: …………………………………………………………

d. If you select Foreign Language Teaching texts, please specify their sources:

Author(s)	Date	Title	Publisher

e. How often do you keep authentic texts as they are or adapt (modify) them to fit students' level and your own teaching procedure?

-Always keep texts as they are; ……………………………………………. ☐

-Always adapt (modify) texts; ………………………………………….. ☐

- Sometimes, modify (adapt) texts; ………………………………………… ☐

f. If you adapt texts what modifications do you usually apply?

- Replace difficult words with easier synonyms; ……………………………… ☐

- Rewrite some complex sentences into simpler ones; …………………………… ☐

- Paraphrase the whole text into simpler language; ……………………………… ☐

- Reduce text length: omit (a) part(s) or paragraph(s); …………………………… ☐

- Other modifications, please specify: …………………………………………………

g. What kind of exercises, activities, or techniques do you undertake with your students when using these texts? Please, indicate all types of exercises for each step

Steps or stages	Exercises, activities or techniques
Pre-reading	
Reading Comprehension	
Language practise	
Output and Production	

Further reading	

h. How did you learn to design these texts as teaching materials?

- Attended a special course; …………………………………………………… ☐

- Read books on materials design; ………………………………………… ☐

- Developed personal experience; ………………………………………… ☐

- Team work (with other teachers); ………………………………………. ☐

- Other resources; please specify: …………………………………………

   …………………………………………………………………………………

i. What difficulties do you face in designing such materials? ………………………

   …………………………………………………………………………

j. What suggestions do you make to improve the course you are teaching? ……………

   …………………………………………………………………………………

APPENDIX - II: Bloom's Taxonomy revisited by Anderson (et al)

Source: oz-TeachersNet:: Teachers helping teachers

In Anderson,L.W., & Krathwohl,D.R (Eds).2001. *A Taxonomy for learning, teaching, and assessing: A revision of Bloom's taxonomy of educational objective.* Longman

Category	**Sample sentence starters**	**Potential activities and products**

REMEMBER **Recognising** Locating knowledge in memory that is consistent with presented material. Synonyms: Identifying… **Recalling** Retrieving relevant knowledge from long-term memory. Synonyms: Retrieving…. Naming…...	What happened after…? How many…? What is…? Who was it that…? Can you name…? Find the meaning of…	Make a list of the main events of the story. Make a time line of events. Make a facts chart. Write a list of any pieces of information you can remember. What animals were in the story?
REMEMBER **Recognising** Locating knowledge in memory that is consistent with presented material. Synonyms: Identifying… **Recalling** Retrieving relevant knowledge from long-term memory. Synonyms : Retrieving…. Naming…...	Describe what happened after… Who spoke to…? Which is true or false…? Identify who…. Name all the…..	Make a chart showing… Make an acrostic. Recite a poem.
UNDERSTAND **Interpreting** Changing from one form of representation to another Synonyms: Paraphrasing… Translating,…Representing,… Clarifying…	Can you write in your own words? How would you explain…? Can you write a brief outline…?	Cut out, or draw pictures to show a particular event. Illustrate what you think the main idea may have been.

Exemplifying Finding a specific example or illustration of a concept or principle Synonyms : Instantiating... Illustrating... **Classifying:** Determining that something belongs to a category (e.g., concept or principle). Synonyms: Categorising... Subsuming... **Summarising** Drawing a logical conclusion from presented information. Synonyms : Abstracting... Generalising...	What do you think could have happened next...? Who do you think...? What was the main idea...? Clarify why.... Illustrate the .... Does everyone act in the way that .... does? Draw a story map.	Make a cartoon strip showing the sequence of events. Write and perform a play based on the story. Retell the story in your own words. Write a summary report of the event Prepare a flow chart to illustrate the sequence of events. Make a colouring book.
Inferring Abstracting a general theme or major point Synonyms : Extrapolating... Interpolating.. Predicting... Concluding....	Explain why a character acted in the way that they did.	Cut out, or draw pictures to show a particular event. Illustrate what you think the main idea was. Make a cartoon strip showing the sequence of events. Write and perform a play based on the story. Retell the story in your own words. Write a summary report of the event
Comparing Detecting correspondences between two ideas, objects, etc Synonyms : Contrasting... Matching ...Mapping... **Explaining** Constructing a cause-and-		Prepare a flow chart to illustrate the sequence of events. Cut out, or draw pictures to show a particular event. Illustrate what you think the main idea was. Make a cartoon strip showing the sequence of events.

effect model of a system. Synonyms: Constructing models...		Write and perform a play based on the story.
APPLY **Executing** Applying knowledge (often procedural) to a routine task. Synonyms: Carrying out.... **Implementing** Applying knowledge (often procedural) to a non-routine task. Synonyms : Using…..	Can you write in your own words? How would you explain…? Can you write a brief outline…? What do you think could have happened next…? Who do you think…? What was the main idea…? Clarify why…. Illustrate the ……… Does everyone act in the way that …….. does? Draw a story map. Explain why a character acted in the way that they did.	Construct a model to demonstrate how it works Make a diorama to illustrate an event Make a scrapbook about the areas of study. Make a papier-mâché map / clay model to include relevant information about an event. Take a collection of photographs to demonstrate a particular point. Make up a puzzle game. Write a textbook about this topic for others.
ANALYSE **Differentiating** Distinguishing relevant from irrelevant parts or important from unimportant parts of presented material. Synonyms : Discriminating, Selecting, Focusing, Distinguishing, **Organising** Determining how elements fit or function within a structure. Synonyms : Outlining, Structuring, Integrating,	Which events could not have happened? If. ..happened, what might the ending have been? How is…similar to…? What do you see as other possible outcomes? Why did…changes occur?	Design a questionnaire to gather information. Write a commercial to sell a new product Make flow chart to show the critical stages. Construct a graph to illustrate selected information. Make a family tree showing

Finding coherence		relationships.
Attributing Determining the point of view, bias, values, or intent underlying presented material. Synonyms : Deconstructing	Can you explain what must have happened when...? What are some or the problems of...? Can you distinguish between...? What were some of the motives behind..? What was the turning point? What was the problem with...?	Devise a play about the study area. Write a biography of a person studied. Prepare a report about the area of study.
EVALUATE **Checking:** Detecting inconsistencies or fallacies within a process or product. Determining whether a process or product has internal consistency. Synonyms: Testing, Detecting, Monitoring **Critiquing** Detecting the appropriateness of a procedure for a given task or problem. Synonyms :Judging	Is there a better solution to...? Judge the value of... What do you think about...? Can you defend your position about...? Do you think...is a good or bad thing? How would you have handled...? What changes to.. would you recommend? Do you believe...? How would you feel if. ..? How effective are. ..?	Conduct a debate about an issue of special interest. Make a booklet about five rules you see as important. Convince others. Form a panel to discuss views. Write a letter to. .., advising on changes needed. Write a half-year report. Prepare a case to present your view about...

CREATE		
Generating Coming up with alternatives or hypotheses based on criteria Synonyms : Hypothesizing	Can you design a…to…? Can you see a possible solution to…?	Invent a machine to do a specific task. Design a building to house your study.
Planning Devising a procedure for accomplishing some task. producing Synonyms : Designing	If you had access to all resources, how would you deal with…? Why don't you devise your own way to…?	Create a new product. Give it a name and plan a marketing campaign.
Producing Inventing a product. Synonyms : Constructing	What would happen if…? How many ways can you…? Can you create new and unusual uses for…? Can you develop a proposal which would…?	Write about your feelings in relation to… Write a TV show play, puppet show, role play, song *or* pantomime about.. Design a record, book or magazine cover for… Sell an idea Devise a way to…

APPENDIX- III. Newspaper Articles

APPANDIX- IV: CONTROL GROUP / # 1

'Charity shop's £1,500 boost'

NOTTINGHAM'S first Save the Children shop In Derby Road, which opened less than three weeks ago, is proving a big success and has already collected £1,500.

Now according to Mrs Barbara King, publicity officer, they are looking for permanent premises to carry on the fund-raising as they are only based temporarily in the former Jaeger shop. About a dozen volunteers run the shop, which is well stocked with clothing, bric-a-brac, bedding, China and household goods.

'SUCCESS'

Mrs King said individuals and business in the city had been extremely generous in donating articles for sale, including brand new items. She added: "Everyone is working very hard to make sure the shop is a success. And we are hoping that our coffee shop, which sells freshly baked cakes, will attract people into the shop. All the money from the coffee shop also goes to the fund."

Material: a newspaper article about a shop that works for the benefit of children and poor people

Purpose: It is an expository text to encourage people to help the poor and the spread of such associations.

The goals: The teacher aims at making his students able to transform from the active to the passive and vice versa

The objectives: by the end of the lesson learners will be able to transform from the active to the passive and from the passive to the active.

Activities

1/ Warming up: I'll ask learners questions in the same field 'solidarity': Do you know about some associations that take care of children and devote sums of money to help them?
Are there a lot of poor people in your town?

The purpose: I aim to prepare my learners to the text and motivate them to know what the text is about.

2/ Comprehension:
a- put true or false in front of each statement:

-Nottingham's first save he children shop opened to help poor people.

-It opened less than, three weeks ago.

-the business of the city didn't help the shop.

-It contains sweets and toys

b- Explain in your own words what are the main purposes of the charity shop (group work)

Purpose: I put this activity to give my learners a general idea about the text.

3/ Application: organise the following sentences to make a coherent paragraph:

-It's situated in Geneva.

-and give aids to poor countries in the field of health.

-the World Health Organisation was founded in 1948.

-its members are 160 countries.

-its aim is to ameliorate the health of people all over the world.

The purpose: I aim at:

-giving them general culture.

-enlarge their vocabulary.

-enable them to link sentences.

4 / Follow up: Choose one of the following topics:

-Summarize the text.

-Write a paragraph about 80 words explaining the main reasons behind the associations of aid.

'£62,000 for lost music'

A BOY, who will never be able to enjoy music because of damage to his hearing at birth, was awarded £62,000 agreed damages in the High Court yesterday.

Ian Sadler, four, will have to go to a school for the deaf and will always wear two hearing aids. The award was against Kent Area Health Authority administrators of the William Harvey Hospital, Ashford, where Ian was born. They denied liability.

Ian's parents, secondary school teacher MR Paul Sadler and his wife, Lorna, of St Mar's Bay, Romney Marsh, Kent, were awarded £13,000 for expenses incurred so far. Mr Sadler said the hospital did not take steps to deal with a rare blood condition from which his wife suffered. He claimed that, at the moment of birth, Ian's blood should have been changed.

Asking Mr Justice Macpherson to approve the settlement worked out between layers, Mr Michael Kalisher, counsel for Ian said: "He is an intelligent boy but will always have difficulty in groups of people. He will be taught to lip-read."

Mr Kalisher said: "he will be able to hear TV and the phone, but he will never enjoy music to the full because of the limitation in hearing high frequencies. He will be able to drive but will be unable to hear danger approach. Apart from this, he should be able to lead a relatively normal life." The judge said he felt uneasy about the amount agreed but thought it was 'all right'.

First, every student must have the passage which is a newspaper article.

I-Pre-reading:

Teacher talks about the accidents which cause damages and problems for life by giving examples.

The purpose is to push the students to give or talk about such accidents and their results. Asking questions is the important in this step.

For example: Do your read or hear about accidents which happen in hospitals at birth?

What are the causes of such accidents?

II- Reading comprehension:

- Students are given questions before hand and are asked to read the passage silently.

- The teacher reads the passage at normal speed in order to give them the model.

- The students read loudly and carefully with correction of oral mistakes in pronunciation.

- After, the students must answer the questions such as;

1. What happened to Ian Sadler at birth?
2. Why is Sadler a victim?
3. What do you think Sadler must have as compensation being unable to hear music?
4. Can Sadler have a normal life?
5. Is £ 62,000 enough to make Sadler forget his suffering?
6. Must the hospital be punished for the pain caused to Sadler?
7. Do you think that Sadler has a strong personality being able to continue his life deaf and being a good student?

III- Language practice:

1. Asking the students about the difficult words in order to explain them.

2. Give exercises in grammar fro example:

- How do you notice that the story happened in the past?
- Ask questions: "because of the limitation, …………?"

  (the aim is to revise WH questions)

- Exercise about the passive voice.
- How many ideas are there in the passage?

IV- Output and production:

1- Give a summary of each paragraph.
2- Give a summary of all the passage.
3- Do you think that such accidents happen here in Algeria?
4- Does the victim have compensation?

As homework: Write a paragraph imagining yourself in the place of Sadler.

'Flashback to heartbreak'

THE pregnant poverty-trapped mother who dumped her two children outside a hospital wept yesterday and said: 'All I want is a nice home for my family."

After a tearful reunion with the toddlers, Sharon, two and Mark, one 19-year-old housewife Karen said that money worries forced her to take the drastic action. Because her husband David insisted on holding down a job they lost out on vital social security benefits, she said.

Heavily pregnant with her third child –expected in a fortnight- the desperate young mother said: "I couldn't cope with the children and me and my husband felt we couldn't provide a good home for them.

"We were at the end of our tether. We've built up odd debts keeping the children in good clothes and shoes and the baby we are expecting would have been a terrific strain.

It wasn't a spur of the moment decision to leave the children at the hospital. But the moment I walked away I knew it wasn't an answer to our problem."

The objective:

By the end of my lesson, my students should be able to read the text, understand it and write a small paragraph in which they give the most important ideas of the text.

Steps of the lesson

I- Pre-reading:

1. The teacher asks questions about the topic of the text such as:

-    Can the problems separate the family? And which kind of problems?

-     Is the relationship between the mother and her children strong enough to not be separated by any kind of problems?

2. The teacher tries to make a 'class discussion'.

II- Reading comprehension:

1. The teacher asks the students to read the text silently.

2. The teacher chooses students to read the text loudly.

3. **The teacher asks the students about the general idea of the text and the sub- ideas through activities such as:**

   -true or false statements and correct the false ones;

   -answer the following questions

III- Language practice:

   The teacher gives a series of activities such as:

1. **Lexis:** find in the text synonyms or antonyms for some words.

2. **Grammar:** activities about tenses, reported speech, passive voice, sentence structure, what the words refer to, etc… with examples from the text itself.

3. **Pronunciation:** the stress – (s-z-iz), (d-t-id), transcription (sometimes) of easy words in order to make the difference between words such as "of" /ov/, "off" /of/.

IV- Output and production:

   I can give them one of these works;

1. Write a small paragraph in which they give the most important ideas of the text.

2. They write their points of view about "how can the problems –any kind of problems-affect the unity of a family." Discuss.

'Postman spent five days in car boot'

A POSTMAN who survived for five days after he was trapped in his car boot was rescued yesterday by police.

Mr Jeffrey Pottle, aged 26, was released by a policeman whose routine patrol took him by the car parked in a lay-by in Waltham Forest.

"It appears that Mr Pottle climbed into the boot last Wednesday, closed the lid, and couldn't get out," a policeman said. "We have no idea why he climbed in".

Mr Pottle, of Bramley Close, Waltham, east London, was weak and unable to walk. He was taken to St Margaret's Hospital, Epping.

While he was trapped, the car was broken into and a coat was stolen, the police said.

Thousands of people are thought to have passed the car in the Wake Road, a popular spot for visitors to the forest.

Mr Pottle's absence from work was noticed but nobody thought to organise a search for him.

My objectives: Make the students read objectively any article in the newspapers, and help them to develop their writing and reading skills, and evaluate their grammar understandings.

I- Pre-reading:

Before reading the text the teacher may ask some questions such as:

- What do you think of working in a team?
- Do you like to work alone or with a partner?
- Is it so important to have a partner?

Now let's have an idea about having no partner in work.

II- Reading comprehension:

Students are supposed to read the text silently and carefully after listening to the teacher reading it.

They are supposed to answer some questions according to the text. For example:

1. Who is the person the passage talks about? What does he do?
2. What is the story about?
3. How many days does he stay in the car boot?
4. Where can you find such a passage?
5. Do you read newspapers? Why and why not?

III- Language practice:

1. What are the tenses used in the passage?
2. Why does the writer use the past tense, in your opinion?
3. How many passives are there in the text?
4. Is the following sentence in the passive: "…a policeman whose routine patrol took him by the car"?
5. Put the following sentence in the indirect speech:
   He said: "We have no idea why he claimed in."

IV- Output and production:

1. Write a small paragraph in which you summarize the text in your own way.
2. Imagine you are a journalist supposed to write about something that happened. What will you say? What kind of details will you give? Make sure you give more information than the others.
3. **Further reading**: Find out a story from a newspaper (in any language) and write it in your own words.

'Best man is the groom!'

A BEST man turned up at a wedding yesterday- and found he was the groom.

Derry Davies was tricked by his fiancé who had secretly set up the ceremony and a reception.

Bride Margaret Robertson enlisted the help of 20 friends including a couple who agreed to pretend thy ware getting married.

Then, as they arrived at the register office in Wellington, Shropshire, she revealed it was their own big day.

Margaret, 38, said she was getting her own back on Derry. She said: "he was always proposing to me in front of my friends and popping love notes into my lunch box at work. It made me really embarrassed. I decided to call his bluff."

Derry, 40, of Ketley, Telford, said: "I was completely taken in."

The Daily Mirror Wednesday, July24.1985

The material: a newspaper article about marriage

The language function: narrating

The language notions: past simple and past continuous, passive voice and direct speech.

The objectives: The learners will be able to write a paragraph narrating a funny or strange event.

I- Warming up:

Ask the students to mention some of the marriage customs and whether they remember any funny event in marriage customs.

II- Main Activities:

 Exercise 1: give a short answer to the following questions.

1.   Who was Derry Davies and how old was he?

2.   Who was Margaret Robertson and how old was she?

3.   Did Margaret inform Derry that he would be a groom?

 Exercise 2: Say whether the following sentences are true or false.

1.   Margaret did not enlist the help of any one.

2.   Derry was tricked by his fiancé.

B-   **Reading comprehension:**

 Exercise 1: Read the text and answer the following questions.

1.   How did Margaret trick Davies?

2.   How did Margaret recognise that Derry loves her?

3.   Why was Margaret embarrassed?

 Exercise 2: give synonyms to the following:

  a- organised the party:

  b- accepted:

  c- deceived:

 Exercise 3: give antonyms to the following:

  a- left:

  b- kept a secret:

 C- Grammar exercises:

 Exercise 1: change the following sentences into the passive or active form.

1.   Derry Davies was tricked by his fiancé.

   ………………………………………………

2.   Twenty friends have helped Margaret.

   …………………………………………………..

Exercise 2: transform the following sentence into the indirect speech.

Margaret said: "I was so embarrassed."

III- Follow up activities:

Write a paragraph about a funny event happened to you. Use the past simple and the past continuous

CONTROL GROUP / # 6

'Hero rescues girl under bus' By **Penny Hart**

GARAGE boss Eric Shurmer was startle by the sounds of a woman's screams, followed by shouts. Then came the pounding of feet as a man ran up the alleyway leading to his repair shop. "Quick, bring a jack, there's a girl trapped under a bus," the man yelled. Mr Shurmer grabbed a trolley jack – the largest in the garage- and pulling it behind him, ran out into the High Street at Chislehurst, Kent.

Horrified

Traffic had stopped. A crowd of shoppers gazed, horrified, at a stationary red double-decker bus. Lying beneath the 10-ton vehicle, her right hand pinned to the road by one big front tyre, was 17 year-old Joanne Sherry. She had stepped from the kerb, collided with the bus and became trapped underneath the front axle as she fell to the ground. Mr Shurmer and a group of other men positioned the jack under the front of the bus. The jack was designed to lift only vehicles up to a maximum weight of two-and-a-half tons. But it was all they had and there was not a moment to lose.

Using all their strength, Mr Shurmer, 44, and print works employee Mr Alan Theobald pumped the handle and to their relief the double-decker tilted just far enough to lift the wheel from Joanne's badly crushed hand. But Mr Shurmer realised that to drag her clear he would have to crawl under the double-decker himself. So while Mr Theobald hung on to the jack and the other men put their shoulders to the bus to steady it, he scrambled underneath. Her leg was hurt and from the awkward angle of her right arm it was clearly broken.

Suddenly there was an ominous groan from the jack. The strain of holding up the 10-ton weight was beginning to tell. The jack wheels were gradually sinking into the tarmac and Mr Shurmer's head was already brushing the bottom of the bus. And when he tried gently to move Joanne, he realised to his horror that her skirt was caught under the axle. Working as fast as he could, he managed to free the skirt while above him the double-decker dropped lower and lower. Then, with the jack still creaking, he eased her clear of the bus and ambulance men rushed her to hospital.

When Mr Shurmer edged himself out and removed the jack, he found it had left a hole nearly two inches deep in the road. Joanne, who lives in Sicup, Kent, with her widowed father and her brother, is now recovering in hospital.

THE SUNDAY EXPRESS August 4 1985

The objectives: -The learners will be able to narrate and report a past story or event.

-They will be able to use the past simple and the direct speech correctly.

-They will be able to use "if" in the conditional.

Lesson presentation

I- before reading: the teacher makes a sort of communication in the first hand between him and his students, and in the second hand between the learners themselves by asking such questions as:

1. What kind of help can you make to people?

2. Have you ever helped someone who is in trouble? When? How?

3. How can we name the person who did this moral and good thing?

II- Introducing new information:

Activity 1: reading first the text by the teacher then asking questions such as:

1. Identify the characters.

2. Questions about some points in the story.

Activity 2: Find the adequate meaning to the word hero':

  a-One who does bad things?

  b-   One who does good thing?

  c-One works in a repair shop?

Activity 3: Answer the following two questions.

1. Describe the state of the girl under the bus.

2. Express the reaction of Eric and how he managed to rescue the girl.

Activity 4: analyse and synthesize by using 'if'

- Imagine 'if' Mr Shurmer was not in the shop.

- Could anyone else help that girl?

- What would have happened?

III- Follow up activities:

Write a paragraph describing an accident or an event in which you contributed in rescuing the victims.

CONTROL GROUP / # 7

"Abandoned baby Coloured", say police

Johannesburg

Police said yesterday that they have determined that a month-old baby girl found in a field is coloured, but the Government has not yet formally classified the child's race.

The debate about the girl's race, given the name Lise Venter by Pretoria West Hospital staff, has focused attention on South Africa's race classification system. The race assigned to the girl, will determine who can adopt her, which schools she attends, and where she can live.

Maj-Gen. Lothar Neethling said: "For investigation purposes, the South African Police scientifically determined that the child was of mixed race." He said the decision was made based on a strand of the girl's hair. General Neethling added, however, that the police made the determination only as part of their investigation and search for the girl's parents. The responsibility for the official classification of the girl's race remains the responsibility of the Department of Internal Affairs. A Department spokesman said that that would occur only after the police and other investigations were completed and if the parents were not found.

> The baby was found two weeks ago by a passer by in a field outside Pretoria, wrapped in a blanket, with her head in a paper bag. She remains at the hospital. Newspapers reported that police believe that the baby had been abandoned because her parents feared prosecution under the Immorality Act, which forbids sexual relations across the colour line. General Neethling would not comment on such 'speculation.'

The material: it is a newspaper article about racism in South Africa. The information is not organised in a chronological order. So, sentence structure is difficult

The general function: narrating through reporting

The grammatical notions: indirect speech, simple past, passive voice

The proficiency level: Intermediate and post-intermediate

The objectives: the learners will be able to narrate using the simple past to write a paragraph.

Lesson Plan and Presentation

I-Warming-up:

  -I ask the students whether they know Nelson Mandela.

  -If their answer is 'yes', I ask them 'What is he famous for?' or 'what did he do?'

  -A class discussion of racism and Mandela's long fight for the rights of blacks in South Africa

II- Presentation:

   I read the text and explain its meaning in terms of sentences and words that the students do not understand.

Activity 1: answer these comprehension questions.

1. Read the text and identify the country in which the problem happened.
2. Can any one tell us how many ideas are there in the text?
3. Where did the two men take the baby?
4. Why did doctors examine the hair of the child?
5. What was the result of the examination?
6. Why the law in South Africa did not accept such a baby?

Activity 2: reread the text and underline all the verbs in the simple past and then give the infinitive form of each verb.

Activity 3: read the following passage and put the verbs between brackets in the correct tense.

Two weeks ago, I (to go) ..…... to Bejaya. I (to pass) ……….. near a factory where they (to make) …………… glass. I (to stop) …………….there for a few minutes, then I (to continue) ………………. my trip. I (to notice) ………. that making glass (to be) …………. a very difficult job.

Activity 4: I show them pictures that are related then I ask them to look at the pictures and write sentences about what they did last Friday. Then, they must link together these sentences to write a paragraph.

III- Production:

-Here are the names of three famous leaders who fought against racism and discrimination: Nelson Mandela, Martin Luther King, and Mahatma Gandhi.

-Choose one of them to talk about his life. For example:

"Nelson Mandela was the president of South Africa. He was the leader of antiracist movements in South Africa. He was enjailed many times because of his ideas …………."

CONTROL GROUP / # 8

'The chilly truths about holiday fun'

I had another one of those holiday postcards this morning. You know the style: "weather wonderful, villa superb, children loving every minute, sea warm, marvellous flight, don't want to come home…" Why do people tell such lies when they are on holiday? Most of my friends do –and as soon as they arrive home they tell me the ghastly truth: the children were car sick, jellyfish stopped anyone from going swimming, the plane was delayed for four hours in searing heat, and the French pillows were unbearable.

ORDEAL

How often my girlfriends gasp with relief when the ordeal is over. One confined she needed another week at home to recover from blistering sunburn, mosquito bites and lingering Spanish tummy. Children under 12 are usually thankful to get back to baked beans and hamburgers instead of picking ungratefully at some expensive Mediterranean dish their parents thought would be a treat.

Do we fib in postcards because holidays usually cost so much and are meant to be enjoyed that if they turn out to be a disaster we hardly like to admit it? After all everyone else tells us what a wonderful time they had.

I was a teenager when I first rumbled that postcards are not all believable. A school-friend's card from the South Coast was particularly eulogistic about the weather. But the details of sunbathing didn't match the TV weather reports which confirmed heavy cloud and high winds. And she came home without the slightest hint of a sun-tan.

Another card from a couple had superlatives in every sentence. Much later I heard how the rented car, complete with suitcases, had been towed away by police and cost a small fortune to recover. We may like to think only of the highlights of a holiday, but if the truth comes out when we come home wouldn't it be more sensible to save the price of a stamp.

SALLY STAPLES In *THE SUN* July 1985

Passages like that have multiple purposes because each passage will be used to train the students in the following: aural/oral comprehension and this can be done after a small reading (the teacher of course asks the students to do it); reading aloud, oral composition; dictation and after all comes the controlled comprehension and composition practice including grammar.

N.B: Composition (use simple, compound and complex sentences). So, let's number these steps again:

1. To give policopies for all members of the class (group).

2. Asking students (learners) to have a silent reading of the text at first.

3. After, I read it loudly in order they hear (listen) or get the correct spelling.

4. Re-read it again to show how natives speak and for more understanding.

5. Ask the learners what they have understood,… if not;

6. I try to explain difficult words to make the text easier (especially for low level learners)

7. I ask again what they understand now, of course, by getting a small discussion which leads us to practice (assignments or exercises) to be done in class or as homework. These exercise are:

- **Comprehension questions**
- **Language skills**
- **Composition**

Glossary:

A fib: a lie

Relief: the feeling of happiness that you have when something unpleasant stops or does not happen. Eg: we all breathed a sigh of relief when he left.

Ordeal: a difficult or unpleasant experience.

Mosquito: a flying insect that bites humans and sucks their blood.

Eulogistic: to praise somebody/something very highly. Eg: he was eulogized as a hero.

Blistering: extremely hot in a way that is uncomfortable. Eg: a blistering July day.

Bites: to use your teeth to cut into or through something.

Lingering: slow to end or disappear. Eg: a painful and lingering death.

Pillows: a square or rectangular piece of fabric filled with soft material, used to rest your head on in bed. Eg: she lay back against the pillows.

Gasp: to take a quick deep breath with your mouth open, especially because you are surprised or in pain. Eg: she gasped at a wonderful view.

Ghastly: very frightening and unpleasant because it involves pain.

Jellyfish: a sea creature with a body like jelly and ling thin parts.

Rumbled: to discover truth about somebody or what they are trying to hide.

Searing: to burn the surface of something in a way that is sudden and powerful.

The questions

I- Comprehension questions:

1. Do postcards always spoil your holidays or not?

2. What do you think is best said truth or lies?

II- Language skills:

Activity 1: find out the irregular verbs used in the text above and give their past and past participle forms.

Activity 2: find in the text synonyms of the following:

   a- vacation: b-to accept:

   c-weight: d-up to 12:

   e-under 20:

Activity 3: find in the text opposites to the following:

   a-low: b-truths:

   c-healthy: d-cheap:

Activity 4: give the correct form of the verbs between brackets (…) for the text below.

Last summer, I (go) to Italy. I (visit) museums and (sit) in public gardens. A friendly waiter (teach) me a few words of Italian. Then he (lend) me a book. I (read) a few lines, but I (not to understand) a word. Every day, I (think) about postcards. My holidays (pass) quickly, but I (not to send) any cards to my friends. On the last day, I (make) a big decision. I (get) up early and (buy) thirty seven cards. I (spend) the whole day in my room, but I (not to write) a single card!

Activity 5: derive adjectives from these nouns:

-friend, -child, -wonder, -marvel.

III- Composition:

You were on holidays last summer. Write or say how did you spend them without forgetting any detail because you are going to exchange postcards with your friends in order to check which one's vacation was the best (avoid lies).

CONTROL GROUP / # 9

'FOOD FLIGHT TO TCHAD'

A PLANE funded by the British Government takes off from Amsterdam today in a second attempt to get through to hungry children in Chad with Swiss-donated food. Ten days ago Algerian air traffic controllers turned back the Boeing 707 airliner carrying 40 tons of milk products and baby food,

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because, apparently, Algeria did not want to upset Libya, which backs Chadian rebels. But yesterday Algeria gave permission for the flight.

Pre-planning:

The teacher should first identify the background knowledge of the learners; who are they and what they have already studied?

This material is not for beginners; it is difficult for them. It is appropriate for intermediate students of first year at university

Functions: Narration, arguments (they did so because….)

Notions: names of countries, notion of time (ten days ago, etc…), quantity (40 tons), and notions related to planes (Boeing, flight, air traffic, etc…) and food (food, baby milk, etc…).

Aims of the teacher:

1. To enrich vocabulary and background knowledge about different countries; where they are situated, the living conditions of children in those countries.
2. To think and draw conclusions on the basis of what they have read.
3. To improve the students' reading ability and encourage them to guess and predict content.

Objectives: the students will be able to:

1. Distinguish between regular and irregular verbs.
2. Use the prepositions: for, in, from, in a correct way.
3. Recognise verbs in the past tense.
4. Decide for the True statements and the False ones.
5. Illustrate their examples and ideas.

The activities

Activity 1: learners work individually, read the sentences and put "True" or "False"

1. The hungry children live in Algeria.
2. Ten days ago, Algeria allowed the plane to fly to Chad.
3. The British government helped children in Chad.
4. Switzerland is a poor country.

Activity 2: work in pairs. Underline the verbs which are in the past tense, identify their infinitive, and classify them according to their form; regular or irregular.

Activity 3: complete the table.

The infinitive	The past simple	The past participle
become		
	built	
	chose	
cut		
		left

Activity 4: complete the sentences using "for", "in", and "from".

1. This knife is only ………. cutting bread.
2. Where are you …………?
3. I am sorry ……….. being late.
4. They live ……. A big house.

Activity 5: Rewrite the following sentences using the passive voice.

1. Algeria air traffic controllers rejected the Boeing 707.
2. The British government funded a plane
3. The plane was carrying Swiss food.

Activity 6: Many children in the world suffer from starvation. How can we help them? Write a paragraph to suggest your solutions.

'Dad feels menaced' *in* <u>The Sun</u>. July 1985

We have always been a close family, even though my husband is very set in his ways and firmly believes that his views are always right. We have three children and he has always been a good and caring father.

But ever since my eldest boy reached 16, he and my husband have clashed. My husband watches and questions his every moves. He insists that the boy is home by 10 p.m. and goes mad if he is late. He doesn't discuss anything with him, just lays down the law. I am caught in the middle, especially at weekends when my son wants to stay out later. He appeals to me but my husband says I'm not to determine his discipline.

I'm beginning to think my husband somehow refuses to accept that our son is grown-up and must make his own decisions and stand by his own mistakes. Is it jealousy? My friend says my husband probably feels threatened by his son becoming a man, albeit a young one. How do I get them to be friends again and put peace back into our lives?

Function of the material: This is an expository text. It speaks about a father who feels threatened by his son because he has reached the age of 16. This situation has lead to many struggles between the father and his son.

The level: It is adequate to first year students of psychology.

The goals:
- To make students familiar with some vocabulary;
- To make them discover some rules and techniques in an expository text.
- To improve their level in grammar.

The objectives: by the end of this course, the students will be able:
- To identify the structure and overall organisation of an expository text.
- To use the present continuous and past simple.
- To transform from direct to indirect speech
- To write an expository paragraph.

Lesson Presentation

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I- Warming up:

I start the lecture by introducing the topic and asking a number of questions:

- What are the steps individuals pass through during their lives?

  The students may answer with many terms, and I have to focus on adolescence.

- Do you know what the term "adolescence" means?

- Can you define it?

- When does it start and when does it end?

  Then, I will explain the unfamiliar words.

II- Reading activities: I read the text loudly to the students to give them a model in order to avoid mistakes of pronunciation and make them get the general idea because the teacher reads and they listen. Next, I ask them to read the text silently and answer the following questions.

Activity 1:

1. Describe the adolescent's behaviour.

2. Identify the father's responses towards his son.

3. Restate the mother's role in this situation.

Activity 2:

I ask them to guess the meaning of a number of words from the context.

I ask them to give the opposite meaning of some other words

Activity 3:

1. Transform the verbs in the past simple –in the 2nd and 3rd paragraphs- to the present tense and then to the future.

2. Rewrite the last paragraph by changing the direct speech to the indirect one.

Activity 4:

I give them a disordered paragraph and I ask them to rewrite it correctly.

III- Follow up:

During your adolescence, you certainly had some problems. Can toy speak about an experience that happened during that period? You can do this work orally or in writing.

OOPS!
THE GIRL WHO BUMPED
INTO DI AND DIDN'T KNOW
By SYDNEY YOUNG

A GIRL almost collides with a shopper in a headscarf. She doesn't know it, but she has narrowly missed bumping into the Princes of Wales.

This girl wasn't the only one who failed to recognise Diana on a high street shopping expedition to Bath. Dozens of tourists passed the jean-clad Princess and even shop assistants didn't realise who they were serving. Diana bought some strawberry body shampoo and elderflower skin tonic at the Body Shop.

Afterwards assistant manageress Kathleen Whickham said: 'you will never believe this but no one recognised her. I could kick myself for missing her.' At the Bowes and Bowes bookshop which our photographer saw the Princess visit, a spokesman said: 'I didn't realise she had been here.'

Diana drove herself with a bodyguard to town from her country home at nearby High-grove in her red Ford Sierra, perhaps to look for a present to give Charles on their fourth wedding anniversary next week.

Material: Newspaper article. It needs to be **rewritten** in order to suit the learners' level:

Diana drove herself with a bodyguard to town from her country home at nearby High-grove in her red Ford Sierra, perhaps to look for a present to give Charles on their fourth wedding anniversary next week. Diana bought some strawberry body shampoo and elderflower skin tonic at the body shop

A girl almost collides with a shopper in a headscarf. She doesn't know it but she has narrowly missed bumping into the Princess of Wales. The girl was not the only one who failed to recognise Diana on a high street shopping expedition to Bath yesterday. Dozens of tourists passed the jean-clad princess and even shop assistants did not realise who they were serving. Afterwards, assistant manageress Kathleen Wickham said: 'You will never believe this but no one recognised her. I could kick myself for missing her.'

At the Bowes and Bowes bookshop which our photographer saw the princess visit a spokesman said: 'I didn't realise she had been here.'

Grade level: 2nd **Year, Secondary school**

Proficiency level: pre-intermediate/ intermediate levels

Topic/Function: Famous people/ Narrating

Notions: time and tenses + regular and irregular verbs.

Objectives: Learners will be able to narrate about famous people, i.e. they can write a-piece- short biography;

-they will be able to use sentences together in chronological order;

-they will be able to use new vocabulary in appropriate situations.

I-Pre-reading: A warming up activity to set background knowledge for the new information. The teacher asks a limited number of questions, the learners answer them orally:

-Have you ever met a famous person? Give the name and say what the person is famous for.

-What is your favourite actor/ singer/ sportsman or sportswoman? Why do you like him/her?

-What do you know of Princess Diana?

II-Reading Comprehension:

Aim: help learners grasp the meaning of new information.

Activity 1: read the text silently and try to fill in the table below.

What Princess Diana did	How she was dressed
-	-
-	-
-	-

Activity 2: re-read the text and extract expressions of attitude and feelings of people who did not recognise Princess Diana

  -A girl: ………………………………………..

  -Shop assistants: ………………………………..

  -Kathleen Wickham: …………………………………

  -A spokesman: ………………………………….

Activity 3: Say whether the following statements are true (T) or False (F) and correct the false ones.

 -All the people failed to see, recognise, or notice Princess Diana while she was shopping.

-Princess Diana went shopping alone in Bath.

-She bought two books from Bowes and Bowes bookshop.

-Perhaps, Princess Diana wanted to buy a present for her husband, Prince Charles.

-Princess Diana was a modest person.

III-Vocabulary:

Aim: guess the meaning of words from context or use a dictionary.

Activity 1: here is a list of words from the text, try to find their synonyms inside the text, on your own, or look them up in a dictionary.

 -narrowly: …………………..

 -collides: ……………………….

 - recognise: …………………..

 - tonic: ………………………….

 -kick myself: …………………..

 -wedding: …………………….

IV-Language Practice:

Aim: to help the learners understand and perform language aspects related to time and meaning.

Activity 1: read the text again and rewrite a sequence of 5 actions the princess did during her shopping day. Start at the moment Diana left her home.

 1. She left her ……………………………………………

 2. ………………………………………………………...

 3. …………………………………………………………

 4. …………………………………………………………

 5. …………………………………………………………

Activity 2: Fill in the table below with regular and irregular verbs used in the text and indicate the tense of each one.

Regular verbs	Their tenses	Irregular verbs	Their tenses
-	-	-	-
-	-	-	-
-	-	-	-
-	-	-	-

-	-	-	-

Activity 3: look at this example;

-They <u>did</u>n't <u>realise</u> who they <u>were serving</u>.

a- Identify each tense of the underlined verbs**,** and say how long was each action.

   -did realise: ………………………..

   -were serving: ………………………...

b- Give three examples in which you use two tenses together to express two actions.

 1. ………………………………………………………………………………
 2. ………………………………………………………………………………
 3. ………………………………………………………………………………

V-Language production:

Aim: learners will use language independently to express their own ideas.

Activity1: Work in pairs, choose a famous person (Princess Diana or any other one) and write a paragraph about his/her life.

Activity 2: Suppose you are a famous person who went shopping. Where did you go? What did you buy? How did you behave with people who recognised you? Did you sign some autographs? Write a paragraph in which you tell what happened.

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP ONE/ # 2

GROUP'S PLEA FOR VAN

A GROUP of unemployed youngsters who do odd jobs voluntarily for old people on Nottingham's Clinton Estate are appealing for help in getting a van to replace their old one.

Based at the Holy Trinity Church, Farnborough Road, Clifton, the group are aged between 16 and 20. They recently had to sell their old van for scrap and are hoping to find someone who will offer them a van to carry around their equipment.

Odd Jobs

The group have been doing gardening, decorating, and odd jobs for the elderly in the area for the past three years. It's the second time they have appealed for help for a new van. But church caretaker, Mr Bill Morley, who helps organise them, fears that the group may fold if another van cannot be found. "At least they have tried to help people but they can't seem to get any help themselves," he said.

Material: A newspaper article. It needs to be **rewritten** in order to suit learners' level:

A group of unemployed people –youngsters aged between 16 and 20- was established at the Holy Trinity Church, Farnborough road, Clifton. The group do odd jobs for old people in the area, and are asking for help in getting a van to replace their old one. They recently had to sell their old van and are hoping to find someone who will offer them a van to carry their equipment.

Odd Jobs

The group had been doing gardening, decorating, and other odd jobs for the elderly for the past two years. It's the second time they have appealed for help for a new van. Mr Bill Morley, church caretaker, helps organise them. But he fears the group may stop functioning if they don't find a new van. 'At least they have tried to help people, but they can't seem to get any help themselves', he said.

Grade level: 2nd / 3rd year at secondary school

Proficiency Level: pre-intermediate

Language function: narration about a social phenomenon

Teaching objectives:

-narrating about a social phenomenon;

-using direct and indirect speech appropriately.

Teaching Steps

I-Warming up: this is a pre-reading activity which exploits background knowledge

Activity 1: Answer the following questions (an oral activity):

1.How old are you?

2.have you ever practised any job?

3.Have you ever tried to help old people? How?

Activity 2: match each item in –A- with its definition in –b-

-A-	-B-
-elderly	-young people
-youngsters	-a covered vehicle to carry goods
-van	-additional
-odd	-ask for
-plea	-old people

Activity 3: Consider the explained words above; try to give a title to the text before reading it.

II-Reading Activities:

Activity 4: Read and complete the statements below.

1. The problem of the group is …………………………………………………….

2. They need a van for …………………………………………………………..

3. They work voluntarily …………………………………………………………..

4. They help others but …………………………………………………………

Activity 5: Put 'True' or 'False'

1. The group didn't have any van before.

2. The group gains money for their job.

3. The group are asking for a new van.

4. They have sold their old van.

5. It is the first time they ask for help.

6. No one answered their request till now.

Activity 6: Complete the following sentence:

 'Mr Bill Morley said that ……………………………………………………….

III-Follow up Activities:

Activity 7: following the pattern in 'Activity 5', work in pairs to create sentences in the direct speech and reconstruct them into the indirect speech and vice versa.

Activity 8: Restate the problem raised in the text in a different order using direct and indirect speech whenever appropriate.

 Activity 9: Fill in the gaps using the words below.

 (permission-orphans- want- pupils-ask-visit-read-toys)

   We are ……………… in Malek Haddad school. We …………….. to do something for …………………. Who live in a home near our school. We are planning to buy them some ………………, some clothes, and also help them to …………….. . We only ……………….. the schoolmaster to give us the ……………….. to make a collective ……………… to see these children.

IV-Production Activities:

Activity 10: Imagine a social problem. Write about it and suggest a solution to it.

Activity 11: Write a small article addressing the United Nations in which you explain to them the situation of Iraqi children after the war and appeal for help to these children.

Pakistan Awaits Bhutto Daughter, Tightens Security. Reuters

KARACHI- Pakistani authorities tightened security Wednesday in preparation for the expected return from exile of an opposition political figure, Benazir Bhutto, the police said.

The daughter of Zulfikar Ai Bhutto, the prime minister who was overthrown in 1977 and hanged in 1979 for alleged complicity in murder, is expected to fly here soon from France with the body of her young brother, Shahnawaz.

The brother, 27, was found dead last month in his Cannes apartment. He is to be buried in the family plot outside Larkana, two hundred miles (320 kms) north of Karachi, in Sind province.

"Benazir is returning to Pakistan in a few days," said a family spokesman. Another spokesman, in London, where she lives, said the return had been put off until Monday or Tuesday.

Benazir Bhutto has been living in Exile since military authorities freed her last year after 34 months in detention. Members of the Bhutto party expect her return to attract huge crowds. Security check points are said to have been set up around the airport.

Material: A Newspaper Article

Kind of text complexity: The use of long sentences, oppositions, and unfamiliar words. I simplify the text by using short sentences, omitting unnecessary information and applying familiar words:

<div align="center">

Pakistan awaits Bhutto daughter,

Tightens security

</div>

KARACHI- Pakistan authorities held security on Wednesday in preparation for the return of Benazir Bhutto, a political figure who was in exile. She is the daughter of Zulfikar Ali Bhutto, the prime minister who was overthrown in 1977 and hanged in 1979 because he was accused of murder.

A family spokesman said that Benazir was returning to Pakistan in a few days. Another one said the return had been delayed until Monday or Tuesday. Benazir Bhutto has been living in exile, in London, since military authorities freed her last year after 34 months in detention.

Members of Bhutto party expect her return to attract huge crowds. Thus, security check points are said to have been set around the airport.

Proficiency level: pre-intermediate

Grade level: 1st year at secondary school

Communicative purpose and Language function: Narration about the exile of a political figure from Pakistan 'Benazir Bhutto'.

Objectives: Learners will be able:

-Use necessary information and simple sentences

-Use the past tense to narrate about the life of persons

The presentation of the Lesson

I-Warming up:

Aim: to make learners understand what the topic is about, ask them questions about their background knowledge related to the topic.

Activity1: answer the following questions orally

1. Name some political figures you know around the world

2. Who is the political figure on this picture (of Benazir Bhutto)?

3. What do you know about her?

4. What do you know about Pakistan?

N.B: Pieces of information are supplied by the teacher where necessary. Learners are to complete the answers to the questions above in full sentences.

II-Reading comprehension:

Activity 1:

Aim: Make the learners simplify the text by themselves.

Instructions:

-Read the text to locate the beginning and the end of each sentence.

-Make long sentences shorter discarding the unnecessary words.

Activity 2:

Aim: make learners understand and the theme of the text and its sub-ideas

Instructions:

-What is the general idea of the text?

-Name three sub-ideas which seem to be important in the text.

Activity 3:

Aim: Make learners guess the meaning of difficult words.

Instructions:

-Underline all difficult words in the text.

-Work in pairs; try to guess the meaning of these words.

II-Post-Reading production:

Activity 1: Work in pairs;

-choose an Algerian political figure that had been in Exile and returned to Algeria.

-Write short sentences about his/her life.

-Develop these sentences into a paragraph.

Stranded – for life
From Sue Masterman . VIENNA

A real life Robinson Crusoe has been found and rescued by West Germany scientific expedition on a remote island in the South Pacific.

Dr Otto Sohne, leader of a botanical research group, could hardly believe his eyes when a bent and bowed white man staggered out of the jungle to greet them on the island's beach. He was even more astonished when the man began to speak English and claimed that he had been stranded for 74 years on the island without seeing a soul.

"We found him in the nick of time," said Dr Sohne who brought the man back to a hospital in Manila, in the Philippines. "He was so crippled by arthritis that he can hardly feed himself. He would have died soon of starvation."

But mystery still surrounds the rescued man, whose name is Jeremy Bibbs, aged 88.He says he was a 14-year-old ship's boy on the schooner *Feclicity* which sank during a hurricane in 1911. "I tied cork round my body so I would not sink", says Mr Bibbs. "I lost consciousness in the water and, when I came to, I found myself washed up on that damned island."

He eventually built himself a hut, found a supply of fresh water and lived on fish. Mr Bibbs waited for rescue but none came and the years rolled by. "It was not paradise," he said. "It was hell. I had nothing to read and no one to talk to."

> But, now that he has been rescued, Mr Bibbs is not so sure he can adapt to civilisation. "They should have left me to die on my island," he said.

Material: A newspaper article

Proficiency level: Pre-intermediate level.

Grade level: 3rd Year at Secondary School.

Language Function: a narrative text which seems also to be a biography of an 88 year-old man who was found on an island- like Robinson Crusoe.

Pedagogical goals: the learners will report what was said and know how and when to use the past tense.

Objectives:

-The learners will be able to use the simple past tense in a story;

-They will be able to report speech from direct to indirect and vice versa

I-The warming up activities:

In this activity, I ask the learners the following questions:

1. What are the means of transport used to travel on the sea?
2. If the learners say 'the boat, the ship', I ask them to imagine if suddenly they would find themselves alone on an island because of strong winds;
3. What would you do?
4. How would you live?
5. How would they feel if they stay a long time there and then come back home?

II- Reading activities:

Activity 1: Teacher reads aloud, learners listen.

Instructions:

-What is the main idea of the text?

-What happened to Jeremy Bibbs when he was a boy?

-How long did he stay on that island?

-How old is he now?

Activity 2: Learners read the text silently

Instructions:

-Read the text and underline all the difficult words and expressions

-Guess the meaning of these words from the text;

-Still some other words you can't understand! Look them up in a dictionary.

Activity 3: Paraphrasing the text.

-Instructions: Complete the following sentences to describe in your own words how Jeremy Bibbs survived alone on the island.

1. When he was a boy of 14…………………………….. .
2. The ship …………………………………………………..
3. When he woke up …………………………………………
4. He lived on …………………………………………………
5. He spent …………………………………………………….
6. There was nobody ………………………………………….

III-Language practice:

Activity 1: Tell what someone else said.

Instruction: read sentence 'a' and complete sentence 'b' in the examples below.

1. a- 'I can't believe my eyes' said Dr Sohne when he first saw Jeremy Bibbs.

   b-When he first saw Jeremy Bibbs, Dr Sohne said that ……………………………….

2. a- 'I have been stranded for 74 years' claimed Jeremy Bibbs.

   b- Jeremy Bibbs claimed that …………………………………….

3. a- 'I tied cork around my body' declared Mr Bibbs.

   b- Mr Bibbs declared that …………………………..

4. a- 'I usually live on fresh water and fish' explained Mr Bibbs.

   b- Mr Bibbs explained that ………………………………….

Activity 2: Say exactly what the person said.

Instruction: Again, read sentence 'a' and complete sentence 'b'

1.a- At hospital, Dr Sohne told the nurses that Mr Bibbs spoke English.

  b- '……………………………………..' Dr Sohne said at hospital

2.a- Doctors said that Mr Bibbs was crippled with arthritis.

  b- '……………………………………', doctors said

3. a- Mr Bibbs declared to journalists that he had had no one to talk to for 74 years.

  b- '………………………………………………….', declared Mr Bibbs.

4. a- Mr Bibbs mentioned that it had been hell of a life for him.

  b- '………………………………………', mentioned Mr Bibbs.

IV-Production activities:

Activity 1: Work in pairs; suppose you are a journalist and a survivor of an air crash.

-The journalist ask questions to a survivor about the plane crash, time and date of the flight, the weather, the cause of the crash, the victims, the survivors, the feelings and the help of the rescue team

-The survivor answers the questions orally (fictitious answers)

-Perform this short interview in front of the class.

Activity 2: Try to remember the information (questions and answers) from the interview.

-Write a composition in which you report what the survivor told the journalist.

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP ONE/ # 5

Best man is the groom!

  A BEST man turned up at a wedding yesterday- and found he was the groom.

Derry Davies was tricked by his fiancé who had secretly set up the ceremony and a reception.

  Bride Margaret Robertson enlisted the help of 20 friends including a couple who agreed to pretend thy ware getting married.

  Then, as they arrived at the register office in Wellington, Shropshire, she revealed it was their own big day.

  Margaret, 38, said she was getting her own back on Derry. She said: "he was always proposing to me in front of my friends and popping love notes into my lunch box at work. It made me really embarrassed. I decided to call his bluff."

  Derry, 40, of Ketley, Telford, said: "I was completely taken in."

Material: A newspaper article

Proficiency level: intermediate level.

Grade level: 3rd year at secondary school.

Language Function: narrating.

Grammatical notions: tense (the simple past) and phrasal verbs.

Objectives: learners will be able to narrate a past event using the simple past and some phrasal verbs.

Pedagogical goal: by introducing this material, the teacher wants to enrich the students' vocabulary.

I-Warming up activities:

Aim: to prepare the learners' background knowledge to be familiar with the new topic.

Exercise: I show the learners some pictures of a wedding party and give them a list of names. Then, I ask them to match each picture with its appropriate name.

-The bride;   **-**The groom;   -The best man

II-Reading Comprehension Activities:

Aim: to help learners grasp the meaning of the material

Exercise: Read the text and match each word from list 'A' with its equivalent in list 'B'

A	B
Best man	Newly married man
Bride	Newly married woman
Groom	Party
Ceremony	A man who supports a bridegroom at a wedding

Exercise 2: Reread the text again and focus on the main characters of this story and their relationship to fill in the table below.

Name	Age	Relationship

III-Language practice:

Aim: to introduce grammatical notions of the past tense and phrasal verbs.

Exercise 1: Read the text again and;

-underline verbs in simple past with a red pen and verbs in the past continuous with a blue one.

 -what is the difference in terms of time and duration of the actions?

Exercise 2: Read the text again and fill in the table with phrasal verbs and ordinary verbs

Phrasal verbs	Ordinary verbs
-	-
-	-
-	-
-	-
-	-
-	-

Exercise 3: Look at list 'A' of phrasal verbs and match the meaning of each one with an equivalent in list 'B'

A- Phrasal verbs	B-Equivalents
Turn up	Continue
Set up	Stop
Take in	Deceive
Go on	Organise
Give up	arrive

IV-Guided production:

Aim: to help learners express themselves under teacher's guidance.

Exercise 1: Read the sentences below, put the words between brackets in the correct tense, and then write a coherent paragraph.

1. You (be) very happy.

2. They (give) you presents.

3. you (call up) your friends last week

4. You (sing) together.

5. You (invite) them to celebrate your birthday.

6. Yesterday they (come) to the party.

V-Follow-up Activities:

Aim: to help learners express themselves freely in their own style.

Exercise 1: Imagine that Derry Davies did not accept the situation of being the groom. Write another end to this story.

Exercise 2: You attended a party to celebrate your friend's birthday. Write what happened during the party, what you did, and what the others were doing.

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP ONE/ # 6

Abandoned baby Coloured, say police
Johannesburg

Police said yesterday that they have determined that a month-old baby girl found in a field is coloured, but the Government has not yet formally classified the child's race.

The debate about the girl's race, given the name Lise Venter by Pretoria West Hospital staff, has focused attention on South Africa's race classification system. The race assigned to the girl, will determine who can adopt her, which schools she attends, and where she can live.

Maj-Gen. Lothar Neethling said: "For investigation purposes, the South African Police scientifically determined that the child was of mixed race." He said the decision was made based on a strand of the girl's hair. General Neethling added, however, that the police made the determination only as part of their investigation and search for the girl's parents. The responsibility for the official classification of the girl's race remains the responsibility of the Department of Internal Affairs. A

Material: A newspaper article (to be **rewritten** to suit learners' level)

A month-old baby was found two weeks ago by a passer-by in a field outside Pretoria. The baby was wrapped in a blanket, with her head in a paper bag. The baby remains at the Pretoria West Hospital.

The police of Johannesburg said that they had determined the baby was coloured, but the government had not yet formally classified the child's race. The race assigned to the girl will determine who can adopt her, which school she will attend, and where she can live.

General Lothar Neethling said: "for investigation purposes, the South African Police scientifically determined that the child was of a mixed race. This decision was based on a strand of the girl's hair." General Neethling added that the police made the determination of the child's race only as part of their investigation and search for the girl's parents. The official classification of the girl's race is the responsibility of the Department of Internal Affairs.

A spokesman of the Department said that the official classification of the girl's race would only occur after the police and other investigations were completed and if the parents were found. Newspapers reported that the police believed that the baby was abandoned because her parents feared prosecution under the Immorality Act which forbids sexual relations between blacks and whites in South Africa.

Proficiency level: intermediate

Grade level: 3rd year learners at secondary school

Language Function: Expository writing. The writer used the story of an abandoned baby to evoke a social debate about the illegal relations between blacks and whites.

Grammatical Notions: Reported speech, passive/active voice, and the use of past participle as adverb.

Objectives: The learners will be able to expose different kinds of social problems by arguing, agreeing and disagreeing, using both direct and indirect speech, passive and active voice.

Teacher's Goals: learners will be familiar with new vocabulary which they will understand either by themselves or by the help of the teacher.

Lesson Presentation

I-Warming up:

Aim: Introducing the text by asking some questions.

1. In your opinion what are the reasons that push parents to abandon their babies?

2. What is the future of those babies?

3. Who will look after them?

4. Sometimes we hear stories of abandoned babies at hospitals or somewhere else, and their parents are unknown. Have you ever heard stories of this kind?

5. Who are those parents?

6. In your opinion is it the parents' mistake or the society's mistake?

II-Reading Comprehension:

Activity 1: Read the text and extract all the expressions used to describe the way the baby was found.

- - -

- - -

Activity 2: read the text and find the appropriate definition of the following words (choose a, b, or c).

1. Abandoned baby: a-dead baby   b-new born baby   c-left by his parents

2. Wrapped: a-filled   b-covered   c-put

3. Coloured: a-mixed race   b- had a black colour   c-had a white colour

4. Prosecution: a-punishment by law   b- jail   -c-criminal charge

Activity 3: Read the statements and complete each one of them by choosing a,b,or c.

1-The parents abandoned the baby because:

a-They had no money to secure a good life for her.

b-They had a lot of children and didn't wan to have more.

c-The baby was illegal and the parents feared punishment from the government.

2-The race assigned to the girl:

a- will help in finding her parents.

b-will determine who will adopt her, which school she will attend, and where she

can live.

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III-Language Practice:

Aim: understand, link and write correct and meaningful sentences.

Activity 1: Read sentences in column A and link each one of them with a sentence from column B.

Column A	Column B
The police determined	That the police determined that the child was of mixed race
General Neethling said	That the child was of a mixed race
The police made the determination	The classification of the child's race would only occur After the parents were found
A spokesman said	As par of their investigation and sear for the girl's parents

Activity 2: Look at the following example:

a-A baby was found in a field outside Pretoria by a passer by. (Passive voice)

b-A passer by found a baby in field outside Pretoria. (Active voice)

   Reread the text the text again; find similar examples and transform them from passive to active voice or vice versa.

IV-Follow-up/ Production:

Aim: Free written expression

Activity 1: In your opinion, who is responsible of the situation of this baby girl, her parents or the South African authorities?

Write a paragraph expressing you ideas and arguments.

Activity 2: In our society there may a number of abandoned babies and children. Write a paragraph explaining the reasons of this social phenomenon and describing how these children are treated.

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP ONE/ # 7

Hero rescues girl under bus

By **Penny Hart**

GARAGE boss Eric Shurmer was startle by the sounds of a woman's screams, followed by shouts. Then came the pounding of feet as a man ran up the alleyway leading to his repair shop. "Quick, bring a jack, there's a girl trapped under a bus," the man yelled. Mr Shurmer grabbed a trolley jack –the largest in the garage- and pulling it behind him, ran out into the High Street at Chislehurst, Kent.

Horrified

Traffic had stopped. A crowd of shoppers gazed, horrified, at a stationary red double-decker bus. Lying beneath the 10-ton vehicle, her right hand pinned to the road by one big front tyre, was 17 year-old Joanne Sherry. She had stepped from the kerb, collided with the bus and became trapped underneath the front axle as she fell to the ground.

Mr Shurmer and a group of other men positioned the jack under the front of the bus. The jack was designed to lift only vehicles up to a maximum weight of two-and-a-half tons. But it was all they had and there was not a moment to lose.

Using all their strength, Mr Shurmer, 44, and print works employee Mr Alan Theobald pumped the handle and to their relief the double-decker tilted just far enough to lift the wheel from Joanne's badly crushed hand. But Mr Shurmer realised that to drag her clear he would have to crawl under the double-decker himself.

So while Mr Theobald hung on to the jack and the other men put their shoulders to the bus to steady it, he scrambled underneath. Her leg was hurt and from the awkward angle of her right arm it was clearly broken.

Suddenly there was an ominous groan from the jack. The strain of holding up the 10-ton weight was beginning to tell. The jack wheels were gradually sinking into the tarmac and Mr Shurmer's head was already brushing the bottom of the bus. And when he tried gently to move Joanne, he realised to his horror that her skirt was caught under the axle.

Working as fast as he could, he managed to free the skirt while above him the double-decker dropped lower and lower. Then, with the jack still creaking, he eased her clear of the bus and ambulance men rushed her to hospital.

When Mr Shurmer edged himself out and removed the jack, he found it had left a hole nearly two inches deep in the road. Joanne, who lives in Sicup, Kent, with her widowed father and her brother, is now recovering in hospital.

THE SUNDAY EXPRESS August 4 1985

Lesson Planning

Material: A newspaper article

Proficiency level: pre-intermediate

Grade level: 3rd year at secondary school (terminal classes)

Language function: Narrating

Objectives: At the end of the study, learners will be able:

-to tell a story starting from different points;

-to transform from direct to indirect speech, or vice versa;

-to write a story about personal experience using techniques and devices of writing: order, tense, complex structures, etc…

Goals: the teacher aims:

-to make learners familiar with some vocabulary;

-to practice language structures orally;

-to discover the order governing the story: to practice the use of first, then, after, etc…

Lesson presentation

II-Warming up activities:

First we need to introduce the topic by asking the following questions:

1. Have you ever tried to, or helped, someone who is in need of help?

    The answers may be various and general. So to narrow down the topic, we may ask;

2. Have you ever seen a terrific accident?

3. Have you contributed to help rescuing the wounded, or the dead?

4. How and who contributed to the rescuing?

III-Reading Activities:

1-Teacher Reads Aloud:

Here, first the teacher reads aloud the newspaper article with appropriate speed and introduces a few new vocabulary items (double-decker, tyre, jack, creak)

2-Silent reading:

Learners read the text silently and perform the following activities.

Activity 1: Retell the story in your own words starting from different points:

Aim: to recall basic events of the incident

1. 'Traffic has stopped at a station, …….

2. 'Joanne is now recovering at the hospital, …..

3. 'A girl stepped from the kerb, collided with the bus, ……

Activity 2: Look at the drawings and describe each one of them appropriately

Aim: the teacher provides drawing representing elements of the story and learners practice describing 'what happened, was happening' in appropriate expressions. Drawings are about:

  - A double-decker; -The girl under the bus.

  - The road, the traffic, and the crowd.

  - The girl's right hand under the tyre.

  - Mr Shurmer holding the jack

  - A girl lying on a bed in hospital.

  - Mr Shurmer pulling the girl from under the bus.

Activity 3: Read the following statements and reorder them to get a complete story.

-Joanne is now recovering in hospital.

-She had stepped from a kerb, collided with a bus and became trapped underneath the front axle as she fell to the ground.

-Mr Shurmer was in his garage when he heard a woman screaming.

-Lying beneath the 10 ton vehicle was the 17-year old Joanne Sherry.

'Quick, bring a jack, there is a girl trapped under a bus' an old man yelled.

-Using all their strength, Mr Shurmer and Mr Alan Theobald could lift the double-decker's tyre from Joannes's crushed hand.

IV-Mastery of Language:

Aim: make learners master some structures which are very useful in telling and writing a story because they help in bringing meaning clear, concise, and avoiding repetition.

Activity 1: Consider these examples

-Lying beneath the 10 ton vehicle was the 17-year old Joanne Sherry.

-Using all their strength, Mr Shurmer and Mr Theobald pumped the handle.

They can be rewritten this way:

-Joanne was 17 years old. She was lying beneath the 10-ton vehicle.

-Mr Shurmer and Mr Theobald pumped the handle. They used all their strength.

 Rewrite the following examples in one sentence.

-The bus driver had drunk a lot. He could not see Joanne crossing the street.

-Mr Shurmer has saved a lot of money. He could buy a new jack.

-Joanne Sherry went back home. She wrote a letter to Mr Shurmer.

-Joanne's parents heard about the accident. They rushed to hospital to see their daughter.

-Joanne stepped down the kerb. She fell under the bus.

Now, work in pairs, choose four examples and rewrite them.

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Activity 2: Consider this example

-'Quick, bring a jack; there is a girl under a bus', the man yelled.

-The man ordered to be quick and to bring a jack;

-He added that there was a girl under the bus.

   In this transformation, we notice that we use 'ordered' and 'added'. The former is used to report an order, while the latter is used to report declarative information.

   We also notice a change in 'tense', from the present to the past tense.

Read the examples and make transformations.

-The teacher ordered us to keep quiet

-The president declared: 'we have to go into war'

Now, work in pairs, imagine three expressions said by Joanne, the doctor at hospital, and her parents, and then transform them.

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V-Production and Evaluation:

Guided Writing:

   Suppose you witnessed a fire in a neighbour's flat, and helped in extinguishing the fire. Use these words and expressions to write about the incident.

-firemen -smokes -fire-extinguishers   -flames -burning

Free Writing:

   If ever you have seen an accident or incident, try o remember what really happened tell it your friend and then write it in a paragraph.

£62,000 for lost music

A BOY, who will never be able to enjoy music because of damage to his hearing at birth, was awarded £62,000 agreed damages in the High Court yesterday.

Ian Sadler, four, will have to go to a school for the deaf and will always wear two hearing aids. The award was against Kent Area Health Authority administrators of the William Harvey Hospital, Ashford, where Ian was born. They denied liability.

Ian's parents, secondary school teacher MR Paul Sadler and his wife, Lorna, of St Mar's Bay, Romney Marsh, Kent, were awarded £13,000 for expenses incurred so far. Mr Sadler said the hospital did not take steps to deal with a rare blood condition from which his wife suffered. He claimed that, at the moment of birth, Ian's blood should have been changed.

Asking Mr Justice Macpherson to approve the settlement worked out between layers, Mr Michael Kalisher, counsel for Ian said: "He is an intelligent boy but will always have difficulty in groups of people. He will be taught to lip-read."

Mr Kalisher said: "he will be able to hear TV and the phone, but he will never enjoy music to the full because of the limitation in hearing high frequencies. He will be able to drive but will be unable to hear danger approach. Apart from this, he should be able to lead a relatively normal life." The judge said he felt uneasy about the amount agreed but thought it was 'all right'.

Material: A newspaper article which deals with a social aspect and materialistic value. It evokes a social debate.

Proficiency level: Intermediate

Grade level: 3rd year at secondary school.

Language Function: narrating

Objectives and pedagogical goals:

-The pupils will be able to narrate past events using appropriate tenses;

-The learners will be able to use passive and active forms, direct and indirect speech in reporting;

-the learners will be able to use the right order of events;

-they will also learn and use new vocabulary concerning a particular category of people.

I-Warming up Activities:

Since the text is about the 'handicap' of "deafness", I will try to make the learners ready to read and understand the text by introducing a similar handicap; that of blindness for example. I will ask the learners;

1. "What difficulties do blind, deaf, or mute people face?" The purpose of the question is to enable the learners to recall previous knowledge about disabled people difficulties and to be ready to acquire the new knowledge. So, further questions can be asked:

2. "What are the five senses?

3. What are the organs that are responsible of our senses?"

A learner is invited to stand near the blackboard and show –with gestures- the organs and the five senses. I will then ask them to recall someone they know who suffers from a handicap and explain how s/he behaves in society.

II- Before reading:

The aim of the activity is to prepare the learners to anticipate what the text is about and help them guess the meaning of some unfamiliar words.

Activity 1: Explain the following words.

  - deaf   - award   -court   -expenses

Activity 2: use these words to fill in the blanks in the following sentences

1. Building a house is a project that needs a lot of ………..
2. As she was ………., she could not hear the baby crying.
3. The criminal was taken to the ……… to be judged.
4. The insurance company refused …………….. because the driver was drunk.
5. Nadjib Mahfoud received an ………..: it was the noble prize in literature.

III- Reading activities:

The learners are asked to read the text silently to get the main ideas, details, and the relationship between the different parts of information.

Activity 3: Read the text and answer orally the following questions:

1. What was Ian Sadler suffering from?
2. Why did the court award him £ 62,000?
3. What will he be deprived of in the future?

Activity 4: re-read the text and complete the sentences in the table below

Ian Sadler	His mother	The hospital	The court
Ian Sadler was born in ……………….. He had problems of …………………. He will hear ……….. but will not ……….	His mother suffered from ……………. …………………. She spent a lot of…… …………………….	The hospital should have changed ……. ………………….. The hospital did not …………………..	The court awarded Ian ……………for damage. It also awarded his ……. ……………..for expenses.

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Activity 5: Say whether the statements below about Ian Sadler are True or False

1. Ian Saddler was born deaf.
2. The hospital damaged his hearing at birth.
3. His parents did not spend any money to cure him.
4. The court declared that the hospital was not responsible.
5. Ian will be able to hear music but not the cars on the road.

Activity 6: read the text again and match the words with the corresponding explanations in the table below.

Words	Explanations
1. Damage	A. refused to admit.
2. Hearing aids	B. brought upon oneself.
3. Denied	C. responsibility according to the law.
4. Liability	D. harm or injury that causes loss of value
5. Incurred	E. Special apparatus which helps deaf people to hear.

IV- Language practice:

The aim of these activities is to make the learners discover and practice the language forms used by the author.

Activity 7: Look at the first example from the text and then do the same thing for the other examples:

1. A boy was awarded £ 62,000. The court awarded the boy £ 62,000.

2. His parents were awarded £13,000. ………………………………………….

3. Ian's blood should have been changed. Doctors ………………………………

4. He will be taught to lip-read. A teacher ……………………………………….

Activity 8: Look at the first example from the text and then do the same thing for the other examples.

1. Mr. Kalisher said: "He is an intelligent boy but will always have difficulties in

groups".

-Mr Kalisher said that Ian was an intelligent boy but would always have difficulties in

groups.

2. Mr. Kalisher added: "He will be taught to lip-read".

…………………………………………………………………………………..

3. Mr. kalisher said: "He will be able to hear TV and the telephone".

………………………………………………………………………

4. The judge said he felt uneasy about the amount agreed.

The judge said: "I ……………………………………..'

V- Production activities:

Learners will use what they learnt and their knowledge of the world to write short paragraphs about famous disabled people.

Activity one: Guided writing.

Do you know about the American woman writer Helen Keller? Here are some ideas about her life; arrange them and use them to write a paragraph.

-She could also learn more than three languages.

-Afterwards, she lost her sight and became blind.

-Helen Keller was born in America.

-Despite her disabilities, she learnt the deaf and mute language.

-At the beginning of her illness, she lost her hearing.

-At childhood she was seriously ill.

- Helen used her other senses and became a famous writer.

Activity 2:

   1. You certainly know Taha Hussein: the famous Egyptian writer! Recall events of his life and write a paragraph about him.

   2. Do you know about the problems of a particular disabled person? Describe his/her handicap and the way s/he struggled to overcome those problems.

Postman spent five days in car boot

A POSTMAN who survived for five days after he was trapped in his car boot was rescued yesterday by police. Mr Jeffrey Pottle, aged 26, was released by a policeman whose routine patrol took him by the car parked in a lay-by in Waltham Forest. "It appears that Mr Pottle climbed into the boot last Wednesday, closed the lid, and couldn't get out," a policeman said. "We have no idea why he climbed in".

Mr Pottle, of Bramley Close, Waltham, east London, was weak and unable to walk. He was taken to St Margaret's Hospital, Epping. While he was trapped, the car was broken into and a coat was stolen, the police said. Thousands of people are thought to have passed the car in the Wake Road, a popular spot for visitors to the forest. Mr Pottle's absence from work was noticed but nobody thought to organise a search for him.

The materials: this text is a short newspaper article relating the misadventure of a postman. We need the picture of a car that shows its different parts as an illustration for the learners.

The main elements of information:

-A postman spent five days in his car boot;

-Nobody tried to organise a search for him;

-A policeman was walking during a routine patrol;

-The policeman noticed something strange and saved the postman.

-The different parts of a car.

The general function: The text narrates a past event: The misadventure of a postman.

The language notions:

-The notion of time: the past tense (opened, got, entered, etc…)

-Direct and reported speech.

-Passive and active voice.

Proficiency and grade level: pre-intermediate learners of 1ère AS.

The objective:

Learners will be able to narrate a story and provide facts in a chronological order.

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Lesson plan and presentation

</div>

1. Warming up:

This activity introduces the learners to the topic of the newspaper article through some questions which refer to their background knowledge.

1. Do you know what the job of a postman is?
2. What does he do everyday? OR
3. Have you ever heard of someone who has been missing for some time?
4. Did s/he come back home?
5. What happened to him/her?
6. Did family and friends look for him/her?

II-Reading comprehension activities:

Learners read the text silently to get the main ideas and supporting details.

Activity 1: Read the text silently and answer the following questions.

1. How many days did Mr.Pottle spend in his car boot?
2. Did any body look for him?
3. Who rescued him?
4. Why was he taken to hospital?
5. What happened to his car?

Activity 2: Look at the picture of the car below and put each one of the following names next to it corresponding part.

<div align="center">

INSERT A BIG PICTURE SHOWING THE PARTS OF A CAR

Names: wheel, steering wheel, door, boot, lid, headlights,

</div>

Activity 3: Read the text again and complete the sentences with **a, b,** or **c**.

1. Mr.Pottle was trapped in his car boot because:

    a-he was looking for his cat

    b-the lid was closed and he could not open it

    c-the policeman closed the car boot

2. The policeman rescued Mr.Pottle when:

    a-he was looking for him

    b-he was looking for his cat

    c-he was just patrolling in the park

3. During these five days, someone:

    a-went into the car and stole a coat.

    b-broke the windows of the car

    c-stole the car.

4. Mr. Pottle was weak and unable to walk because:

    a-he did not eat or drink anything during five days.

    b-the policeman hit him with the lid

    c-nobody thought of looking for him?

5. Thousands of people usually go there to:

    a-look for missing people

    b-visit the forest

    c-steal cars.

III- Language practice activities:

Activity 1: Re-read the text again and underline all the verbs used in the past tense.

Write them in the table below and find their infinitive form.

Verbs in the past	Their infinitive
eg. survived 1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6.	To survive

7. 8.	

Activity 2: Look at this example. "Mr. Pottle was rescued by a policeman". We can also say: A policeman rescued Mr. Pottle.

Read these examples and do the same.

1. Mr. Pottle was taken to hospital by the ambulance driver.

……………………………………………………..

2. The car was broken into by someone.

………………………………………………….

3. A coat was stolen by a thief.

…………………………………………………..

4. Mr. Pottle's absence from work was noticed by his colleagues.

…………………………………………………………..

5. A search was organised for him by his family.

…………………………………………………..

Activity 3: Read this example and do the same for statements below.

Example: 'I heard a noise coming from the car boot', the policeman said.

The policeman said that he had heard a noise coming from the car boot.

1. "It appears that Mr Pottle climbed in the car boot last Wednesday', the policeman   declared.

2. "He closed the lid and could not get out", the policeman added.

3. The policeman declared: "We have no idea why he climbed in".

IV- production and outcome:

Activity 1: Tell and write a story

Imagine a situation where someone is lost (in a foreign city) or trapped (in a lift or in the toilets) and could not find his/her way out. Write a paragraph about him/her using your own words and order of events.

Activity 2: Missing messages

Imagine you are organising a search for someone (a child or an old person) who has been missing.

Write a paragraph providing the required information. Indicate the following:

-His/her name, age, and address

-His/her physical appearance, clothing, etc…

-When and where he was last seen.

-why and what for he/she went out.

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP ONE/ # 10

'The chilly truths about holiday fun'

I had another one of those holiday postcards this morning. You know the style: "weather wonderful, villa superb, children loving every minute, sea warm, marvellous flight, don't want to come home…" Why do people tell such lies when they are on holiday? Most of my friends do –and as soon as they arrive home they tell me the ghastly truth: the children were car sick, jellyfish stopped anyone from going swimming, the plane was delayed for four hours in searing heat, and the French pillows were unbearable.

ORDEAL

How often my girlfriends gasp with relief when the ordeal is over. One confined she needed another week at home to recover from blistering sunburn, mosquito bites and lingering Spanish tummy. Children under 12 are usually thankful to get back to baked beans and hamburgers instead of picking ungratefully at some expensive Mediterranean dish their parents thought would be a treat.

Do we fib in postcards because holidays usually cost so much and are meant to be enjoyed that if they turn out to be a disaster we hardly like to admit it? After all everyone else tells us what a wonderful time they had.

I was a teenager when I first rumbled that postcards are not all believable. A school-friend's card from the South Coast was particularly eulogistic about the weather. But the details of sunbathing

didn't match the TV weather reports which confirmed heavy cloud and high winds. And she came home without the slightest hint of a sun-tan.

Another card from a couple had superlatives in every sentence. Much later I heard how the rented car, complete with suitcases, had been towed away by police and cost a small fortune to recover. We may like to think only of the highlights of a holiday, but if the truth comes out when we come home wouldn't it be more sensible to save the price of a stamp.

SALLY STAPLES. In *THE SUN* July 1985

The material is a reader's letter to the newspaper.

The level: pre-intermediate, 2ⁿᵈ year.

The functions: the writer reports and describes events about holiday postcards, criticizes holidays and advises people.

The notions: time, quality and quantity (tenses and adjectives)

The objectives: learners are expected to be able to describe and criticize a subject or an event**.**

Lesson plan and presentation

I- Warming up:

The teacher asks some questions and learners try to answer according to their background knowledge.

1. Where did you spend your last summer holidays?
2. Did you enjoy your holidays?
3. What specific good or bad things happened during these holidays?
4. Did you tell your friends about them? How?

II- Listening Comprehension:

This is a pre-reading activity where the learners listen to the teacher reading aloud the text and answer the questions.

Activity 1: Listen to this text and answer the questions

1. Are the postcards believable?
2. What is a nice holiday?
3. What is a bad holiday?

III- Reading comprehension:

Learners read the text in order to focus on detailed information by completing tables and matching items

Activity 2: Read the text silently and complete the table below. Indicate good and bad qualities of holidays, each in the corresponding column.

Qualities	Good	Bad
1. Journey	…………………………….	……………………………..
2. Weather	…………………………….	………………………………
3. Food	…………………………….	………………………………
4. Money	…………………………….	………………………………
5. Sea and beach	……………………………	……………………………..
6. Other qualities:	……………………………	………………………………
hotel, etc...	…………………………..	………………………………

Activity 3: Re-read the text again answer the following questions.

1. What did the writer receive?
2. What did her friends tell her about their holidays?
3. Why does she no longer believe what her friends say about their holidays?
4. Are the children under 12 usually satisfied of their holidays? Why?
5. According to the writer, why do people tell lies about their holidays?
6. What does she advise them to do?

Activity 4: Look at the table below and match words with their meaning**.**

Words	Meaning
1.gasp	1.little lie
2.tummy	2.horrible
3.ordeal	3.a sea animal that sticks
4.towed	4.brieth in and out of relief
5.ghastly	5.judgement, test
6.jellyfish	6.pulled along with a rope

7.fib	7.stomach

Activity 5: Are there other words you still do not understand? Underline them, use a dictionary and work in pairs to discuss them and find their meaning with your friend.

IV- Language practice:

Activity 1: make adjectives by adding 'able, ible, ful' and use them in sentences.

Example: to bear. 'The French pillows were unbearable'

Use the following words: help, notice, believe, beauty, verify, wonder.

Activity2: Read the text below and fill in the blanks with verbs according to the required tense. Holiday postcards almost always give us a false idea about them. They usually ……….. us that the weather……. wonderful, the villa …….. superb and that the children ………… every minute they ……. at the beach. Lat year a friend told me the truth. She admitted that the plane ……………… for six hours, the children …… car sick all the way, the French pillows ………………….. , and jellyfish ……………..... them from swimming.

Activity 3: ask a question and answer it giving your own opinion.

Example: 'Why do people tell such lies when they are on holidays? Most of my friends do and as soon as they arrive home they tell me the ghastly truth………….'

Try to do the same with the following questions.

1. Why do people fast in Ramadhan and eat too much in the evening? ……… ………. …………
……….. ……….. ……… …………………. …………. …………….. …….

2. Why do children perform badly at school and tell their parents they are doing very well?
……………….. …………………. ……………… …………. ………….. …… …………………
……………. …………… …………. …………… ………………….

3. Do we often dream at night and try to interpret our dreams in the morning? …………
……………. …………… ……………. ………………. ………………. ………………
……………. …………………….. ………………….. ………………. ………………..

4. Why do wedding parties and ceremonies often turn into a mess in our society? ……
………………. ……………….. …………………. …………….. …………. …………
…………………… ……………. …………………… …………… ………. ……………

V- Production:

   Work in pairs. Choose one of the following topics suggested in the previous exercise. Discuss your answer with your friend and write a paragraph about it.

APPENDIX – VI: Experimental group two/ # 1

It may have caused rider to lose control

A BIRD flying into the face of a young motorcyclist could have caused him to lose control of his machine, a Nottingham inquest was told.

   Motorcyclist Philip Whitfield, 19, of Forest Road, Worksop, died after his bike, for no apparent reason, went off control, skidded 90ft along the road, mounting a kerb before ploughing through a hedge at Warsop vale. He was dead on arrival at Mansfield General Hospital. His pillion passenger, Miss Joy Gibbons, 19, Of West Street, Warsop, is still in hospital recovering from multiple injuries after being thrown against a concrete lamppost and can recall nothing of the accident.

   Pc Hewett told the inquest: "It is possible a bird flew into Mr Whitfield's face causing him to flinch or lose control." He said he could see no other reason for the accident on May 29 as road and

weather conditions were very good. The bird's carcass was found lying in the road near to the scene of the accident.

Deputy Coroner, Mr Peter Jenkin-Jones, said there was nothing in any way suggested that Mr Whitfield's driving was at fault. And although there was no direct evidence as to why the accident occurred, the bird provided a perfectly satisfactory explanation as to how the accident might have happened. He recorded a verdict of accidental death.

Basic Assumptions:

· **Text Type:** newspaper article (authentic text)

· **Theme:** Road accidents

· **Proficiency Level:** intermediate

· **Grade Level:** first-year university class

· **Estimated time:** 90 minutes

· **General Objectives:**

-To make students familiar with narration in journalistic style.

-To discuss the theme of road accidents.

-To enable students express probability in the past (both orally and in writing) in different contexts, using appropriate language.

-To enable students speculate about causes of different events.

Text Analysis:

1. **Functions:** narrating /reporting, speculating causes, expressing probability in the past.

2. **Notions and language items:**

• **Time:** simple past, indirect speech could have +past participle, time markers, etc.

• **Place:** names of places, prepositions, etc.

3. **Text framework:**

• **identity of characters:**

Philip Whitfield	Miss Joy Gibbons	Other characters
-motorcyclist	- his pillion passenger	- Pc Hewett: a witness

-19 years old	-19 years old	- Peter Jenkin Jones
-from Forest Road, Workton	-from West Street	

Events:

-the bike went out of control.
-It skidded 90 feet along the road.
-It mounted a kerb.
-It ploughed through a hedge.
-The motorcyclist died at arrival
  at Mensfield General Hospital.
	–Miss Joy was thrown against a
	  concrete lamppost.
	  –She cannot recall the accident.
	  –The bird's carcass was found lying on
	  the road near the accident's scene.

Possible causes of the accident:

-Unlikely causes: weather, road, driving

-The presumed cause: the bird

III- Lesson Rationale:

1. Warm-up :

Aim: to introduce the theme of the text and make students anticipate its content.

Students answer orally the following question:

-What are the possible causes of road accidents that do you know?

2. Reading Comprehension:

• **Pre-reading:**

Activity 1: After writing the title of the text on the blackboard, the teacher asks the students to guess what it might refer to.

Aim: to arouse students' curiosity by encouraging them to make *predictions* about the text.

• **During Reading:**

Activity 2: Read the text silently and identify what *it* refers to in the text. Was your guess confirmed or not?

Aim: to *skim* the text for general understanding, and to revise students' hypotheses, which were made before reading by *scanning*.

Activity 3: Read and complete the following table:

Who	What	Where	When	Why
Motorcyclist				
Miss Joy				

Aim: -to *scan* the text for specific information.

-to *reconstruct* the text into a comprehensible and simplified form.

Activity 4: Choose the right definition of the following words using context clues:

1/ feet:

a- the lowest parts of human legs.

b- a measure of length that equals 12 inches (30.48 cm).

c- a unit of rhythm in poetry.

2/ pillion:

a- the seat of the passenger behind the driver or motorcyclist.

b- walking.

c-   companion.

3/ to flinch:

a- to lose control.

b- to change the direction.

c- to make a sudden automatic movement.

Aim: -To help students guess meaning of important unfamiliar words from context.

*Post- reading:

Activity 5: Decide whether these statements are true, false or not mentioned:

1- The motorcyclist crashed against a wall.

2- Miss Joy Gibbons was crossing the street when the motorcyclist hit her.

3- She is Philip's friend.

4- Both the motorcyclist and Miss Gibbons died in the accident.

5- Road and weather conditions were contributing factors in the accident.

6- The motorcyclist was drunk while he was riding.

7- He was riding with exceeding speed.

8- The bird's dead body was a strong evidence that the real cause of the accident was the bird.

Aim: To check students' understanding of the text and to provide feedback for possible misunderstandings.

3- Follow-up: Language Practice: Expressing probability in the past

 Activity 1: Answer orally the following questions:

1) Was the Nottingham inquest told about the real cause of the accident?

2) What is the most probable cause?

3) Can you find other possible causes?

Aim: To introduce the function of probability in meaningful context.

Activity 2:

- Extract all the sentences that present the possible causes of the accident.

- Underline the verbs of theses sentences.

- Try to deduce the verb form used (could have + past participle).

Aim: to help the learners infer the grammatical rule from concrete examples.

Activity 3: Speculate about the possible causes of the accident using the following list of words:

A dog- a flock of sheep- a sudden vertigo- a moment of daydreaming. (write complete sentences and perform a dialogue asking and answering about the cause each time).

Aim: -To practice the language forms presented.

4. **Production:**

*Guided writing:

Activity 1: Choose one of the causes provided above to write a short narrative where you retell the story using your own words.

Aim: to help students acquire relevant vocabulary and forms to narrate a   and express probability in the past.

*Free Writing:

Activity 2: What animals could cause road accidents in your country? Express your attitude about this.

Aim: To react to the text using students' experiences.

Activity 3: **This activity has 3 steps:**

a- Divide the class into groups of five .

b- Choose one of the following events and speculate about their causes.

c- Write a paragraph in which you gather your speculations, using appropriate language forms:

-Your friend was absent in the day of your BAC exam.

-An apparently strong young man lost consciousness in the bus.

-A groom missed his wedding day.

-A patient died after a successful surgery.

-A family were looking for their son who disappeared for no apparent reason.

Aim: To express probability in different contexts.

Experimental group two/ # 2

Postman spent five days in car boot

A POSTMAN who survived for five days after he was trapped in his car boot was rescued yesterday by police.

Mr Jeffrey Pottle, aged 26, was released by a policeman whose routine patrol took him by the car parked in a lay-by in Waltham Forest. "It appears that Mr Pottle climbed into the boot last Wednesday, closed the lid, and couldn't get out," a policeman said. "We have no idea why he climbed in".

Mr Pottle, of Bramley Close, Waltham, east London, was weak and unable to walk. He was taken to St Margaret's Hospital, Epping.

While he was trapped, the car was broken into and a coat was stolen, the police said.

Thousands of people are thought to have passed the car in the Wake Road, a popular spot for visitors to the forest. Mr Pottle's absence from work was noticed but nobody thought to organise a search for him.

- Nature of the text (material): newspaper article.

- Purpose of the article: to inform / news item (faits divers)

- Function: narrating / reporting an event
- Type of context: -misadventure –Individualism and loneliness in modern societies.

- Notions : time, duration, place (location), cause/effect.

- Grade level : 1st year university students/ LMD students
- Proficiency level: intermediate

Objectives:

Intermediate objective: at the end of the unit, the learner will be able to read a story and report it to a friend in the most accurate way.

Immediate objective: After reading a newspaper article, the learner will be able to narrate the story following its chronological order.

The scenario:

Name: Mr Jeffrey Pottle
Age: 26 years old
Job: Postman
Nationality: British
Address: Bramley Close Walthamstow, East London
Health: He was weak and unable to walk

The events:

-Climbed into his car boot on Wednesday (the car was parked in Waltham forest)
-Couldn't get out/ remained five days in the boot
-The car was broken into and a coat was stolen
-The car didn't arouse curiosity of thousands of passers-by
-Mr Pottle was released by a policeman
-He was weak and unable to walk
-He was taken (transferred) to St Margaret's hospital
-Mr Pottle's absence was noticed by his colleagues but no one did organize a   search for him

The Reading Lesson Plan (Some Reading Activities)

I-Pre-reading: priming questions

II-During reading: *Meaning manipulation (comprehension)

                     *Language manipulation: 1-vocabulary study 2- Grammar

III-Post-reading: Production

1-Pre-reading: Priming questions

   "A man, who looking for something in his car boot climbed in it. Suddenly, the boot's lid closed and he was imprisoned." **What will happen to this man?**

-The teacher raises a class discussion asking the students to predict the results of this situation.

Aim: To stimulate a class discussion so that the learners are oriented to the topic of the text.

2-Reading: The teacher then asks the learners to read the text silently.

I- Comprehension:

Activity 1: Fill in this table

Name	Age	Job	Nationality	Address

-The learners have to scan the text looking for the information that will help them complete the table.

Aim: to enable the learners to locate specific information in the text after their first reading.

Activity 2: Complete the following sentences using a,b, or c.-

1-Mr Jeffrey Pottle's car was parked   ………….

a-near the post office b-near the Waltham forest   c-near St Margaret's hospital

2-Mr Pottle spent ………… in his car boot.

a- five days   b-yesterday   c-26 days

3-Mr Pottle got ill because …………….

a-he spent the whole day working at St Margaret's hospital

b-his car was stolen when he was sleeping in the boot

c-he was imprisoned in his car for a long time

-The teacher asks the learners to re-read the text and complete the sentences, deciding which of the proposed alternatives (a,b,c) best reflects the meaning or ideas of the text.

Aim: the aim of this activity is to check whether the learners have understood specific information (details) in the text.

Activity 3: Say whether the following statements are True or false. For False statements, give the correct answer.

a-Mr Pottle was kidnapped and trapped in his car boot.

b-he was released by a postman.

c-He was taken to the hospital because of his serious sickness.

d-The police discovered Mr Pottle in his car boot by accident.

-Without referring back to the text, the learners answer these questions

Aim: The teacher checks two aspects:

1-The learners' understanding of the main points of the story.

2-The learners' capacity to identify misleading information and correct it according to the text

Activity 4: Match the words or expressions that appear on the left with their appropriate definition on the right.

1-trapped   a-to let someone go free

2-routine   b-space next to a road where vehicles can stop

3-patrol   c-something usually done as part of the normal

                                                  process of working

4-broken into   d-to be in a place from which we can escape

5-layby   e-to force entry (into)

6-released   f-the act of going around different parts of an area at

                                                  regular times to check that there is no trouble

-This activity requires from the learners to find the meaning of the unfamiliar words they have encountered in the text at hand. The latter are key words necessary for the understanding of the main events of the story.

Aim: This activity is designed to enable the learners to deepen their understanding of the text. The learners' task is facilitated because the definitions given reflect the meaning of the words as they are used in the text.

Activity 5: Complete the missing blanks without referring back to the text.

"This is the story of a man who was …………. In his car boot for five days. His colleagues noticed his absence because he didn't go to work but nobody thought to organise a search for him. Until that day where a policeman …………… near Waltham forest discovered the car parked in the ……….. Thanks to this policeman, Mr Pottle was …………… and taken to the hospital because he was seriously ill.

Aim: to help the learners rehearse the new acquired vocabulary.

Follow up: The teacher asks the learners to construct their own sentences using the new vocabulary

Aim of the comprehension activities:

Rehearsing the comprehension of the students moving from the general to the particular; from identification of the most obvious information to the less evident one. The teacher proposed graded activities moving from simply identifying information to judging the truthfulness or falsity of given statements.

II. Language manipulation

Grammar review: Passive voice/ Active voice

Activity 1: Fill in the table

What was done?	By whom?
Mr Pottle was rescued yesterday	………………
The car was broken into	……………….

-The teacher asks the learners to identify by whom all these actions were done. They will write down an agent suitable to each sentence.

-For more practice ask the learners to extract other passive forms from the text, and then reconstruct the active forms of these sentences.

As a production activity, learners construct their own examples either in active or passive forms and then turn them into passive or active.

Aim: Rehearsal of an already acquired knowledge. The teacher checks if the learners have internalized the mechanics of passive/active voices.

-The teacher may also develop grammar practice activities dealing with: direct/indirect speech.

Direct speech / indirect speech:

Activity 2: Complete the second sentence so that it means the same as the first one given.

a- Mr Pottle said: "I closed the boot's lid by accident."

 - Mr Pottle said that …………………………………….

b-The policeman said: "I was making my routine patrol when I discovered Mr Pottle."

 -The policeman said that ………………………………………………………..

c-The Scotland Yard spokesman said: "We have no idea why he climbed in."

 - The Scotland Yard spokesman said that …………………………………………

Activity 3:

"Imagine you are a journalist, your subordinate asked you to make an interview with Mr Pottle."

-Imagine what Mr Pottle would tell you about his misadventure.

-Try to confirm or disconfirm the Scotland Yard spokesman's speech.

III. Production:

Activity 1:

"Imagine you are Mr Pottle; write a paragraph in which you describe your feelings during these five days"

Aim: The learner will use his background knowledge and newly acquired one in this activity.

-Before the learners write their paragraphs, the teacher organises a classroom discussion in order to orientate and help them gather the needed vocabulary.

Activity 2:

In a short paragraph, tell the misadventure of someone who was trapped somewhere and couldn't deliver himself/herself without the help of another person.

Aim: Link the text to a real life situation, i.e. the input is related to some practical situation on the other hand the authenticity of the material at hand will enable the learners to re-use what they have internalised through the activities developed from the text.

Experimental group two/ # 3

Abandoned baby Coloured, say police

Johannesburg

Police said yesterday that they have determined that a month-old baby girl found in a field is coloured, but the Government has not yet formally classified the child's race.

The debate about the girl's race, given the name Lise Venter by Pretoria West Hospital staff, has focused attention on South Africa's race classification system. The race assigned to the girl, will determine who can adopt her, which schools she attends, and where she can live.

Maj-Gen. Lothar Neethling said: "For investigation purposes, the South African Police scientifically determined that the child was of mixed race." He said the decision was made based on a strand of the girl's hair. General Neethling added, however, that the police made the determination only as part of their investigation and search for the girl's parents. The responsibility for the official classification of the girl's race remains the responsibility of the Department of Internal Affairs. A Department spokesman said that that would occur only after the police and other investigations were completed and if the parents were not found.

The baby was found two weeks ago by a passer by in a field outside Pretoria, wrapped in a blanket, with her head in a paper bag. She remains at the hospital. Newspapers reported that police believe that the baby had been abandoned because her parents feared prosecution under the Immorality Act, which forbids sexual relations across the colour line. General Neethling would not comment on such 'speculation.'

- **Grade Level: First year university students of English.**
- **Proficiency level: Intermediate**

- **Function: narrating/reporting**

- **Notions: time, place, cause and effect**

- **Objectives:**

- Learners will be able to report/ narrate events using cause and effect relationships.

- Learners will be able to identify the different types of discourse through the analysis of sentence / paragraph structures.

- Learners will be able to predict meaning using context clues**.**

- **Topics: racism, injustice, and human rights in general, children's rights in particular.**

I- Pre-reading:

Activity 1: Priming questions

*Aim: to stimulate discussion, orient students to the subject of the text. Students will come to the text with some expectations.

1.Have you ever met some people of a different race from yours?

2.If no, suppose you are going to meet a coloured person, how are you going to react?

3.How do people in your country deal with coloured persons?

4.Suppose you have found a coloured baby abandoned in a street, what will be your reaction? How are the authorities going to deal with this situation?

II-Study of the text: students will read the text once, then, with the help of the teacher, they will deconstruct the text by filling the following table.

Events	People/ Authorities involved	Place(s)
-A one-month baby girl found in a field. -She was of a mixed race. -Decision made based on a strand of the girl's hair. -Determination of the race by the Department of Internal Affairs. -Baby was found two weeks ago by a passer by wrapped in a blanket with head in paper bag. -Parents feared prosecution under the Immorality Act (speculation)	-A baby girl:*Liza Venter *1 month old *Coloured -Police Department -Maj.Gen.Lothar Neethling -Department of Internal Affairs -Pretoria West Hospital Staff	-South Africa -Pretoria

III-During-Reading Activities:

Activity 1: Detective questions:

*Aim: students will search for specific information in the text through scanning.

-Scan the text to find answers to the following questions.

    1. Where was the baby found?

    2. On which basis was the child's race determined?

    3. Who found the baby?

Activity 2: True/False statements:

*Aim: the teacher will check if the students have some idea about the text.

-read the text and say if the following statements are true (T), false (F) or not mentioned (N.M):

  1. The government has already classified the baby's race.

  2. The baby was abandoned because of the illegal relationship between the parents.

  3. The baby was adopted by a white family.

  4. The determination of the race was the responsibility of the Department of Internal affairs.

Activity 3: Sentence-completion:

*Aim: students will complete sentences relying on their understanding of the text, i.e. there is no resort to the text.

-Complete the following statements:

  1.The race of the baby has been determined as ………………

  2.The name of the baby, Lisa Venter, was given by ………………

  3………….. is responsible for official race classification.

IV-Language practice:

Activity 1: Reported speech:

Study the following statements:

  -Maj. Gen. Lothar Neethling said: "for investigation purposes, the police scientifically determined that the child was of a mixed race."

  -A department spokesman said that that would occur only after the police and other investigations were completed.

*Aim: students will sort out the differences between the direct and the indirect speech. They will inductively find the rule to move from direct to reported speech and vice versa.

Activity 2: Passive voice:

Study the following statement:

  The baby was found two weeks ago by a passer by.

- What is the action in this sentence?

- Who did it?

- Find similar examples in the text

   Teacher and students will together work out the rule from students' examples. The teacher will then ask the students to write their sentences on the board, and turn them into the active voice.

Activity 3: Cause/effect relationships:

 *Aim: students will study statements inferred from the text to establish cause and effect relationships.

-look at the following table: in column (A) is a list of effects, in column (B) a list of causes. Match the effect (A) with the corresponding cause (B).

(A) Effects	(B) Causes
-The baby is in hospital -The baby was abandoned -race will determine who can adopt the baby, which school she can attend and where she can live. -The child is coloured	-Parents feared prosecution -The decision made was based on a strand of the hair. -The child was of a mixed race. -The child was found in a field wrapped in a blanket, with her head in a paper bag.

-After completing matching items, students will write full sentences using elements from (A) and (B), using connectors and making the necessary changes.

Activity 4: Vocabulary:

 *Aim: students will practice prediction of meaning to show to what extent they will be able to use context clues.

a-give a definition (a word, a phrase or a synonym) to the following words using context clues. The number between parentheses indicates the paragraph in which the word occurs:

* Focused (2): ………………………..

* Strand (3): ………………………….

* Investigation (4): ………………………….

*Spokesman (5): ………………………….

* Passer by (6): …………………………..

* Wrapped (6): ………………………

* Prosecution (7): …………………..

b-Find in the text words/ phrases whose definitions follow:

* A baby born from persons of different races.

* Subdivision of people sharing the same physical characteristics.

Activity 5: Paragraph structure:

Fill in this table with the events reported in the text according to their chronological order (individual/pair work).

When?	Who/What?	What happened?	Completion
1 ……………………..	………………………	………………………	………………………
2 ……………………..	………………………	………………………	………………………
3 ……………………..	………………………	………………………	………………………
4 ……………………..	………………………	………………………	………………………
5 ……………………..	………………………	………………………	………………………

*Aim: learners will study how meanings are encoded. They will also see different discourse sequences.

V-Production:

Activity 1: Use the table above to write a paragraph in 10-12 lines narrating the main events of the text you studied.

 *Aim: to enable students to completely express their own thoughts.

Activity 2: Choose one of the three topics presented below: (homework)

a- On your way home yesterday, you saw a young child left next to the mosque, near your house. Write a composition where you narrate the story of this child (why was it abandoned? How the authorities reacted? …etc.)

b- In all countries, many new born babies are abandoned everywhere. Write a composition where you identify the causes of this phenomenon and the possible solutions.

c- Many children are suffering all over the world. If you were the U.N.'s secretary, what would you do to save them and preserve their rights?

* Aim: students should be able to write compositions using the function dealt with in the text and to write compositions about topics related to the text.

Experimental group two/ # 4

Best man is the groom!

A BEST man turned up at a wedding yesterday- and found he was the groom.

Derry Davies was tricked by his fiancé who had secretly set up the ceremony and a reception.

Bride Margaret Robertson enlisted the help of 20 friends including a couple who agreed to pretend thy ware getting married.

Then, as they arrived at the register office in Wellington, Shropshire, she revealed it was their own big day.

Margaret, 38, said she was getting her own back on Derry. She said: "he was always proposing to me in front of my friends and popping love notes into my lunch box at work. It made me really embarrassed. I decided to call his bluff."

Derry, 40, of Ketley, Telford, said: "I was completely taken in."

The Mirror Wednesday, July24.1985

The material: A newspaper article.

- **The level:** Intermediate, first year university.
- **The Functions:** narrating and reporting
- **The topic: 'Best man is the groom'**

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- **The objectives:**

  The learners are expected to be able to narrate and report past events.

- **The notions:**

1. Time: -frequency: 'always'   -age: '38 years old, 40 years old'

2. Space: -location: 'Shropshire, Wellington'

3. Cause and effect: -Love caused embarrassment, embarrassment caused trickery

4. Feelings, emotions and attitudes: love, trick and cunning.

- **The main characters:**

Ms Robertson:	Mr Davies:
38 years old	40 years old
Single	Single
Worker	Worker
English	English
Lives in Wellington	Lives in Ketley.

- **The events:**

-Derry Davies loved Margaret Robertson.

-Derry proposed to Margaret in front of her friends.

-Derry popped love notes in Margaret's lunch box at work.

-Margaret was embarrassed.

-Margaret decided to call for Derry's bluff.

-Margaret prepared for their own big day with the help of twenty friends and a couple.

-Derry arrived to the ceremony thinking he was best man.

-Derry was completely taken in when he knew he was the groom.

Procedure

I- Pre-reading activities:

   This is used as a warming up to the text. The teacher asks the learners to speak about funny situations or anecdotes that happened to them or to one of their relatives.

II- Reading comprehension:

Activity 1:

-Aim: to scan for specific information.

-Directions: Read the text to find brief answers to the following questions

1.Who are the main characters?

2.How old are they?

3.Wher do they live?

4.What is the relationship between them?

5.What is the main event?

6.What is its cause?

Activity 2:

-Aim: to return the chronological order.

-Directions: Complete the statements then establish the chronological order of events.

- A couple of friends accepted to …………………
- Derry Davies was …………………………
- Indeed, Derry was …………………………..
- Margaret Robertson had recourse to ………………….
- Derry thought he was just …………………………..
- Margaret was helped by ………………………………

III- Vocabulary from context:

Activity 1:

-Direction: After you have finished reading the text, show how well you are able to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words that are underlined in the text:

1-"He was always proposing to me in front of my friends and popping love notes into my lunch box."

………………….

2-Derry was tricked by his fiancé who had secretly set up the ceremony and a reception.

…………………….

3-A best man turned up at a wedding yesterday. ………………..

4-Bride Margaret Robertson enlisted the help of twenty friends including a couple.

…………………….

5- …. And found he was the groom. …………………….

Activity 2

-Directions: explain what these expressions mean and use them in your own sentences.

1-"to get one's back on someone"

2-"to propose to someone"

3-"to call someone's bluff"

4-"to be taken in"

IV- Language practice:

A/ Active/passive voice

Activity 1:

-directions: Here is the beginning of the story. Rewrite it putting the verbs in the passive voice where appropriate and making necessary changes.

    Derry Davies loved Margaret Robertson. He proposed marriage to her in front of her friends. He was popping love notes into her lunch box at work. He embarrassed her. The, she prepared a surprise for him and her friends helped her. A couple acted the role of a bride and a groom. When Derry arrived to the office, he discovered the surprise and realised that his friends took him in with the best man's story.

Activity 2:

-Directions: Read this news item and put the verbs between brackets in their correct form.

    An adolescent (drop out) …………………… because his father (not tolerate) ………… his bad behaviour. One day, he (find) ………………..and (adopt) ……………..a very kind family that (lodge) ……………him. He (provide) …………………..with everything he (need) ………………… Five years later, he (meet) …………….a woman whom he (marry) ………………..later. His adoptive family (send) ……………….. him abroad for his honey moon. Once back, the couple (discover) ………………….the surprise and (find) …………….they (trick) ………………..: a house (buy) …………….. and (furnish) ………………for the couple.

B/ Reported speech:

Activity 1:

-Directions: fill in the following table reporting what was said and telling who said it & to whom.

The quotation	Who said it	To whom	The reported form
-"He was always proposing to me in front of my friends and popping love notes into my	-	-	-

lunch box. It made me really embarrassed.			
-"I decided to call his bluff"	-	-	-
-"I was completely taken in"	-	-	-

Activity 2:

-Directions: Imagine the dialogue that would take place between Margaret and Derry when this latter arrived and discovered the surprise. How would you report it?

V- Production:

-Aim: to write an assignment using what has already been learnt: past, passive, reporting, chronology.

1.Tell the story of one of your relatives to whom happened a similar surprise.

2.What do you think the reaction of Derry would be after discovering he was tricked?

3.Do you think that marriage can take place under similar conditions in our society?

4.Describe Algerian wedding parties referring to the different steps that take place before the wedding ceremony.

Experimental group two/ # 5

Flashback to heartbreak

THE pregnant poverty-trapped mother who dumped her two children outside a hospital wept yesterday and said: 'All I want is a nice home for my family."

After a tearful reunion with the toddlers, Sharon, two and Mark, one 19-year-old housewife Karen said that money worries forced her to take the drastic action. Because her husband David insisted on holding down a job they lost out on vital social security benefits, she said.

Heavily pregnant with her third child –expected in a fortnight- the desperate young mother said: "I couldn't cope with the children and me and my husband felt we couldn't provide a good home for them.

> "We were at the end of our tether. We've built up odd debts keeping the children in good clothes and shoes and the baby we are expecting would have been a terrific strain.
>
> It wasn't a spur of the moment decision to leave the children at the hospital. But the moment I walked away I knew it wasn't an answer to our problem."

- **Grade level:** Second year at Secondary school
- **Proficiency level:** Intermediate
- **Objectives:**

1-Learners are expected to be able to report and narrate an event using reported speech

2-Learners are expected to be able to express cause and effect statements.

- **Function: Narrating and Reporting**
- **Notions: time, cause and effect, duration, numerals, place**
- **Structuring the elements of information**

Mother	Children	Husband
-A woman called Karen	-Sharon aged two years	-David
-pregnant with her third child	-Mark	-married
-has two children	-they are toddlers	-has a job
-poor		
-housewife		
-19 years old		
-desperate		
-married		

- **Mapping the text: Record of the events:**
- She dumped her two children outside the hospital.
- David insisted on holding down a job.
- Money worries forced her to take that action.
- They lost out on social benefits.
- Could not cope with her children / no home.
- Built up old debts to keep children well dressed.
- The expected baby will be a terrific strain.
- It was not a spur of the moment decision.

- After leaving her children she knew that it is not a solution for her problems.
- She wept yesterday in a tearful reunion.

I- Pre-reading:

    * Have you ever heard about a mother who abandoned her children?

    * In your opinion, what was the reason behind her action?

These questions are a warm up. They aim at activating the learners' knowledge. It is a way of arising their motivation and interest.

II- During Reading:

Activity 1: Read the text silently then search for the following list of words in the dictionary.

1. To dump.   2. Toddlers.   3. Hold down   4. Lose out on   5. Pregnant.   6.Debts

The teacher gives a list of words to be defined using a dictionary. The learners have to understand some key words which help them draw conclusions about meaning. If not, they are going to be hindered.

Activity 2: Put True or False for each statement with the correction of the false ones.

  1- Karen has two children.

  2- Karen put her children in a garden.

  3- Sharon and Mark can play football.

  4- David is a jobless person.

  5- Karen and David provide their children with clothes and shoes easily.

  6- Karen saw that abandoning her children was not a solution for her problems.

  7- Karen lost her children for ever.

The learners are supposed to reread the text and the statements; confirm the true statements, disconfirm the false ones and correct them.

Activity 3: Paraphrasing the text. Fill in the blanks with the appropriate words.

    Karen was …………….. with her third child. She and her husband ………………. social benefits. They made a lot of …………………. in order to provide their children with clothes and shoes. So, they decided to …………………. them outside a hospital. Mark and Sharon were …………….., they have just learnt to walk.

Through this exercise **students** are going to anticipate words from the context depending on remembering. These words are those already searched fro in the first exercise (dictionary use) just to help for rehearsal.

Activity 4: Fill in the table with the appropriate information.

WHAT	WHY
-Karen and her husband lost out on social security benefits.	-……………………………………… ……………………………………….
-………………………………………	-provide their children with shoes and clothes.
-She dumped her children outside the hospital.	-…………………………………… ……………………………………

The aim of this table is to deconstruct the meaning into cause and effect. It helps in meaning manipulation as it will be used for grammar illustration.

Activity 5: Idiomatic expressions. Discuss with your friend the meaning of the following expressions from the text:

- "We were at the end of our tether."
- "It was not the spur of the moment decision."

Learners will discuss the meaning of the expressions in pairs. The teacher involves the whole class to give their guesses, and then he writes the right meaning on the board. This activity helps in enriching the learners' language through the acquisition of new expressions.

III- Language manipulation:

A- Reported speech.

- **Covert grammar explanation**

-Karen said: "All I want is a nice home for my family."

-One 19 years old housewife Karen said that money worries forced her to take the drastic action.

WHO	SAID WHAT
……………………………………….. ………………………………………	……………………………………….. ………………………………………..

The teacher extracts two examples from the text according to which the learners fill in the table. This is made orally

-In the first sentence it is Karen who is speaking. The same words of Karen are reported. So, it is direct speech.

-In the second sentence,, it is not Karen who is speaking, the journalist is telling or reporting her speech. So, it is indirect speech.

- • **Overt grammar explanation:**

-Karen says: "All I want is a nice home for my family."

   She says that all she wants is a nice home for her family.

The teacher draws the learners' attention to the introductory verb. When it is in the present there is No tense change in the direct speech, and when it is in the past this leads to tense changes.

Tense changes in the reported speech:

1/ Karen said :"All I want is a nice home for my family".

        Present ⟶ Past

   Karen said all she wanted was a nice home for her family.

2/ Karen said: "All I wanted was a nice home for my family".

        Past ⟶ Past or past perfect

   Karen said all she wanted was a nice home for her family.

 Or/ Karen said all she had wanted had been a nice home for her family.

Changes in modals:

She said: "I couldn't cope with the children and me and my husband felt we couldn't provide a good home for them."

   shall ⟶ should   can ⟶ could   will ⟶ would

   should ⟶ should   must ⟶ had to

The teacher draws the learners' attention to put the colon and inverted commas in the direct speech, and add typical changes where necessary:

   I ⟶ he/she   me ⟶ his/her   here ⟶ there   now ⟶ then

   Today ⟶ that day   Tomorrow ⟶ the next day   last week ⟶ the week before

Practice: Learners will extract the other examples from the text and transform them from direct to indirect speech. The teacher may provide them with sentences in direct speech and they turn them to indirect. Or, he asks each one of them to give a sentence in direct speech then transform it into indirect.

Production:

The teacher gives a dialogue between a judge and the mother who abandoned her children in which she explains what she did.

Relying on this dialogue, imagine yourself a journalist and write a paragraph about what this woman said to the judge.

B- Cause and effect:

- **Covert Grammar explanation:**

    The teacher extracts an example from the text according to which the learners will fill in the table.

"Because her husband David insisted on holding down a job they lost out on vital social security benefits."

WHY	WHAT
…………………………………………… …………………………………………	……………………………………….. ………………………………………..

-Why did they lose out on social security benefits? or

- What was the cause behind losing out on vital social security benefits?

The teacher asks these questions orally, and the learners answer immediately in order to fill in the table.

- **Overt explanation:**

The teacher explains the meaning of cause and effect:

<u>Because</u> her husband David insisted on holding down the job (cause)

       They lost out on vital social security benefits (effect)

Or: They lost out on vital social security benefits <u>because</u> her husband David insisted on holding down a job.

Practice:

1/The teacher gives the learners causes and effects and the students try to construct a whole cause/effect sentence.

-The teacher was absent / ill

-The road was blocked / snow

-She was very exhausted / didn't sleep the whole night.

The teacher asks the learners to produce both cause effect structures:

  -Because of + cause + effect.   **-Effect + because + cause.**

2/The teacher asks each student to give one cause / effect sentence which he expresses using both structures.

Production:

   The teacher gives the students a dialogue between a judge and a young man who was captured by the police while he was attempting to steal a shop**.**

   The teacher writes on the board the questions provided by the judge and the learners are supposed to fill in the answers provided by the thief (express the causes).

Judge: I wonder why a healthy and handsome boy like you steals.

Thief: ………………………………………………………………………………

Judge: You say you are responsible for the family; you felt obliged to do this! I couldn't

      understand!

Thief: ………………………………………………………………………………..

Judge: Your mother is very ill, but you are supposed to be at school at this age! Why

     have you left your studies?

Thief: ……………………………………………………………………………….

Judge: I understand your difficult situation; the father is dead, the mother is ill, but why

     didn't you search for a job?

Thief: ………………………………………………………………………………..

IV-Production:

1) Write a paragraph about a person you know who abandoned school studies reporting the reasons behind his/her action.

2) People may abandon their children for poverty, or for many other reasons. Write a paragraph in which you propose other reasons of such situations.

The first production has a functional output in which the learners try to apply the notions they have learnt (cause/effect and reported speech) in a different context.

However, the second production has a communicative output in which the learners try to use the notions learnt, but they have also to think and provide their personal ideas and link the subject in hand to their background knowledge

Stranded – for life
From Sue Masterman . VIENNA

A real life Robinson Crusoe has been found and rescued by West Germany scientific expedition on a remote island in the South Pacific.

Dr Otto Sohne, leader of a botanical research group, could hardly believe his eyes when a bent and bowed white man staggered out of the jungle to greet them on the island's beach. He was even more astonished when the man began to speak English and claimed that he had been stranded for 74 years on the island without seeing a soul.

"We found him in the nick of time," said Dr Sohne who brought the man back to a hospital in Manila, in the Philippines. "He was so crippled by arthritis that he can hardly feed himself. He would have died soon of starvation."

But mystery still surrounds the rescued man, whose name is Jeremy Bibbs, aged 88.He says he was a 14-year-old ship's boy on the schooner *Feclicity* which sank during a hurricane in 1911. "I tied cork round my body so I would not sink", says Mr Bibbs. "I lost consciousness in the water and, when I came to, I found myself washed up on that damned island."

He eventually built himself a hut, found a supply of fresh water and lived on fish. Mr Bibbs waited for rescue but none came and the years rolled by. "It was not paradise," he said. "It was hell. I had nothing to read and no one to talk to."

But, now that he has been rescued, Mr Bibbs is not so sure he can adapt to civilisation. "They should have left me to die on my island," he said.

Material: Newspaper article

Title: Stranded for life

Topic: Missing / adaptation for survival

Purpose: to inform

Grade level: First year students, University

Proficiency level: Intermediate

Function: Narrating and reporting

Notions: time, space, age, implied cause and effect relationship modality, duration.

Elements of the text / Scenario:

- **Main Character**:

Name: Jeremy Bibbs, Age 88

Health: old and ill

Illness: arthritis

- **Events of the story**

-Felicity ship sank in 1911 because of a hurricane

-A 14-year old boy tied himself with cork so as he didn't sink

-He lost consciousness

-He was washed up on a remote island

-He built a hut

-He found a supply of fresh water

-He waited for rescue which didn't come

-He caught arthritis and was about to die

-he was rescued by a botanical expedition after 74 years

-He was taken to hospital

-He didn't feel at ease to change his living again.

Objectives:

-Learners will be able to narrate and report a past event.

-Learners will be able to use the passive voice in different contexts.

I-Pre-reading:

Aim: a brainstorming activity to activate existing words in the students' schemata

Activity: word association technique

Procedure: the teacher writes 'Robinson Crusoe' on the blackboard and asks students to supply any word they think it may be associated with.

Probable words to be supplied: island-sea- danger- boat- storm-expedition- stranded- cartoon/film-fiction- shelter-rescue-food-jungle-animal-survival, etc…

   In the next step, students are asked to relate the story and say whether it may or may not happen to a person in real life, before they are invited to read the first and last paragraph of the text in order to confirm or disconfirm their answers.

NOTE: A variation of this activity consists of proceeding the opposite way.

II-Reading comprehension:

Activity 1: Literal comprehension

Aim: To scan for specific information, to summarize the text.

Instruction: read the text to find out brief answers to the word-questions: who, what,
Where, when and why.

Procedure: Teacher divides the class into groups. G1 is to answer the question words about Dr Sohne, whereas G2 is to do the same about J.Bibbs. The aim is to expose implicitly the students to passive and active forms.

Follow up: to transfer notes into a full paragraph and focus on the mechanics of writing and paragraph organisation.

Activity 2: implied comprehension (inferring)

Aim: to infer information from the text

Instruction: Answer by True or False

1.J.Bibbs' story is similar to that of Robinson Crusoe.

2.J.Bibbs didn't sink thanks to an intelligent trick.

3.J.Bibbs led a comfortable life while being on the island.

4.J.Bibbs waited long to be rescued.

Activity 3: paraphrasing

Aim: to restore chronological order; to paraphrase

Instruction: complete the statements then establish the chronological order of elements

-The old man was transported to Manila, Philippines because ………………………….

-A 14-year-old boy who was aboard didn't sink but ……………………………………

-When a West German botanical expedition went to the South Pacific, ..………………..

-In 1911, a ship named 'felicity' was caught in a hurricane, consequently ………………

-Building a hut, and living on fish, the survivor spent …………………………………...

Activity 4: Applied comprehension (analysing)

Aim: to analyze some details of the text

Instruction: read the text and answer the following questions.

1. What do you think of J.Bibbs language?

2. Which factors prevent him from re-adaptation?

3. What does 'mystery still surrounds him' suggest to you?

III-vocabulary:

Aim: to guess meaning from context

Instruction: Choose the appropriate option (definition) to the underlined words.

-J.Bibbs <u>was stranded</u> for life.

  a. he was abandoned   **b.** he was sent to live on an island

-Dr Sohne <u>rescued</u> the old man.

  a. he cured him   **b.** he saved him

-J.Bibbs <u>was crippled</u> by arthritis.

  a. he was made almost unable to walk   **b.** he was made almost unable to feed himself

-J.Bibbs is not sure he <u>can adapt to</u> civilisation.

  a. he is not sure he can get accustomed to the present social way of life

  b. he is not sure he can follow the requirements of a very modern way of life

IV- Language practice:

A-Active and passive voice:

Activity 1:

Procedure:

Step one: before the presentation of the structure, students do the activity which consists of filling in the table about J.Bibbs.

What he did	What was done to him

J.BIBBS

The teacher draws an arrow to the left to indicate the action J.Bibbs does, and an arrow to the right to indicate the action which happens to him.

Step two: Teacher presents word pairs such as:

      Man/ Fall   Window/ Break   Scientist/ discover

      Child / Cry   Students/ Laugh   Milk / Drink

Students demonstrate their ability to properly indicate the direction; then the teacher elicits the words **active** and **passive**. After that, students are asked to construct a sentence for each cue. For example: -The scientist discovered a new formula; -The milk was drunk by the cat.

When they add a second arrow (to the left or to the right), they encounter **intransitive verbs**. For example, the students laugh (impossible to change into the passive).

Activity 2:

Aim: to practice the structure of the passive form

Instruction: Put the verbs between brackets into their correct form.

A woman ……………….. (take) to hospital after her car collided with a lorry near Norstock, yesterday. She ………….. (allow) home later efter treatment. The road ………………. (block) for an hour after the accident and traffic had to ……………… (diverst). A police inspector said afterwards "the woman was lucky. She could ………... (kill)

Activity 3:

Aim: further practice and consolidation

Instruction: Here is a story about a sea incident (a ship wreck). Rewrite it in the passive.

A storm caught a boat- the boat stuck against a huge rock – the rock broke its rudder – it was impossible for the crew to control the boat – the crew sent distress signals to the coast guards – they sent a rescue helicopter – the damaged boat was sinking – rescuers saved the injured crew men – they transported them o hospital.

N.B; The teacher explains that the passive voice is used in narration to stress the role of the victim (victimization) where the person/ animal, thing is unable to control his destiny.

Activity 4:

Aim: Rehearsal in a different context, i.e. processing

Instruction: Use the following cues to describe the process of Nescafé making.

-varieties of coffee beans / blend.

-foreign bodies / remove

-coffee grains / roast at 200° Celsius and grind to get powdered coffee.

-in huge percolators, boiling water / pass through the powdered coffee.

-liquid coffee / atomize in a metal tower.

B-Reported Speech:

Aim: to review and rehearse reported speech.

Activity 1:

Instruction: Retell the words between inverted commas that are said by J.Bibbs in a different way.

Activity 2:

Instruction: Imagine the questions that Dr Sohne asked to J.Bibbs to which the quoted words in the text correspond as answers. Write the dialogue, then report.

C-Past Tense:

Aim: to discriminate between the simple past and the past participle and rehearse the past participle used in the passive form.

Instruction: List down regular verbs whether they are simple past or past participle forms.

Simple past form	Past participle form
-	-
-	-
-	-

V- Production:

Aim: to produce a piece of writing using the language forms already learnt and calling at students' own experience and imagination.

Activity 1:

Instruction: You may- have seen a TV programme related to missing (Kul Chay Mumkin = Everything is possible)). Write a composition telling the story of someone who had been missing for years. Narrate the circumstances of this missing; describe the feelings and emotions of that person on the day of meeting his (kin) parents. Would the missed person continue to live within the adoptive family or would he/she join the true one? (to stress the idea of adaptation.)

Activity 2:

Instruction: you may have read or seen a similar story (film); write a composition telling it

Activity 3:

Instruction: Imagine a different ending to the story of Jeremy Bibbs.

Hero rescues girl under bus By **Penny Hart**

GARAGE boss Eric Shurmer was startle by the sounds of a woman's screams, followed by shouts. Then came the pounding of feet as a man ran up the alleyway leading to his repair shop. "Quick, bring a jack, there's a girl trapped under a bus," the man yelled. Mr Shurmer grabbed a trolley jack – the largest in the garage- and pulling it behind him, ran out into the High Street at Chislehurst, Kent.

Horrified

Traffic had stopped. A crowd of shoppers gazed, horrified, at a stationary red double-decker bus. Lying beneath the 10-ton vehicle, her right hand pinned to the road by one big front tyre, was 17 year-old Joanne Sherry. She had stepped from the kerb, collided with the bus and became trapped underneath the front axle as she fell to the ground.

Mr Shurmer and a group of other men positioned the jack under the front of the bus. The jack was designed to lift only vehicles up to a maximum weight of two-and-a-half tons. But it was all they had and there was not a moment to lose. Using all their strength, Mr Shurmer, 44, and print works employee Mr Alan Theobald pumped the handle and to their relief the double-decker tilted just far enough to lift the wheel from Joanne's badly crushed hand. But Mr Shurmer realised that to drag her clear he would have to crawl under the double-decker himself.

So while Mr Theobald hung on to the jack and the other men put their shoulders to the bus to steady it, he scrambled underneath. Her leg was hurt and from the awkward angle of her right arm it was clearly broken. Suddenly there was an ominous groan from the jack. The strain of holding up the 10-ton weight was beginning to tell. The jack wheels were gradually sinking into the tarmac and Mr Shurmer's head was already brushing the bottom of the bus. And when he tried gently to move Joanne, he realised to his horror that her skirt was caught under the axle. Working as fast as he could, he managed to free the skirt while above him the double-decker dropped lower and lower. Then, with the jack still creaking, he eased her clear of the bus and ambulance men rushed her to hospital.

When Mr Shurmer edged himself out and removed the jack, he found it had left a hole nearly two inches deep in the road. Joanne, who lives in Sicup, Kent, with her widowed father and her brother, is now recovering in hospital.

THE SUNDAY EXPRESS August 4 1985

Material: a newspaper article.

Grade level: First year university students of English.

Proficiency level: Intermediate.

Functions: Narrating, describing, processing, and reporting.

Notions: cause and effect, age, time, place, position, size, weight, sequence, feelings, emotions and attitudes (surprise, horror, courage, solidarity)

Specific objectives: Learners will be able to:

- Guess the meaning of a word from its context and use it in a sentence;
- Summarize the story in a paragraph using their own words;
- Use appropriate sequencers in a passage;

General objectives: Learners will be able to:

- Write a narrative paragraph about an event using the past simple;
- Discuss orally with their classmates the aspects of solidarity in their society.

I-Pre-reading:

-Read the title. What does the text seem to be about?

-Now, read the introductory paragraph. Can you make a further guess?

-Look at the subheading. What does it lead you to believe will be next?

-What makes you think your idea will not be wrong? Justify your answer.

II-Reading:

Task 1: (oral discussion). Read the text, then check the predictions you made in the pre-reading phase:

-Have the facts in the story confirmed or disconfirmed your guesses?

-What is the theme of this story?

-Were you impressed by this story?

-Could the story have another end? What do you think another end would have been?

Task 2: Read the text again and fill in the following table with **I** (improbable), **P** (probable) or **S** (sure).

Statements	I	P	S

1. Mr.Shurmer witnessed the accident			
2. Joanne saw the bus coming.			
3. Joanne could have rescued herself.			
4. Mr.Shurmer was very courageous.			
5. No one wanted to help the girl.			
6. Mr.Shurmer could rescue the girl on his own.			
7. Joanne was thankful to the men.			

Task 3:

a-Can you guess the meaning of the following items from their context the are provided in?

-sinking into: ……………………….

-groan: ………………………………

-gazed at: ……………………………

b-Write with each item above one sentence of your own.

Task 4:

a-Now, read the text carefully and answer the following questions using the words from the text only when necessary.

1.Where does the story take place?

2.Who are the characters in the story?

3.What started the vents in the story?

4.What is the problem in the story?

5.Who is the main character? How did he react towards the crisis?

6.How did other people react to this problem?

7.What are the qualities you can give to the main character?

b-Using your answers to the previous questions, write a short paragraph in which you

summarize the text in your own words.

Task 5: (oral discussion). In the text, the author described a process. How does she introduce each step in the process? Using the following sequencers, fill in the paragraph below: *first, next, then, after that, later, finally.*

When you want to make a cake, you have to follow some steps. Make sure you have all the ingredients; sugar, butter, flour, eggs, yeast and melted chocolate. …………… , put the flour and the sugar, …………….. add the butter. The eggs and the yeast are to be added ……………… . …………… , mix all the ingredients so that you get a homogeneous paste. ……………………., put the paste in the oven and let it cook for 45 minutes. ……………….., put the melted chocolate on the top of the cake and let it cool for some time before you serve. You can decorate the cake with some fruits.

Task 6:

a-Discussion:

   -In which tense(s) are most of the verbs in the text used?

   -What do you think the reason is?

   -What can you deduce from this?

b-Production: Write a paragraph in which you narrate something funny or tragic that happened to you. Use the sequencers you dealt with in **Task 5**, and the information from the questions above.

Task 7: Pair work.

   After she had recovered and left hospital, Joanne went to see Mr. Shurmer to thank him. With your friend, try to imagine the dialogue which took place.

Task 8: Homework.

   Working in groups of four pupils, try to make a little investigation on the different aspects of solidarity in your society (in a road accident, Touiza, in weddings, etc…), and if these aspects are different from what your parents and grand parents had in their times.

RESUME

Ce travail de recherche traite de l'impact des stratégies de traitement de l'information et les fonctions du discours sur l'élaboration des matériels didactiques par les enseignants stagiaires et les enseignants de l'anglais académique à l'université de Constantine. Cette étude pourrait être utile aux enseignants et concepteurs de programmes et matériels didactiques qui veulent utiliser des textes authentiques. Elle essaye de satisfaire les besoins des apprenants en donnant à leurs enseignants une procédure méthodologique d'élaboration de matériels didactiques relatifs aux stratégies d'apprentissage et organisation du discours académique (en termes de fonctions et notions).

La tache pédagogique, dans ce sens, nécessite la participation active des enseignants dans l'élaboration et la définition des objectifs d'apprentissage, des étapes de traitement de l'information et des foncions du discours, afin de satisfaire les besoins des apprenants. Une telle tache mène vers l'élaboration d'activités qui favorisent le développement des stratégies

d'apprentissage chez les apprenants. L'importance de cette étude se base sur l'engagement des enseignants à développer leurs propres matériels didactiques qui les rendent plus conscients de leur rôle de promoteur autonome des stratégies d'apprentissage.

Une étude expérimentale est faite dans ce sens avec la collaboration de trois groupes de participants. D'une part nous avons un groupe de contrôle qui représente les enseignants de l'anglais académique -dans les différents départements de l'université- qui ont tous suivi un cours général de didactique mais n'ont suivi aucune formation spécifique en développement de matériels didactiques. D'autres part, nous avons deux groupes expérimentaux ; l'un est un groupe d'enseignants stagiaires à l'Ecole Normale Supérieure, l'autre est un groupe d'étudiants inscrits en post-graduation au département d'anglais -université de Constantine. Ces deux derniers groupes représentent les participants dans l'expérimentation.

Notre étude préliminaire est basée sur des questionnaires adressés à des échantillons représentatifs des apprenants, des étudiants post-gradués et enseignants des départements de sciences humaines et sociales, ainsi qu'aux enseignants d'anglais dans ces mêmes départements. Les deux groupes expérimentaux ont participé à l'expérimentation qui a mis en valeur les principes et les applications méthodologiques quant à l'élaboration de matériels didactiques susceptible de promouvoir les stratégies d'apprentissage. L'évaluation de l'expérimentation a été faite par un projet d'élaboration de matériel didactique –à partir de textes authentiques, comme des articles de presse anglaise- que les participants, ainsi que le groupe de contrôle, ont remis à la fin de l'étude.

Les résultats de cette expérimentation démontrent que la collaboration active, l'usage des stratégies de traitement de l'information ainsi que les fonctions du discours par les participants ont un apport considérable dans l'amélioration des matériels didactiques des

enseignants qui, au fur et à mesure, gagnent plus d'autonomie dans leurs pratiques didactiques.

ملخص

إن تعليم اللغة الانجليزية كلغة أجنبية يتطلب وضع برنامج يساعد المتعلمين على الوصول إلى مستوى معين و ذلك يتوقف على نوعية البرنامج بحد ذاته و منهجية تطبيقه حتى يتسنى للمتعلمين الوصول إلى مبتغاهم. في هذا السياق، يتناول البحث محورين أساسيين:

الأول يأخذ بعين الاعتبار تحليل المعلومات و الخطاب أما الثاني فيتناول منهجية تطوير استراتيجيات التعلم، حتى يتسنى للمتعلمين بلوغ الأهداف البيداغوجية المرجوة.

يرتكز هذا البحث على استراتيجيات تحليل المعلومات و تحليل الخطاب كقاعدة أساسية تساعد الأستاذ على تطوير أدواته البيداغوجية و يساهم في انجاز نصوصه التعليمية من نصوص أصلية. و عليه يساهم الأستاذ بطريقة مباشرة في بناء استراتيجيات التعليم و التعلم. تتطلب هذه المهمة المشاركة الفعالة للأستاذ في رسم الأهداف المرجوة و بناء نشاطات بيداغوجية حتى يتمكن من بلوغ درجة من المسؤولية و الحرية في اختيار نصوصه و استراتيجياته بنفسه.

يشارك في الدراسة الميدانية لهذا البحث ثلاث أفواج من الأساتذة و الأساتذة المتربصين: فالفوج الأول و هو الفوج الضابط يمثل شريحة من أساتذة اللغة الانجليزية بمختلف أقسام العلوم الإنسانية و الاجتماعية بجامعة قسنطينة، تحصلوا كلهم على ليسانس في اللغة الأجنبية دون متابعة أي تكوين خاص في انجاز الأدوات البيداغوجية، أما الفوجان الاختباريان فيتكون الأول من أساتذة متربصين بالمدرسة العليا للأساتذة و يتكون الثاني من طلبة الدراسات العليا بقسم اللغة الانجليزية.

يبدأ البحث الميداني بتحليل الوضعية الحالية عبر ثلاث استبيانات وجهت لثلاث عينات من طلبة التدرج، طلبة ما بعد التدرج و أساتذة مختلف الشعب بأقسام العلوم الإنسانية و الاجتماعية، و أساتذة اللغة الانجليزية في نفس الأقسام.

الدراسة التجريبية خصت الفوجين التجريبيين ركزت على مبادئ و تطبيقات فعلية هدفها تنمية قدرات الأستاذ في انجاز و تطوير أدواته البيداغوجية، و عليه تنمية استراتيجيات الطلبة في المستقبل. أما تقييم التجربة ككل فيقوم على أساس مشروع انجاز أدوات بيداغوجية من طرف الأفواج في الاختبار القبلي و الاختبار البعدي.

تدل نتائج التقييم و مقارنة نتائج الفوج الضابط بنتائج الفوجين التقييميين، أن مبادئ و استراتيجيات تحليل المعلومات و تحليل الخطاب لهما أثر كبير على تحسين أداء الأستاذ إذا كانت كل المنهجية ترتكز على أساس التعاون و بعد النظر.