People’s Democratic Republic of Algeria
Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research

University Of Mohamed Lamine Dabaghine Sétif 2
Faculty of Letters and Languages
Department of English Language and Literature

Thesis
Submitted in Candidacy for the Degree of
Doctorat Es-Sciences
In Applied Linguistics and Language Teaching

By: Ahlam Bouirane

The Role of Integrating Various Patterns of Activity Sequencing in Promoting Vocabulary and Grammar Knowledge: The Case of Undergraduate LMD Students at Sétif 2 University

Supervisor: Prof. Zahia Mebarki -University Sétif 2

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Examiner: Prof. Hacène Hamada  Professor  ENS Constantine
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ABSTRACT

Although there is no common consensus in the research literature on the most effective vocabulary and grammar teaching method, second and foreign language teaching research has agreed upon the role of instruction in promoting the learners’ vocabulary and grammatical knowledge. The present quasi-experimental study investigates the role of integrating various patterns of activity sequencing in promoting receptive and productive vocabulary sizes and grammatical accuracy at written sentence level among 75 undergraduate third year English students at the Department of English Language and Literature at Sétif 2 University, Algeria. The nonrandomized control group pretest-posttest quasi-experimental design was followed to examine the role of integrating the deep-end strategy, the task-based, and the scenario-based patterns in promoting receptive and productive vocabulary sizes using two adopted vocabulary tests. Further, the one-group pretest posttest design was followed to investigate the role of integrating the presentation-practice-production, the focus on form, and the engage-study-activate patterns in promoting grammatical accuracy level using a designed grammar test. The scores of the students were analysed quantitatively to determine how the integration of patterns influenced their performance on the tests. The results of vocabulary tests revealed significant differences in the scores of the subjects at the end of the quasi-experiment. Significant differences were also found in the scores of the subjects on the grammar test at the end of the pre-experiment. The correlation analysis indicated that vocabulary size correlated with grammatical accuracy. Together, these findings suggest that the integration of various patterns of activity sequencing is effective in promoting vocabulary size and grammatical accuracy level. It is recommended that the integration of patterns as used in this study, and other patterns in the literature should be integrated in order to further examine the effective role of integration.
DEDICATION

This work is in dedication to my parents and my sister.
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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ARC: Authentic-Restricted-Clarification
CG: Control Group
CLT: Communicative Language Teaching
EFL: English as a Foreign Language
EG: Experimental Group
ELT: English Language Teaching
ESA: Engage, Study, Activate
ESL: English as a Second Language
GA: Grammatical Accuracy
GK: Grammatical Knowledge
GTM: Grammar Translation Method
III: Illustration-Interaction-Induction
IP: Input Processing
L2: Second Language
LLA: Language Learning Activities
LMD: Licence, Master, Doctorate
NI: Non-interventionist
OE: Oral Expression
OHE: Observe-Hypothesize-Experiment
PAS: Patterns of Activity Sequencing
PPA: Psycholinguistic Processing Approach
PPP: Presentation, Practice, Production
PVLT: Productive Vocabulary Levels Test
PVS: Productive Vocabulary Size
RVLT: Receptive Vocabulary Levels Test
RVS: Receptive Vocabulary Size
SD: Standard Deviation
SLA: Second Language Acquisition
SLT: Situational Language Teaching
SSKT: Sentence Structure Knowledge Test
TBLT: Task-based Language Teaching
VK: Vocabulary knowledge
VS: Vocabulary size
UWL: University Word Level
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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.1. Theoretical Background

The rise and fall in the history of English language teaching (ELT) witnessed over a century has left remarkable traces on the present situation of teaching the language (Richards, 2001, 2006). The most significant trace in the area of materials development and teaching methodologies is the variety in the proposed Patterns of Activity Sequencing (PAS). Recognized as another significant developmental trace is the focus on vocabulary as a main language component after decades of neglect. This focus on vocabulary, however, has not excluded grammar because its importance is well recognized within the different approaches and methods proposed throughout the history of ELT. Within the importance given to grammatical knowledge (GK) in language learning, vocabulary knowledge (VK) has turned to be of paramount importance for language learners, and the variety and quantity of both knowledge types constitute the distinguishing criteria between the different language learning levels (Larsen-Freeman, 2003; Laufer, 1998; Nation, 2001).

The current study falls within the strands of three theories. The first theory of materials development in its relation to teaching methodologies and specific PAS constitutes the core area of the study. The nature of VK is the second theory and it focuses on vocabulary size (VS) at the receptive and productive dimensions. The third theory is the nature of GK and it deals with grammatical accuracy (GA) at the written sentence structure level.

The area of materials development comprises the main principles that focus on designing, using, analyzing, and evaluating materials. This area did not stand as a field of research until the mid 1990s because it was perceived as Tomlinson (2001) puts it as a “subsection of methodology, in which materials were usually introduced as examples of
methods in action rather than as a means to explore the principles and procedures of their development” (p. 66). Similarly, sequencing as a research area under materials development was not granted much interest in language teaching research except for Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) which received much attention in the late 20th and early 21st centuries. Sequencing became an explicit research interest in ELT after the methodological changes brought about under Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) against the structural approach. Research in the area of materials design produced a variety of Patterns of Activity Sequencing (PAS) in language teaching. These patterns were mainly introduced against the shortcomings of the Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP) model (Ellis, 2005; Harmer, 2001; Sanchez, 2008, 2010, 2013).

In the same way sequencing was not granted interest until the heydays of CLT, vocabulary research did not bloom until the 1990s. The shift in perspective from grammar to vocabulary throughout the history of ELT provided new understandings of materials development in the language classroom. The importance of vocabulary and grammar in language learning is better understood in the light of Harmer’s (2001) confirmation, “if language structures make up the skeleton of language, then it is vocabulary that provides the vital organs and the flesh” (p. 153). While Grammar was the focal study area for second language research up to the 1980s, vocabulary as Meara (1995) emphasizes “has mushroomed enormously” (p. 11), and turned to be the centre of research in the last three decades. This progress has settled vocabulary in the core of emerging theories where “vocabulary knowledge is indispensable to acquire grammar” (Malvern, Richards, Meara, & Milton, 2008, p. 270).

The importance of vocabulary as a basic constructive block of any language and a requisite element in language mastery is widely accepted (Alderson 2005; Coady and Huckin 1997; Milton 2009). VK grasps its importance from the relevance of the majority of
meanings in language on vocabulary to be managed, as Read (2000) emphasizes “words are the basic building block of language, the units of meaning from which larger structures such as sentences, paragraphs and whole text are formed” (p. 1). Nation (1990) also confirms from the point of view of learners that they see vocabulary as a very, if not the most, important aspect in language learning. This learner belief results from the difficulties faced at receptive and productive levels because of lacking the requisite VK.

Opposite to the recent vocabulary trending fashion, grammar was the focus of language teaching and research for decades. The importance of grammar in language teaching is recognized through the role it was assigned in various teaching methodologies. Crystal (2004) emphasizes that GK is fundamental to the whole process of language learning because it guides the learners towards accurate use of the target language and more understanding of the nature of language. Richards and Renandya (2002) confirm the vital role that grammar plays in the entire process of language learning since “people now agree that grammar is too important to be ignored, and that without a good knowledge of grammar, learners’ language development will be severely constrained” (p. 145).


1.2. Statement of the Problem

The small receptive vocabulary size (RVS), productive vocabulary size (PVS), and the poor GA at written sentence level among third year undergraduate students of English as a foreign language (EFL) at the English Language and Literature Department at University
Sétif 2, Algeria, are the main problems under investigation in the current study. Small VS was identified as a learning deficiency in various second and foreign language researches (Laufer, 1998; Meara, 1992, 1996; Milton, 2009; Nation, 2001; Zimmerman, 2004). In this study, the small RVS and PVS are the main vocabulary learning problems under investigation as identified through the scores of a random sample of 97 third year students on two five-level 10,000 words receptive (see Appendix A for further details) and productive (see Appendix B for further details) vocabulary tests. The results of these tests (see appendix C for more details) revealed that the students’ RVS falls between 3000 and 4000 (the second level out of five levels) word families and their PVS falls between 2000 and 3000 (the first level out of five levels) word families which clearly confirm that more than half the words on both tests were unknown and prove that the students have a small RVS and PVS at their third year university level. The poor GA level was identified firstly through a designed grammar test (see appendix D for more details) in which the 97 students scored poorly obtaining 1254 scores only out of 2910, and secondly through an analysis of a random sample of the exam essays (see Appendix E for further details) of 120 students which confirmed poor GA at written sentence level as a serious deficiency in the students’ writing.

1.3. Rationale for the Study

The principle underlying this study is testing the role of various integrated PAS in promoting VS and GA. The focus on integration as a main principle in putting PAS together to provide vocabulary and grammar lessons in this study was motivated by two main reasons. The first reason for the focus on integrating various PAS was the result of the importance of integration in the research literature and the recent calls for using integration in education. By definition, integration is used in education to present the idea of making links and applying learning in a variety of contexts (Brown Leonard, 2007; Huber & Hutchings, 2004; Huber, Hutchings, Gale, Miller, and Breen, 2007a). For decades, the practice in language teaching
and materials development was based on following the principles of particular approaches and methods and defend the efficiency of one method against another (Richards, 2001). According to Leskes (2004), integration in education should “take its rightful place alongside breadth and depth as a hallmark of a quality undergraduate education” (p. iv). The main advantage of using integration is the potential of offering a wide range of alternatives to the language teacher to meet the learners’ needs.

After decades of language teaching, Nunan (1991) confirms that “it has been realized that there never was and probably never will be a method for all” (p.228). This statement shapes the practice in language teaching which obviously builds on testing different methods for their efficiency in supporting the overall process of language teaching and learning. Although the plethora of PAS compete to present the best model of language teaching in practice, this competition is fruitful because it permits teachers and materials designers to choose from a wide range of possibilities. However, scholars (Harmer, 2001; Littlejohn, 1992, 1998; Sanchez, 2008, 2013; Tomlinson, 1998; Tomlinson, Bao, Masuhara, and Rubdy, 2001) agree that the PPP pattern dominates the structure of language teaching materials. This domination of the PPP pattern suggests that little if any room was offered to the use of other PAS in language teaching. This is the view of Sanchez (2008) who confirms that “none of the sequencing models proposed have been tested in the classroom as part of a research study” (p. 3). The focus of this study is on testing the efficiency of six PAS in vocabulary and grammar teaching in the EFL classroom through integration.

The second reason for integrating various PAS in the context of this study was the results of a conducted observation in the Oral Expression (OE) and grammar classrooms in the aim of identifying the PAS that teachers use in vocabulary and grammar teaching (see section 3.5.1. for further details). Three teachers of OE at third year level were observed during 15 observation sessions of 3 hours each, and three teachers of grammar at first and second year
levels were observed throughout 15 observation sessions of an hour and a half each. The qualitative analysis of the obtained observation data revealed that the PPP pattern was the only pattern of activity sequencing used in vocabulary and grammar teaching (see section 5.2.2. and 5.2.3 for further details). Based on the observation findings which confirmed the one pattern use, this study uses the principle of integration of various PAS.

The rationale for the focus on VS in this study is the importance of vocabulary as the “enabling knowledge” requisite for success in other areas of language proficiency (Laufer and Nation, 1999). Lack of VS hinders the learners from accomplishing the task of successful communication in the target language; whereas, the larger and richer the learners’ VS, the more the learners feels expressed (Lessard-Clouston, 1996; Lewis, 1993; Nation, 2001, 2007; Read, 2000; Schmitt, 2010; Zimmerman, 1997). Meara (1992) opines:

All other things being equal, learners with big vocabularies are more proficient in a wide range of language skills than learners with smaller vocabularies, and there is some evidence to support the view that vocabulary skills make a significant contribution to almost all aspects of L2 proficiency. (p. 37)

Although vocabulary depth is a main constituent in understanding VK dimensions, Laufer (1998) emphasized that the importance of VS constitutes a fundamental unit in establishing pedagogical and theoretical grounds of vocabulary teaching and learning. Examining the VS of language learners interferes valuably into language research and pedagogy. The data obtained out of studying the learner’s VS represent indicators of the quality and practicality of a specific lexical syllabus along its constituents such as materials development and selection, teaching and assessing methods, learning strategies, and the alternative syllabus. The principle underlying this study is for pedagogical purposes since the main concern is on investigating the role of integrating specific PAS- particularly the deep-end strategy pattern,
the task-based pattern, and the scenario-based pattern, in promoting RVS and PVS of EFL learners.

Further, the reason that generated the focus on GA in this study is its significant importance for teachers and learners. This importance is recognized in assuring the expression of the intended meanings and avoiding communication ambiguity and breakdowns (Larsen-Freeman, 2003; Lush, 2002). It is also recognized in identifying different levels of language ability among the learners because it is a main element that assessment considers to judge the performance of learners (Homburg, 1984; Skehan, 1998; Thornbury, 2006). GA in writing plays a crucial role in assessing the overall quality of written productions and their communicativeness (Larsen-Freeman, 2003, Thornbury, 2006). Hence, testing GA evokes the learners’ grammatical performance and their ability to use their GK to convey meanings in contextual use. Based on this importance of GA in grammar teaching and assessment, this study integrates the PPP, the focus on form, and the Engage-Study-Activate (ESA) patterns in the aim of promoting GA at written sentence structure level.

1.4. Aims of the Study

This study has two main aims. The first aim is to investigate the role of integrating the deep-end strategy, the task-based, and the scenario-based patterns in promoting RVS and PVS. The second main aim is to investigate the role of integrating the PPP, the focus on form, and the ESA patterns in promoting GA at written sentence level. As a secondary aim, this study seeks to examine the relationship between RVS, PVS, and GA through correlation measures.

1.5. Research Questions and Hypotheses

Based on the body of literature on PAS, VS, and GA, and following the aims of the study, this study seeks to answer the following questions:

1. What PAS do EFL teachers use to teach vocabulary in the EFL classroom?
2. What PAS do EFL teachers use to teach grammar in the EFL classroom?

3. To what extent does the integration of various PAS promote RVS?

4. To what extent does the integration of various PAS promote PVS?

5. To what extent does the integration of various PAS promote GA at written sentence structure level?

6. What is the relationship between RVS, PVS and GA as revealed through the scores on the used vocabulary and grammar tests?

Following the methodological framework of this research and building on the above stated research aims and questions, the current study states the following hypotheses and their rejecting counterparts:

**Hypothesis One**

The integration of the deep-end strategy pattern, the task-based pattern, and the scenario-based pattern in teaching vocabulary may promote RVS.

**Null hypothesis One**

The integration of the deep-end strategy pattern, the task-based pattern, and the scenario-based pattern in teaching vocabulary does not promote RVS.

**Hypothesis Two**

The integration of the deep-end strategy pattern, the task-based pattern, and the scenario-based pattern in teaching vocabulary may promote PVS.

**Null Hypothesis Two**

The integration of the deep-end strategy pattern, the task-based pattern, and the scenario-based pattern in teaching vocabulary does not promote PVS.
Hypothesis Three

The integration of the PPP pattern, the focus on form pattern, and the ESA pattern in teaching grammar may promote GA at the written sentence structure level.

Null hypothesis Three

The integration of the PPP pattern, the focus on form pattern, and the ESA pattern in teaching grammar does not promote GA at written sentence level.

Hypothesis Four

There may be a significant correlation between RVS, PVS, and GA.

Null hypothesis Four

There is no significant correlation between RVS, PVS, and GA.

1.6. Scope of the Study

Following the principle of integration which underlies the current study, six PAS were integrated in order to promote RVS, PVS, and GA. The results emerging from this integration are applicable only to the integrated patterns in the context of this study. Further, this integration was not fulfilled through integrating the PAS in developing the same lessons, but through structuring each lesson using the principles of each of the patterns subject to integration and sequential presentation of the lessons. This method of integration permits to evaluate the overall role of integrating the various PAS which is the main concern of the present research as well as the particular evaluation of each integrated pattern although this goes beyond the interest of this study. Because the study of the role of each of the integrated PAS to teach vocabulary and grammar necessitates a longitudinal study and taking into
consideration that this study is cross-sectional, the integration of the six PAS was researched to examine their role in promoting VS and GA as a whole.

The current study followed the quasi-experimental method in order to collect data using quantitative measurements. Unlike the true experimental design method, conducting quasi-experiments raises questions about the validity of the results. However, in this study, several measures were taken to reduce the effect of confounding variables including the assignment of the subjects into the quasi-experiment groups and the control of individual and extraneous variables nonmanipulable in the investigation. The time set for providing the treatment phases in the quasi-experiment on VS was a semester of 13 weeks and 12 weeks for the pre-experiment on GA. These intervention periods could not generate enough data on the growth of RVS, PVS, and GA, yet the intensive continuous provided treatments could significantly indicate changes in these variables.

1.7. Significance of the Study

The new perspective emerging from this study is the integration of various PAS in vocabulary and grammar teaching in the EFL classroom. It is an attempt to fill in a gap in materials development through integrating various PAS against the use of the one pattern-based language teaching. Accordingly, the present study is of benefit to teachers since it increases their awareness about the need to use various PAS to present vocabulary and grammar lessons. Teachers would profit from the findings of this study because it provides suggestions and guidelines about various PAS and their implementation in the EFL classroom to review their overall vocabulary and grammar teaching. This study is also of importance to learners since vocabulary and grammar are main elements to define their language proficiency level. It would raise their awareness about the necessity for a large VS and grammatically accurate sentence structure to successfully use the target language.
1.8. Thesis Organization

This thesis is divided into six chapters. The first chapter is the introduction which specifies the problem under investigation and its theoretical background, the rationale for the study and its scope and significance, and states the research questions and hypotheses. The second chapter provides a theoretical analysis of PAS, VK, and GK as the main research variables under investigation. Chapter three discusses the research methodology of the study through presenting the research design, participants, instruments, and the procedures of data collection and analyses. Chapter four describes the conducted quasi-experimental study on the integration of various PAS in vocabulary and grammar teaching. Chapter five presents the findings of the study in respect to the stated research questions along discussions of these results in the light of the stated research hypotheses. And chapter five presents conclusions, implications of the study, and recommendations for future research. The next chapter will provide a review of the literature on the research variables under investigation in this study.
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CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

2.1. Introduction

A simple theoretical foundation of the current study was provided in the previous chapter. This chapter discusses the relevant literature to the three variables under investigation in the present study. The preliminary part of this chapter discusses sequencing as a research area under materials development. The chapter presents sequencing in ELT and analyses the conceptualization of the term with a classification of the various PAS that respond to the trends of language teaching. The chapter then discusses VS and GA through describing the nature and dimensions of VK and GK along the strands and patterns of vocabulary and grammar teaching.

2.2. Understanding the Concept of ‘Integration’ in Language Teaching

The concept of integration could be understood in different ways depending on the elements subject to integration. The principle underlying ‘integration’ in language teaching is better understood in Oxford’s (2001) understanding of language teaching as a ‘tapestry’ made up of “many strands, such as the characteristics of the teacher, the learner, the setting, and the relevant languages (i.e., English and the native languages of the learners and the teacher)” (p. 1). The quality of this tapestry is determined by the extent to which the stated characteristics and others are positively interwoven. Another crucial strand besides the above stated four strands according to Oxford (2001) is the four language skills strand and the associated skills such as vocabulary and grammar. She uses the term “integrated-skill approach” to stand for the process of interweaving the skills together during instruction (p. 2).
The integrated-skill approach is also referred to as ‘integrated language teaching’ (Hinkel, 2010, Richards, 2013). Hinkel (2010) explains that the main focus of integrated language teaching is on the integration of the four language skills in order to advance the proficiency of language learners in the target language. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), integrated language teaching engages the learners in communicative situations that permit the easy attainment of learning objectives. Further, Hinkel (2010) explains that integrated language teaching is usually associated with the development of CLT and just like the audiolingual method; it constitutes a major innovation in language teaching. Content-based (also referred to as theme-based), task-based, project-based, discourse-based, and competency-based instruction just to name a few are examples of integrated language teaching models. These models and their underlying principles go beyond the focus of the current study except for task-based teaching which is discussed under the PAS.

The principle underlying this study is on picking up various PAS and language learning activities (LLA) from different ELT methods to design language lessons. This practice is better explained in Tarone and Yule’s (1989) words:

There has emerged a general movement toward eclecticism of picking and choosing some procedures from one methodology, some techniques from another, and some exercise formats from yet another. This approach seems to us to represent a reasonable response from the practicing teacher who is typically concerned, on a day-to-day basis with whether specific procedures or exercises seem to ‘work’ well for a particular group of students, rather than whether the lesson format might fit to some theory. (p. 10)

Eclecticism then is the selection of lesson elements in terms of the teaching methodology, techniques to implement the teaching method, and LLA from a variety of resources. As such, the
The main advantage of using eclecticism is the potential of offering a wide range of alternatives to the language teacher. Included in this variety of options is the wealth of LLA available and the various PAS to arrange these activities.

Eclecticism or the eclectic method emerged in the 1990s out of the continuous interest in finding the best language teaching methodologies as Kumaravadivelu (1994) explains, “as long as we are caught up in the web of method, we will continue to get entangled in an unending search for an unavailable solution, … a search [which] drives us to continually recycle the same old ideas …” (p. 28). By definition, eclecticism means to use the best offered practices from a variety of resources. Because no language teaching method was perfectly covering the needs of language teachers and learners, eclecticism or principled eclecticism (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Mellow, 2002) was introduced to represent a desirable, coherent, and pluralistic approach to language teaching and learning. As such, Tarone and Yule (1989) insist that eclecticism “involves a philosophy of local solutions to local problems” (p. 10). This means that language teaching should respond to the demands of the learners through selecting from a variety of alternatives.

This eclectic approach in language teaching was supported by many scholars (Brumfit, 1984; Crombie, 1985; Swain, 1990; Tarone and Yule, 1989; Willis, 1990) mainly at the level of syllabus design. Swain (1990) points out that “how we organize a given lesson will therefore depend very much on the specific point we want to teach” (p. 90). Inherent in this lesson organization is the selection of the teaching methodology to progress through the lesson stages. Therefore, the practice in this study is eclectic since various PAS and their underlying principles along a variety of LLA from different resources were used in order to design lessons for vocabulary and grammar teaching. At the same time, integrated language teaching is not
excluded since the four language skills were invested to create appropriate contexts of the target language use. Hence, while eclecticism permitted the selection of various PAS to design language lessons, integrated language teaching helped to expose the learners to authentic use and natural interaction in the language.

2.3. Materials Development and Activity Sequencing

By definition, materials represent a wide range of resources that teachers use for different purposes in the language classroom. Tomlinson (2012) defines materials as “anything which can be used to facilitate the learning of a language, including coursebooks, videos, graded readers, flash cards, games, websites and mobile phone interactions” (p. 143). Although the overall aim of these materials is to facilitate the language learning process, Tomlinson (2012) specified five functions for the use of materials. First, materials could be used to inform the learners about the target language. Second, they could be used to instruct the learners in practicing the target language. Third, materials could be used to offer opportunities for experiencing language use. Fourth, materials motivate the learners to use the target language. The last function for materials use is stimulating the curiosity of learners to explore about the language. These functions should be taken into consideration when developing materials in the language classroom.

Materials development could be understood in two different ways. First, Tomlinson (2012) define it as “all the processes made use of by practitioners who produce and/or use materials for language learning, including materials evaluation, their adaptation, design, production, exploitation and research” (pp. 143-144). This definition focuses on understanding materials development as an academic field that studies the principles and procedures of designing, writing, implementing, evaluating, and analyzing of learning materials. Materials development is also understood as an academic field of research that examines the principles and
procedures undertaken for the development of learning materials. The aim of developing materials is to make the process of language acquisition and development easier. This implies that these materials should be developed to learn the language instead of focusing on teaching the language. Overall, the understanding of materials development could be shaped in both theory and practice. In theory, materials development examines the main principles that underlie materials design, organization, use, analysis and evaluation. In practice, materials development includes the three main activities of producing, evaluating, and adapting materials.

The importance of the area of materials development is recognized when considering the growth of language teaching approaches, methods, and techniques over a hundred years of practice. In fact, every language teaching method constituted a shift from previous methods in terms of teaching materials and techniques. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), “instructional materials generally serve as the basis of much of the language input that learners receive and the language practice that occurs in the classroom” (p. 251). A common understanding of the importance of materials development stems from the role it plays in shaping the personal and professional development of teachers as well as improving their knowledge about theories of language learning (Tomlinson, 2001, p. 67). In the context of the current study, materials development constitutes a core research area because of the focus on materials development at the level of LLA design, adapting and organization under specific PAS. Hence, sequencing and LLA are core areas under materials development.

A controversial issue that rises when discussing the area of LLA is the lack of consistency in the terms used to refer to different learner language actions (Crookes, 1986). Precisely, there is a lack of consensus in understanding the terms ‘activity’, ‘exercise’, ‘task’ and ‘drill’ since all of them represent devices used to extract the language of the learner, but each of
them is used for a different purpose and produces different results. The term ‘activity’ has been used to present the parts of a lesson, as well as the teacher’s behaviours in the classroom. The term ‘task’ has been used to stand for less-guided learning activities responsible for generating free learner language production. A further distinction was elicited between ‘exercises’ being the devices used to elicit learners’ development and noticing of different language form aspects, and ‘tasks’ as language integrating devices. Widdowson (1998) further distinguishes between ‘exercises’ and ‘tasks’ in terms of the language meaning conveyed since ‘tasks’ are concerned with pragmatic meaning while ‘exercises’ are focusing on semantic meaning. This implies that while “tasks” deal with discourse functions, “exercises” are more concerned with understanding language in context. A further distinction between ‘exercises’ and ‘tasks’ lies in the focus of each with ‘exercises’ concentrating on providing examples to solve the stated language problems and ‘tasks’ on finding solutions to problems through the learner’s language itself.

For the purpose of the current research, Richards and Lockhart’s (1996) definition of ‘activity’ as “a task that has been selected to achieve a particular teaching/learning goal” (p. 161) will be used. This definition is practical because it combines the element of selection which constitutes a principle in the current study at the level of choosing particular activities to sequence under specific patterns, and the element of achievement of the objectives set for a lesson which is also reflected in the designed lessons following the selected PAS.

Sequencing constitutes a major research concern under materials development because it focuses on both aspects of content organization and language teaching methodologies. Historically speaking, the term ‘sequencing’ from the English word ‘sequence’ is derived from an ancient Latin word ‘sequent’ which means ‘following’. Sequencing in second language acquisition (SLA) research stands for the order of language forms presentation in the acquisition
process. Hence, sequence and order are often used interchangeably in SLA research (Ellis, 2001; Sanchez, 2008). However, sequencing in EFL teaching is far from the meaning of order understood in the context of SLA; it rather has two meanings: the first meaning stands for the method of arranging learning content for students in terms of selecting knowledge to provide, and the second meaning is concerned with the process followed to present a particular content. Sanchez (2008) distinguishes clearly between the two aforementioned meanings stating that the first is ordering of syllabus content which means the teaching “what”, and the second is sequencing as ordering of activities or teaching “how”.

The first meaning of sequencing includes both the whole material presenting syllabus content and the lessons or sections revealing the syllabus content within the material. Breen (1987a) explains this first meaning as follows:

Sequencing […] involves the marking out of the content along a path of development. This is achieved often in a step-by-step way through more immediate or pre-requisite objectives towards some overall achievement. Sequencing may be cyclic, where the path from ‘A’ to ‘B’ is drawn as a widening spiral. (p. 83)

Breen’s definition distinguishes clearly between syllabus content sequencing and the step-by-step content which means the individual units or lessons within the material presenting the whole content. Further, defining the parameters that guide syllabus design and content sequencing in a syllabus provided further understandings of sequencing. For example, sequencing for Nunan (1988b) stands for “determining the order in which syllabus content will be taught. Content can be sequenced according to difficulty, frequency, or the communicative needs of the learners” (p. 159).
The focus on the units or lessons used to present syllabus content with the overall understanding of sequencing as content ordering has raised another understanding of sequencing. To exemplify, Williams (1983) specifies a set of criteria that combines pedagogical and linguistic language components for textbook presentation, in which vocabulary was understood in terms of content sequencing through “the sequencing of vocabulary, particularly the functional load, rate and manner of entry and re-entry” (p. 252). Correspondingly, Skierso (1991, p. 437) provides ordering parameters for grammar and vocabulary content in a textbook analysis guide including difficulty and usefulness of specific aspects.

The second meaning of sequencing which builds on the ordering of activities or the teaching “how” and which is used for the context of the present study is also understood in the context of syllabus design. However, the first proposals of syllabus designs and evaluation checklists do not tackle the ordering of activities as a main criterion. A good point in case is the evaluations provided in Stevick (1971), Tucker (1978), Daoud and Celce-Murcia (1979) and the revised works of Byrd (1995a, 1995b) and Hall (2001) since none of these works provides reference to sequencing understood as the ordering of learning activities. Included also is the textbook evaluation criteria of Williams (1983) in which sequencing is stated in the last criterion “relevance to socio-cultural environment” but with no clear reference to sequencing as ordering of activities.

Against this total neglect of activities in the understanding of sequencing as ordering of activities, some evaluation checklists refer indirectly to the meaning of sequencing as ordering of activities but with no clear statement of sequencing. In these checklists, sequencing was associated with the traditional PPP pattern as in Mariani’s (1983) checklist, Cunningsworth’s (1984, 1995) evaluation criteria lists, and Tomlinson’s (1999) evaluation. In Sheldon’s (1987)
ELT textbooks evaluation and Skierso’s (1991) checklist, sequencing was understood as grading following the stages of the PPP pattern. The same analysis is provided in Littlejohn’s (1992, 1998) analytical model of ELT in which sequencing is understood within the stages of the PPP pattern. Littlejohn (1992) explains, “Sequencing of tasks in the materials is characterized by a movement from teacher/materials presentation, through practice activities towards freer, often game-like, tasks” (p. 82). Thus, the stages of presentation, practice, and production define clearly the understanding of sequencing as ordering of activities in Littlejohn’s (1992) model. Similarly, sequencing as ordering of activities is not mentioned in checklists where sequencing is included as a section as in Dubin and Olshtain’s (1986) checklist in which the section of sequencing/grading stands for syllabus content sequencing. Nevertheless, in Hutchinson’s (1987) textbook evaluation checklist, sequencing is included but analyzed indirectly to addresses some major aspects of sequencing as ordering of activities such as the objectives from selecting particular activities and activity types.

Sequencing as ordering of activities became an explicit research interest in FLT after the methodological changes brought about with CLT against the structural approach. However, Richards’ (1993) analytical article on materials do not address sequencing while his (1998) section “Developing Criteria for Evaluating Textbooks” discusses sequencing in a very limited way related to changing the sequence of activities as a pedagogical factor influencing classroom decision-making. This latter idea of changing the sequence of activities is clear in Richards’ (2001) statement: “[...] within a unit the teacher may decide not to follow the sequence of activities in the unit but to reorder them for a particular reason” (p. 260). In a more recent understanding, sequencing as ordering of activities is presented as a second stage of lesson planning in Richards and Bohlke (2011) section “Your lesson is a coherent sequence of learning
activities that link together to form a whole” in which some sequencing patterns such as the PPP and the task-based patterns and some criteria for activity type selections were provided.

The origin of interest in activity sequencing issues dates back to the phase of traditional approaches, mainly the Structural Methods- the audio-lingual method and the Structural-situational method (Sanchez, 2013). Firstly, the audio-lingual method builds up a lesson in the following way: first a model dialog containing key lesson structures is presented and followed by individual and chorus repetition, with immediate teacher feedback supplied and no textbook reference. The students then adapt the dialog into their own situations and drills with specific focus on some selected patterns and reference for textbooks is allowed. Finally, follow-up reading, writing and vocabulary activities are presented through drills often in the language laboratory.

Secondly, the Situational Method designs and presents lessons through the three phase sequence of PPP. The presentation phase involves presenting the new grammar structure in a short text or conversation; the practice phase focuses on using the new learnt structure through guided activities using drills and substitutions; and the production phase is meant for developing fluency in the use of the target structure through more practice within various contexts created often building on the learners’ information.

Under classic CLT, new agendas for teaching practices and lesson structure had emerged. Emphatically, the grammar, drills, and pronunciation activities did not expire from communicative textbooks, but were integrated within both fluency and accuracy sequences of activities depending on the task objectives. Richards (2006) has also explained that advocates of CLT divided practice into three kinds- mechanical in which learners may accomplish a controlled task successfully, even if they do not understand the language used; meaningful where
language use is still under control but learners are asked to make meaningful decisions; and communicative in which activities that focus on real communicative contexts for language use. Consequently, activity sequencing under CLT follows the mechanical-meaningful-communicative pattern.

In order to meet the requirements of the practice activity sequencing pattern of mechanical-meaningful-communicative, a plethora of activities that typify CLT was provided to. Firstly, CLT insisted on the notion of information gap which stands for the information known to people via their communication with others, and used specific activities to achieve a complete communication, such as role play cue cards in which students provide each other with needed information, or a jigsaw activity in which the class is divided into two groups and each group has part of the information to complete the activity. Other activity types include task-completion, information-gathering, opinion-sharing, information-transfer, reasoning gap, and role-plays activities. There is to emphasize that most of the previously stated activities are carried out in pairs or through group work and that authentic materials should be used to effectively and successfully maintain the task of communication. (Richards, 2006)

Current CLT represents the current various practices and methodologies of the accumulated theory and diverse resources in language teaching. In fact, this phase has reshaped teaching methodologies through making use of all the available theory. Classroom activities were characterized by using authentic materials to present content that is relevant to learners’ interests and life in order to integrate communicative and grammatical competences and develop communication and negotiation of meaning through problem solving, information exchange, and role play. The activities were also characterized by providing both inductive and deductive
modes for grammar presentation, and permitting learners to apply their learning to their life contexts. (Richards, 2006)

2.4. Patterns of Activity Sequencing in Language Teaching

In the last one hundred years, the history of ELT has evolved around finding out best ways of teaching the language as a second or foreign language. In the area of materials design, most of the suggested PAS in teaching English as a foreign language were proposed against the shortcomings of the PPP pattern. This latter cannot be totally excluded or wholly dominate language teaching practices. The use of the PPP model in structuring lessons is no surprise if a diagnosis of the positive characteristics of the pattern provided by researchers (Ellis, 1988; Lewis, 1993; Read, 1985; Skehan, 1996) in the area of materials development is undertaken. However, the PPP pattern was criticized in Lewis’ (1996) words as “Any paradigm based on, or remotely resembling, Present-Practice-Produce (PPP) is wholly unsatisfactory, failing, as it does to reflect either the nature of language or the nature of learning” (p. 11). The various PAS introduced in language teaching were a reaction against the shortcomings of the PPP pattern as well as an embodiment of the principles of language teaching approaches and methods that they represent.

2.4.1. Structural-based Activity Sequencing Patterns

Structural language teaching adapted the PPP pattern as the main language teaching model. The PPP pattern presents the traditional pattern of activity sequencing that has been used in many foreign language course books and is still valid today (Sanchez, 2013). As a three-part teaching paradigm, this pattern as Sanchez (2008) points out is formed of “a cognitive order of explanation and assimilation; practice and consolidation and final transference” (p. 2). Building on the principles of Situational Language Teaching (SLT) developed in the 1970s and 1980s, the
PPP pattern is not a ‘method’ or an ‘approach’ as Sanchez (2013) explains against the labels of some authors (Skehan, 1998), but “a pedagogical strategy at the teacher’s disposal to teach language items which seem to be more suitable for adult language instruction contexts” (Sanchez, 2013, p. 99).

According to Ur (1996, p.19), the PPP pattern builds on the principles of behaviourism which considers language learning just like any other skill. In language teaching methodologies, the PPP pattern emerged from SLT which is an oral systematic method developed by British applied linguists in the 1930’s to 1960’s represented by Palmer and Hornby due to the strong call for focusing on the presentation and practice of language through situations. The main focus of SLT was on controlling vocabulary and grammar following the overall tendency of the 1920’s that emphasized the development of systematic principles of selecting, sequencing and then introducing materials to language learners. Consequently, the focus on structure under SLT imposed the use of the sequencing pattern of presentation through aural and teacher modeling exposure in P1; drills or guided use in P2; and the production of the studied structures in the previous steps in different situations in P3.

This organization of the three steps in the PPP pattern is shown through the classic text of Byrne (1986) starting by the teacher presenting the new language points; the learners practicing the points; and producing the language points for themselves expressing their own interests and ideas. There is to ascertain in this respect that this organization of the three P’s is subject to change depending as Byrne (1986) explains on “the level of the students, their needs and the type of the teaching materials used” (p. 3), reproducing the order into production, presentation, and practice. Hence, the common core idea for both teachers and learners within the PPP pattern is
practice to perfect performance, and allow the teacher to control the pace and content of the teaching process (Thornbury, 1999).

In his definition of the model, Tomlinson (1998b) clarifies that the PPP pattern is “an approach to teaching language items which follows a sequence of presentation of the item, practice of the item and then production (i.e. use) of the item” (p. xii). This implies that the teacher’s role is clear and concord with the natural relations found in the classroom. In fact, the high degree of teacher presence in the first and second stages of presentation and practice through controlling the proceeding of activities lessens at the production stage as learners are given opportunities to produce and understand freely (Read, 1985, p. 17). The mode of instruction in the PPP pattern is deductive in which the teacher presents the target structure explicitly to learners in the first stage of presentation, so as to ease its access to their short-term memory and allow them to reuse it in the practice and production stages later on (Ur, 1996, p. 12).

The three stages of the model are presented by Sanchez (2013) as follows: first, the presentation phase (P1) which is characterized by the teacher’s control of the teaching/learning situations, and the use of materials containing the linguistic items and structures in the unit. This is done through both a deductive mode in which the teacher is a model in providing the items or structures and their meanings, and an inductive mode in which the learners are offered with samples of structures and contextualized items and try to induce the rules and structures. Second, the Practice phase (P2) which is also highly controlled by the teacher, since he/she checks whether the items presented in the first phase are clearly understood. The focus is on accuracy of forms by means of targeting the linguistic structures introduced in the presentation phase, aiming at achieving fluency at the last stage through drills as a dominating form of activities. And third,
the Production phase (P3) where students are free to produce the linguistic items presented and practiced in the previous stages through a varied set of activities in the aim of increasing fluency in the production of linguistic items.

2.4.2. Communicative-based Activity Sequencing Patterns

CLT has gone through two major phases, classic communicative language teaching and current communicative language teaching. Following the tenets stated for the approach under each phase, a distinction can be drawn between two proposals for PAS. First, classic communicative language teaching proposed the early communicative activity sequencing pattern as indicated in the works of Brumfit (1979), Johnson (1982), and Byrne (1986). According to Sanchez (2008, p. 131), the three works presented the same PAS. Included under the early communicative patterns is Littlewood’s (1981) model. Second, current CLT proposed a variety of patterns in response to the developments in SLA.

The pattern presented by Brumfit (1979) presents the first CLT radical move from the traditional structural PPP pattern. The main difference is revealed at the level of ordering of the stages of the pattern through a Production-Presentation-Practice scheme, and the two last stages used if found necessary. Brumfit (1979) builds his “post-communicative model” on the language use and fluency criteria since he argues that the purpose of language is use and learners should start using it to reach fluency. The major advantage of this model according to Brumfit (1979) is permitting learners to take control of their learning, since teaching content stresses on the needs of learners as revealed at the first stage. In criticism to the traditional PPP pattern, Brumfit (1979) claims out that language is isolated in a way that leaves no access to learn a language within the, ‘cognitive and cultural processes in which it is embedded” (p. 189). Consequently, the focus on fluency as one of the key principles of CLT provides the alternative needed for
language learning to resemble language use in real life situations, and fosters learner-centeredness in the classroom.

In view of Brumfit’s “post-communicative model”, Johnson (1982) refers to the same pattern as a “deep end strategy” which also supports the tendency towards language use as the starting point for language learning. The risks that learners take through engaging in communicative activities at the first stage may rely on using inappropriate resources, and the learners are “thrown in at the deep end” (Johnson, 1982, p. 193). The pattern is a reverse to the traditional PPP pattern as shown in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage 1</th>
<th>Students’ communication using available resources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stage 2</td>
<td>Teacher’s presentation of necessary items</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 3</td>
<td>Students’ practice if necessary</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Johnson (1982) explains the main privilege of the pattern for learners indicating that “the deep end strategy should develop in the student a type of confidence essential to learning a foreign language: the confidence to attempt to say something which he knows he does not really know how to say” (p.196). This implies that teachers are awarded a diagnostic opportunity to identify the weak aspects in their learners’ production and treat them through immediate remedy. Johnson (1982) explains the importance of starting with the production stage through the teacher’s difficulties in diagnosing the gaps in the learners’ knowledge before they expose it. Hence, prediction of the language that the learners “may have wanted to use” as Johnson (1982, p. 198) puts it is believed to help teachers at the planning stage. In a more recent understanding of the pattern, Johnson (1996) builds the deep end strategy on Anderson’ declarative vs. Procedural
model for language teaching with the production stage standing for declarative knowledge and the last two stages of presentation and practice presenting procedural knowledge.

The third proposal that presents the early CLT pattern is Byrne’s (1986) suggestion which combines the traditional PPP pattern and the proposals of Brumfit (1979) and Johnson (1982). The combination of both sequences when practiced relies on the factors of “the level of the students, their need and the type of teaching materials used” (Byrne, 1986, p. 3). Consequently, this implementation ends up in using the first stage of production without any limits.

Considered with the early proposals is Littlewood’s (1981) contribution which presents the first explicit section on activity sequencing, through distinguishing between two types of activities: Pre-communicative activities and communicative activities. Pre-communicative activities are identified as learning activities for which the main purpose is not engaging the learner in communicating meanings effectively to a partner. The main purpose is rather to urge the learner to produce certain language forms in an accurate way. These pre-communicative activities are divided into two main categories: Structural activities such as drills and question and answer activities, and Quasi-communicative activities such as cued dialogues and roleplays. Pre-communicative activities have an impact on both language and the learners’ performance. The learner works on these activities following the instructions of the teacher through drilling for example in order to practice new language items learnt recently.

The second type of activities as Littlewood (1981) is communicative activities in which “the learner uses the linguistic repertoire he has learnt, in order to communicate specific meanings for specific purposes” (p. 17). Similar to pre-communicative activities, communicative activities are also of two types “functional communication” activities and “social interaction” activities. Functional communication activities are mainly used to help the learners use what they
know of the language to build meanings successfully. Social interaction activities such as role-play and simulation are also built on the main factor that developing a communicative competence requires taking the social meaning of language into consideration. Littlewood (1981) insisted that activities which use functional and social activities could be designed and their success is measured not through the functional effectiveness of the activities only, but through the “acceptability of the forms that are used” (p. 21).

Unlike Brumfit’s (1979) and Johnson’s (1982) proposals, Littlewood’s (1981) proposal of sequencing pre-communicative and communicative activities is more flexible. His proposal builds on two patterns of sequencing the activities: from pre-communicative to communicative or from communicative to pre-communicative activities. Both sequencing patterns include the practice and production stages of the PPP pattern but no presentation stage. This variation in communicative activities sequencing allows the students to better notice the purpose of the pre-communicative activities set into practice and to diagnose the effectiveness of the initial stage.

2.4.3. Task-based Activity Sequencing Patterns

Developed in the mid 1980’s, TBLT is a practical approach classified within the “weak” version of CLA. This approach stresses the idea that tasks done by learners are basic to the learning process. By definition, TBLT stands for “how a learner applies his or her communicative competence to undertake a selection of tasks” (Cerezel, 1996, p. 183). The focus of TBLT is not only set on the task to be completed, but the learners try to figure out which language is required to complete it as well. Every task has a beginning and a conclusion, and is directed towards a specific purpose, being communication or enabling learners to communicate through problem-solving activities. TBLT has the advantage of supporting language usage for
meaningful communication. It further allows the integration of all language skills which permits teachers to facilitate tasks for learners who act as the main source of input.

The organization of lessons into three phases with detailed components for each phase provides teachers with a full picture about effective lesson design under the TBLT methodology. Ellis (2005) explained the three phases of the TBLT methodology based on what is performed at each stage. The pre-task phase is the entrance and a preparatory stage towards the next two phases of the task. In other words, the pre-task is the framework of the whole task since it provides the organization of the task and the objective to be achieved. The second phase ‘during task’ affords the learners with opportunities to use instructional options to work on the task itself. Finally, the ‘post-task’ phase allows the learners to study some of the features tackled in the ‘during task’ phase in order to reinforce the task performance.

Various designs were suggested for a task-based lesson (e.g. Estaire and Zanon, 1994; Nunan, 2004; Skehan, 1996, Willis, 1996), but they were all formed out of three basic phases: pre-task, during-task and post-task. In what follows, only two major models were suggested under TBT: Willis’ task-based pattern and Nunan’s psycholinguistic processing-based pattern. The patterns provided by Estaire and Zanon (1994) and Skehan (1996) are not discussed in this study because the first is about teaching Spanish and the second is designed for teaching English as a second language.

The pattern provided by Willis (1996a, 1996b) presents one of the most comprehensive frameworks of understanding TBLT. This pattern is specifically designed for foreign language teaching contexts and this is the reason it is discussed in the context of the current study. The model builds on providing four key conditions for language learning. These four conditions are:
exposure, opportunities for real use of the language, motivation to use the language, and focus on language.

The pre-task phase focuses on exposing the learners to a comprehensible input as derived from the teacher talk. The opportunities created for language use emerge all through the task cycle phase which represent the during-task phase. The main purpose of creating these opportunities according to Willis (1996a) is to encourage the learners to, “experiment and test hypotheses, to mean what they say and express what they mean in a variety of circumstances” (p.59). During this task cycle phase, teachers should focus on fluency and give less importance to GA because the focus on errors at this stage may cause the learners to lose confidence. This does not mean that GA is totally neglected because it is considered at the “planning” and “report” sub-stages. Motivation is present all along the task and goes within all the stages as Willis (1996a) further explains it “Success in completing the task is in itself a motivation factor” (p.60). The last condition or the language focus represents the after-task stage and drives the learners’ attention to language form in order to avoid fossilization.

As a three-stage model, Willis’ pattern builds on creating flexible opportunities for learning which forms one of the core advantages of TBLT. The pre-task stage serves as an introduction in which Willis (1996b) opines that the topic of the lesson is presented along “a few vital topic-based words and phrases that students are unlikely to know” (p.43). Accordingly, the main focus at this stage is vocabulary. The presentation of the topic could be accomplished through various steps including explicit inductive presentation in which a set of activities is used to aid the learners in learning words and phrases related to the introduced topic. These activities could be treated at an aural or a written mode in which the main objective is raising the learners’ awareness about the lexis of the target language. The second stage that Willis (1996a) refers to as
the task cycle stands for the during-task phase. This stage is the performance of the task through speaking production at the level of planning the task and reporting the speech to the whole class, and through writing which occurs while the learners draft their reports for an oral presentation. The third stage of focus on language is the post-task phase and includes the analysis and practice of the introduced language forms in the task through a set of language awareness repetition of the target structure activities, gap filling while listening, dictionary use exercises, and games on the computer.

Nunan (1985, 1988b, 1989, 2004) proposed the Psycholinguistic Processing Approach (PPA) as a ten-step sequence of activities under TBLT. The sequence is divided into the three main stages of pre-task, during-task, and follow-up phase following the overall framework of TBT. Notably, the pattern was referred to as “activity type categorized according to learner responses” in Nunan’s (1985, 1988b) works, and with slight changes in the (1989, 2004) works, Nunan refers to the same pattern as the PPA. In this pattern, the main concern is on sequencing tasks according to the task requirements at the cognitive and performance levels. This sequencing proceeds through processing which targets comprehension, to production which is controlled under a set of activities, and then interaction which stimulate language use for communication and interaction.

The three stages along the inserted steps constitute three categories of learner responses (processing, productive, and interactive) ordered according to the cognitive and performance demands claimed upon the learners. This proposal supports the view that comprehension goes before production, and that automatisation is the result of graded practice. Both comprehension and production are revealed in the performance of learners through real-life interaction. According to Sanchez (2008), the organization of the PPA sequence is similar to the stages of the
PPP pattern with processing standing for presentation, production representing practice, and interaction referring to production respectively.

2.4.4. Language Awareness Activity Sequencing Patterns

As one major trait of CLT, language awareness stands for the inductive strategies which learners use to perceive, analyze, and produce their own notes of language. Learners become the main monitors of the development process of language awareness, instead of teachers or course books. Van Lier (2001) defines language awareness as an approach which “might include explicit teaching of form, metalinguistic rules, and terminology” (p.347). This awareness - established through teaching learners to notice for themselves the features of the target language, allows learners in consequence to become “curious and positive”, while the resulting awareness after effective noticing is subject to more successful internalization and retrieval (Van Lier, 2001). In terms of language teaching methodology, the language awareness approach is inductively conducted, but with no clearly stated syllabus of language items. Hence, language awareness refers to all the inductive techniques that learners use in the observation, analysis, and production of their own descriptions of the target language patterns (Sanchez, 2008). Yet, unlike other inductive methods, the language awareness approach does not rely on a syllabus stated by a specific list of language items. It rather gives high importance to the creative use of language, and a higher value to the links between the language data that learners create.

The first alternative to the PPP presented under the language awareness approach is Lewis’s (1993, 1996) Observe, Hypothesize and Experiment (O-H-E) pattern. Lewis (1996) builds his conception of this O-H-E alternative on the social nature of language acquisition. Thus, he believes that learners do not learn all the languages they get exposure to and cannot always produce what they have learnt in the classroom. He further claims that the spontaneous and
original use of language in natural situations is what determines language learning success. Lewis (2000) explains that “although learners may participate through speaking, they can also do so perhaps more effectively, by listening, noticing and reflecting” (p.46). The O-H-E is suggested as a paradigm that keeps the abovementioned principle in action during classroom learning contexts. In fact, the O-H-E pattern combines language learning and use awareness with exposure to large scales of comprehensible input to fulfill successful language learning.

At the Observation step, the learners observe the target pattern through being exposed to reading and listening to texts to raise the awareness of learners about specific language forms. The perception of the target forms is very important and decides for the quality of hypotheses construction and experimentation success. Hence, the teacher guides the learners at the observation stage to find out the available regulations and rules in the language input and draw conclusions about it. In the second step of Hypothesizing, the learners construct their own hypothesis about the observed input. Finally, the learners test the validity of their hypothesis in communicative contexts at the Experimentation stage. If the hypothesis faces any limitation at the experimentation stage, the learners review to modify any errors in the pre-knowledge formulated during the observation.

The second pattern introduced under the language awareness approach is Carter and McCarthy’s (1995) Illustration-Interaction-Induction (III) pattern which emphasize on the role of spoken language in EFL learning. In this respect, the PPP pattern as a deductive model was viewed incompetent for teaching informal spoken English Grammar. McCarthy (1998) criticizes the PPP pattern for the main deficiency of guiding learners to replicate the spoken discourse patterns stating “follow-ups in exchanges, transaction boundaries and interruptions, to name but a few features, cannot simply be taught via the traditional ‘three P’s’ methodology” (p.67).
Accordingly, the III pattern builds mostly on the paradox of teaching spoken English through texts that are more indicators of written language features; McCarthy (1998) opines that although teaching speaking is given a greater emphasis, the use of spoken language is restricted to written texts use. To exemplify this paradox, grammatical features typical of spoken language such as verb forms used for narration, vocabulary used during repetition and negotiation, idioms, and indirect speech were analysed against written language features.

Since it builds on the language-awareness approach, the III pattern supports the use of inductive methodologies to foster the overall process of raising the consciousness of learners about the target language structures. At the first stage of illustration, the learners are introduced to real chunks of language as present in spoken language. The teacher should encourage the learners to provide appropriate and motivating answers at this level. At the second stage of Interaction, the learners analyse the material in the light of what they notice under the guidance of their teacher. This stage uses the discourse awareness activities as a stimulus for particular discourse features. The learners then observe the presented discourse features to form their own conceptions of the rules governing the use of the discourse features in question. At the induction stage, the learners build conclusions about the discourse features of the language observed and analysed.

2.4.5. The Scenario-based Pattern

Also known as the strategic interaction pattern, the scenario-based model was suggested by Di Pietro in 1987 under the meaning-based approaches. As an expanded version of role-play activities, the strategic interaction model uses cooperative learning techniques integrated within scenarios as the unit to urge language learners to generate more language. The foundation of the model stems from the understanding of language learning as an activity similar to the variety of
social activities and real life events. This similarity is created by means of learner exposure to
scenarios that foster the use of various approaches to solve a raised problem. Consequently, the
scenario constitutes the basic discourse functional unit to introduce the language elements to the
learners by assimilating the scenario to real interactive situations.

Because the pattern builds on the use of scenarios as key constructs, Di Pietro (1987)
opines “a scenario is a strategic interplay of roles functioning to fulfill personal agendas within a
shared context” (p. 41). In this respect, the strategic interaction builds on how “individuals
develop thinking processes through dialog with other individuals” (p. 4). The scenarios create
opportunities for building discourse among the learners through dialog structure and the
unexpected problematic elements integrated within. Language in itself becomes the medium to
formulate the scenarios and a strategy to attain the specified learning goals.

According to Di Pietro (1987), the element of unexpectedness indicates that “the term
“scenario” will be used to give a label to real-life happenings that entail the unexpected and
require the use of language to solve them” (p. vii). Actually, the unexpectedness of the conflict in
the scenario constitutes the basis for building effective scenarios because they raise learners’
curiosity and push them to think for solutions to the stated dilemma. In consequence, the learners
end up by producing different solutions for the same problem through the use of different
language forms and meanings. Di Pietro (1987) insisted that both teacher and learners profit
from the use of scenarios in view of the created enthusiasm in both through the various teacher
roles and multi-learning opportunities for learners.

The main aim behind the use of scenarios in the strategic interaction pattern according to
Di Pietro (1987) is to drive learners beyond the “routinized performances” through the stated
conflict (p. 80). Besides, the conflict in the scenario must be directly linked to the needs of learners to guarantee its success as Di Pietro (1987) emphasizes “without the element of dramatic tension, a scenario is not likely to be successful, no matter how relevant its theme might be to learner’s functional needs” (p. 3). Given that the nature of the conflict in the scenario influences the way learners work cooperatively to resolve the dilemma, the role of learners under the strategic interaction pattern is diversified to achieve the scenario-stated goals successfully. Notably, the classroom itself under the scenario-based pattern becomes a challenging space for students to think and share the goals behind the problematic scenario.

The whole pattern is composed of three main stages: rehearsal, performance, and debriefing, besides the pre-class preparation stage in which the teacher prepares the role cards necessary to build the scenario. During the rehearsal stage, the learners are asked to form small groups in order to perform the roles assigned in the scenario. The teacher acts as a guide at this stage to direct the learners towards effective understanding of their roles. Then, during the performance stage, the learners act out their roles and perform the stated scenario while the teacher and their classmates watch and follow them. Later, at the debriefing stage, the teacher guides the class in a discussion of the performed scenario. The entire staging of the pattern and the role of the learners as Di Pietro (1987) puts them include:

A further characteristic of a strategic interaction is that the participants do not assume a role as such, but instead interact as themselves, increasing authenticity. Further, while they are given the scenario, they are not told what to say or think. How the interaction plays out therefore, is up to the learners. (p. 50)
Accordingly, the three stages impose a specific range of activities to use in the classroom being: small group work, paired performance, and group discussion. Basic in understanding the spread of roles in the classroom is the debriefing strategy that the teacher and learners use to assist in the performance and successful completion of understanding the conflict within the target scenario.

2.4.6. The Authentic-Restricted-Clarification Pattern

Developed by Scrivener (1994, 1996), the Authentic-Restricted-Clarification (ARC) was proposed against the shortcomings of the PPP pattern in terms of the prescriptive one lesson type provided. Hence, while the PPP is prescriptive in nature, the ARC is descriptive as it suggests a remedy for the PPP prescriptive shortcoming through the implementation of three ways to organize language use in the classroom. These three stages according to Scrivener (1994) include

Restricted Use: (the language available for the learners to use or understand is in some way restricted). Authentic Use: (the language available to the students to use or understand is unrestricted). Clarification and Focus: (The part of the lesson where learners focus in on a language item- to see it, think about it and understand it better). (p. 15)

The main idea behind the pattern is that every lesson should contain a balanced set of activities. Scrivener (1994, 1996) explained the ARC through stating the emphasis of each stage and providing example activities for each stage. At the Authentic stage, the activities are varied between receptive and productive with no limited use of language. Activities at this stage include for example listening to or reading authentic material, and speaking activities in which fluency is prioritized. At the Restricted stage, the activities direct the students to use specific linguistic items through various activities such as gap filling or substitution drills. This stage concentrate as
Sanchez (2008) explains on the aspects of “form, practice, accuracy, testing and display” (p. 153) presented through a set of activities belonging to the four language skills. The clarification stage uses activities that explain the introduced language to the learners either through the teacher explanation or learner discovery. The following set of teaching actions “I tell you”, “I show you”, “I help you find out for yourself”, and “you find out for yourself” are used on a continuum to consolidate the information introduced at the two first stages.

### 2.4.7. The Engage-Study-Activate Pattern

This pattern is proposed by Harmer (1998) and focuses on involving the learners emotionally in order to create effective learning. The idea behind the suggestion of this pattern is the need to set a model that does not exclude other patterns, but works towards filling in the gaps that these patterns have in practice as stated below:

While Task-Based learning is a refreshing and attractive approach to teaching and learning I am not convinced that it is always necessarily the way to teach at all different levels and in all different situations. Nor am I convinced that there is something intrinsically wrong with PPP at certain levels and with certain (restricted) categories of language. There is value, too, in the kinds of discovery approaches advocated by Lewis (op. cit.) and Carter & McCarthy (op. cit.). But what I want, in Scrivener’s words, is a ‘general proposal’ to offer my pre-service trainees, and that general proposal is ESA, which stands for ENGAGE – STUDY – ACTIVATE. (Harmer, 1998, p. 2)

This implies that the whole model does not look for substituting the PPP pattern, but rather tries to insist on its use for teaching less-complex grammatical elements. Moreover, Harmer (1996) points out to the “need to re-position contemporary versions of PPP in a wider methodological
framework” (p. 8). This re-positioning could suit more complex levels mainly when the teacher does not have to interfere through a detailed presentation.

The ESA proposal consists of three stages which must be present at the time of application with possible permission to modify the order of the stages. Harmer (2001) further claims out that the three stages are present in every lesson. The Engagement stage shapes the whole pattern and differentiates it from other patterns. The teacher according to Harmer (1998) has to “arouse the students’ interest [and] their emotions” (p. 25). The engagement of the learners actively in the lesson through creating interest via emotional stimulation requires the use of specific materials such as dramatic stories or songs and anecdotes. The study stage consists of driving the attention of learners to linguistic forms. This phase in the sequence as Harmer (1996) explained is equivalent to the practice stage of the PPP pattern. The teacher draws the focus of learners to the target form through explanations while the learners practice the form in activities. The activate stage is the final stage in which learners use the language to communicate their ideas and feelings freely. Hence, learners use the appropriate language to meet the requirements of the situation. The teacher has to encourage the learners to use their knowledge of the language element introduced at the study phase for both receptive and productive situations.

Inherent in the variety of PAS is the wealth of learning activities available and the various methodologies to arrange these activities. Accordingly, the selection of one particular pattern of activity sequencing to teach or to develop materials of learning the target language or specific parts of it personifies the teaching as well as the learning principles of the teacher and/or the materials designer. This selection could be the result of existing theory on the role of the target pattern or the outcome of the teacher’s experience in the target pattern use.
2.5. Vocabulary Knowledge

It is well established in second language research literature that vocabulary is a cornerstone in mastering a second language (e.g. Alderson 2005; Coady and Huckin 1997; Milton 2009). VK grasps its importance from the relevance of the majority of meanings in language on lexis to be managed. Although language learning cannot certainly be minimized to one factor, being vocabulary or any language element such as grammar, intonation, stress and others, the importance of VK in comparison to GK is stressed out because communication breakdowns are mostly caused by lexical errors. For example, a conversation is still maintained when the interlocutors are committing grammatical errors, but fails when vocabulary errors are committed. Harmer (1991, p. 153) also confirms the importance of appropriate word choice in communicative situations over choosing grammatical structures because the learners’ need for VK exceeds their need for grammatical structures. In Wilkins (1972) words, “The fact is that while without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed” (p. 111).

2.5.1. The Nature of Vocabulary Knowledge

Despite the witnessed increase in the research orientation towards vocabulary, consensus on the easiest simple question “What does it mean to know a word?” is not yet reached. As Laufer and Paribakht (1998) claim that “no clear and unequivocal consensus exists as to the nature of lexical knowledge” (p. 366) except for the agreement on the continuum of vocabulary construction perspective. Understanding the nature of VK which builds on answering the question of what it means for a language learner to “know” a word shapes the research core of second language (L2) vocabulary acquisition. Involved in the understanding of VK also is the need for understanding what vocabulary is in the first stand. Foley and Thompson (2003) point
out that “all languages have words, a vocabulary or lexicon” (p. 10). This implies a clear distinction between the terms *word* and *vocabulary* and necessitates understanding both terms in order to define VK.

*Vocabulary* is a basic constructive block of any language, and words are its fundamental elements. By learning words, knowledge of the target language starts to develop because words are considered the primary vehicles of meaning (Vermeer, 2001). Richards and Renandya (2002) argue that vocabulary is the key factor in determining language proficiency and a fundamental element in understanding how language learners process the four language skills. Nation (1999) defines vocabulary as a list of words in a specific language. In other words, vocabulary is the total number of words that fall under the boundaries of a given language. In fact, Cameron (2001) distinguishes “knowing a word” which involves knowledge about a word including knowing about its form (pronunciation, spelling, grammar), its meaning (conceptual meaning and relations to other concepts), and its use (occurrence with other words), and “vocabulary knowing” which focuses on the comprehension of words when spoken or written, their recall, correct use in terms of grammar and context, pronunciation and spelling, words to use with and words not to use with, and connotations. As could be summed up from these understanding of vocabulary, words constitute the central defining unit. Accordingly, a better understanding of vocabulary requires understanding what a ‘*word*’ is in the first place.

Defining the term *word* is not a simple task as scholars (Jackson and Amvela, 2000; Read, 2000; Trask, 1995) agree because although word perception is easy, word definition is hard. This difficulty according to Trask (1995) stems from the fact that “there are the difficulties in the definition of the word because words do not have meanings in isolation, but they are related to the meanings of other words in ways that may be simple or complex” (pp. 46-5. This
dependence on other words to earn a meaning is further complicated when further field considerations interfere as Jackson and Amvela (2000) state “a word, at least, relates to the fields of morphology, semantics, etymology or lexicology” (p. 48). This implies that the understanding of the term ‘word’ depends on its conceptualization in each field.

In order to simplify the task of answering the question “what is a word?” research identified a word from a morphological perspective firstly as a string of letters and secondly as tokens and types. This morphological definition resulted from the notion of lemma which refers to different lexical forms sharing the same stem and fit under the same major word class. As such, lemma of the word take includes take, takes, taking and even the irregular form took and taken. Nation (2001) explains that the term ‘word’ stands for token, type, lemma, and word family. Token stands for words occurring in spoken and written text while type considers repeated tokens as one word. A lemma refers to the inflected forms of a headword while a word family is constructed of the inflected and closely related derived forms of a headword.

The meaning-based defining perspective in which words are considered the primary vehicles of meaning (Vermeer, 2001) further complicated the task of providing a precise definition for the term word since it restricts the definition to the aspect of meaning only. Hence, each word has a meaning, and each unit of meaning can form a separate identifiable meaning from other units of meaning. Within this understanding of units of meaning, each item that accepts the principle of separation is called word. For example, Schmitt (2000) provides the following list of words: die, expire, pass away, bite the dust, kick the bucket, and give up the ghost which have the same meaning and are said to be synonyms. The term synonym is used to refer to words having approximately the same meaning. Consequently, one meaning can be expressed using different word forms as shown in the example including the use of single words.
(die and expire), phrasal verb (pass away) and the last three are idioms which are a string of words that have a different meaning from each individual component word’s meaning. Therefore, Schmitt (2000) emphasizes on the absence of an absolute one-to-one correspondence between one meaning and one word.

Because of this variety and multiplicity in defining the term ‘word’, word knowledge or knowing a word has turned to be a controversial issue among linguists. Nation (2001) divides word knowledge into: knowledge of form, meaning, and use, with each of the categories further divided into three subcategories along the receptive and productive dimension as shown in Table 2 below:

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>spoken</td>
<td>written</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R Can the learner recognize the spoken form of the word?</td>
<td>P Can the learner pronounce the word correctly?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>written</td>
<td>word parts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R Can the learner recognize the written form of the word?</td>
<td>P Can the learner spell and write the word?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>form and meaning</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R Can the learner recall the appropriate meaning for this word form?</td>
<td>P Can the learner produce the appropriate word form to express this meaning?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>concept and referents</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R Can the learner understand a range of uses of the word and its central concept?</td>
<td>P Can the learner use the word to refer to a range of items?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>associations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R Can the learner produce common associations for this word?</td>
<td>P Can the learner recall this word when presented with related ideas?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>grammatical functions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R Can the learner recognize correct uses of the word in context?</td>
<td>P Can the learner use this word in the correct grammatical patterns?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>collocations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R Can the learner recognize appropriate collocations?</td>
<td>P Can the learner produce the word with appropriate collocations?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>constrains on use</td>
<td>(register, frequency…)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R Can the learner tell if the word is common, formal, infrequent, etc.?</td>
<td>P Can the learner use the word at appropriate times?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Schmitt (2001) claims that the aspects mentioned in Nation’s lists are obviously impossible to master. Instead, he suggests an incremental basis for vocabulary development which considers vocabulary as a continuum for the phase of ‘not knowing’ to full word knowledge. Other linguists, mainly Palmberg (1987) and Melka (1997) claim that knowing a word is a chain
process developing along a continuum with various levels of familiarity. Henriksen (1999) proposed a new understanding of word aspects in L2 research presented in the construct of *lexical competence*. As an umbrella term, lexical competence develops along a continuum and includes VS (number of words known), vocabulary depth (extent of knowledge about the known words), and vocabulary use (producing words in context) as main constructs to describe VK (Henriksen, 1999; Webb, 2005). Although no common consensus exists as to the true nature of VK, Researchers (Laufer and Paribakht, 1998; Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 2000) agree that this knowledge should be understood as some kind of continuum of several dimensions instead of a holistic or nothing phenomenon.

2.5.2. Dimensions of Vocabulary Knowledge

Being multi-dimensional, VK as understood by many researchers emerges on a continuum consisting of several dimensions of knowledge where the learner starts from the superficial knowledge of a word to end up with the ability of free correct use of this word (Laufer & Goldstein, 2004; Nation, 2001). This multiple dimensions understanding emerges from the rich and complex nature of VK (e.g. Daller, Milton and Treffers-Daller 2007; Read 2000), and the continuum principle expresses properly this very dynamic nature of VK. Particularly, these VK dimensions entail the *receptive vs. productive* dimension, and the *breadth vs. depth* dimension.

2.5.2.1. Receptive vs. productive vocabulary knowledge.

The terms *receptive* and *productive* often referred to as *passive* and *active* respectively (Carson, 1995; Laufer, 1998; Meara, 1990; Nation, 2001) are recognized within the boundaries of the four language skills, with receptive knowledge standing for listening and reading, and productive knowledge standing for speaking and writing. When used to describe vocabulary, the
terms are associated with many disciplines ranging from language teaching to psychology, and discussed on many grounds that Waring (1997) summarizes as:

- Receptive and productive vocabulary processes, being the subconscious mental operations involved in the cognitive processing of vocabulary knowledge
- Receptive and productive vocabulary abilities, as the language input and output control and understanding that cause vocabulary organization and increases vocabulary size
- Receptive and productive vocabulary skills, referring to the four language skills
- Receptive and productive vocabulary products, established through vocabulary tasks linked to speaking and writing.

According to Milton (2009), the distinction between receptive and productive VK has become a convention in the research literature. However, Melka (1997) indicates that this conventional use was met by rare definitions of the terms, and that the distinction itself builds on testing measures since many VK tests are labeled following the sharp distinction of the dichotomy, or the intuition of speakers that identify passive vocabulary not used productively though previously met, and productive vocabulary as the sum of well-known used vocabulary. To resolve the problem of defining receptive and productive VK, the idea was to replace the idea of a gap between R [reception] and P [production] with other more realistic notions: familiarity and degrees or continuum of knowledge. This idea of a continuum better explains the fact that the boundaries between R and P are not fixed, but vary according to diverse linguistic and pragmatic factors. (Melka, 1997, p. 101)

This continuum understanding resolves the issue of specifying what each type of knowledge means because the more the learners learn about lexical items, the more they gradually move from receptive knowledge to productive one. The continuum principle raised another issue of
division among researchers as to whether the dimension is dichotomous or constituting a continuum. Laufer and Goldstein (2004) claim that there is “no consensus as to whether this distinction is dichotomous or whether it constitutes a continuum” (p. 405). This continuum principle complicates the task of understanding the whole process of moving from receptive to productive knowledge, because the level at which receptive knowledge turns to be productive is missing (Laufer and Goldstein, 2004; Schmitt, 2010). Meara (1996) also disagrees with this continuum standard and opts for a dichotomous understanding where there is no progression from a receptive to a productive knowledge level.

Despite this lack of consensus in defining and dividing terms of the receptive vs. productive dimension, researchers (Laufer, 1998; Laufer, Elder, Hill, and Congdon, 2004; Laufer and Goldstein, 2004; Laufer and Paribakht, 1998; Waring, 1997) agree that receptive knowledge is easier for attainment. Moreover, the disagreement among researchers as to identification of the nature of receptive and productive knowledge as well as the continuum and dichotomous division, did not split them around accepting the receptive and productive dimension itself.

2.5.2.2. Breadth vs. depth of vocabulary knowledge.

The second dimension of breadth vs. depth is a main element in understanding the nature of VK. In L2 vocabulary research, these elements of breadth and depth constitute fundamental units in the complexity of VK (Read, 2000; Nation, 2001; Qian, 2002; Qian and Schedl, 2004). To highlight this understanding of VK breadth and depth dimension, Qian (1999) reached a clear cut -that is largely accepted in L2 vocabulary research in his study of VK and reading comprehension. The dimension of breadth vs. depth of VK makes

(…) it is necessary to clarify what we mean by ‘breadth’ and ‘depth’ of vocabulary knowledge. (…) breadth is defined as vocabulary size, or the number of words for which
a learner has at least some minimum knowledge of meaning. Depth of vocabulary knowledge is defined as a learner’s level of knowledge of various aspects of a given word, or how well the learner knows this word. (Qian, 1999, p. 1)

Although this definition is focusing on words as units of identification, instead of the whole lexical system, it is practical for testing purposes. It is possible to test the vocabulary breadth of a learner, but testing depth can be indicative of the degree of knowledge of the tested vocabulary items, which implicitly denotes a relative deep knowledge in terms of breadth. That is why, Schmitt (2010) insists that both terms are connected as “it can be said that all size measures are also depth measures in the sense that some quality of knowledge, no matter how minimal, must be operationalized as the criterion of sufficient knowledge” (p. 236).

*The depth* of VK according to Nation (2001) stands for how well a particular word is known. It is a knowledge manifested in the learners’ knowledge of different aspects related to a given word, including for instance its meaning, its collocation, and its association approval as Qian and Schedl (2004) argued. Hence, depth of VK according to Meara (1996) presents the qualitative aspect of word knowledge which consists of familiarity with ‘spoken’ form, ‘written’ form, ‘grammatical’ pattern, ‘collocations’, ‘frequency’, ‘appropriateness’, ‘meaning’, ‘concept’, and ‘association’ of that word in terms of receptive and productive knowledge. Read (2004) proposed a framework based on three main ways of conceptualizing VK depth in the research literature: *precision of meaning* that has to do with degree of knowing the meaning of a particular word, *network knowledge* that has to do with degree of vocabulary organization, and *components* that exceed the semantic scope of a word to include other characteristics such as syntactic, phonological and pragmatic features.
Breadth or size of VK according to Qian (1999) presents the number of words that the learner has the least minimum knowledge for. This minimum knowledge of a word’s meaning is defined as the recognition ability of its most recurrent meaning. Knowing words in this way and the number of words known refers to the learners’ breadth of VK. Nation (2001) identifies breadth of VK as the quantity of words learners know at a particular level of language proficiency.

The importance of VS in defining theoretical and pedagogical grounds for vocabulary teaching and learning is widely recognized (Laufer, 1998; Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 2010). The investigations on VS produce significant interventions into vocabulary research in particular and language teaching/learning in general. The theoretical rationales for assessing the VS of groups of learners include for example the study of the relationships between VS and different learning abilities and individual differences. Other theoretical interests concentrate on the role of VS in understanding the overall vocabulary learning nature. Consequently, to meet the necessities of setting up theoretical vocabulary foundations, the use of practical tests for measuring VS increases research opportunities in establishing these foundations. For instance, research on RVS succeeded to state the threshold vocabulary level for reading academic texts through examining the relationship between RVS and reading comprehension. Pedagogical concerns inspect on the development of VS among groups of learners to access comprehension of productive vocabulary in its spoken and written modes and to test the efficiency of vocabulary instruction.

Breadth or size of vocabulary is operationalized along the receptive vs. productive dimension with estimated relevance to particular skills. Laufer (1998) confirms that the growth of VK at a receptive and productive level does not evolve in a linear mode. For instance, a strong relationship between size of VK and reading comprehension resulted from researching the VS
essential for appropriate reading comprehension. The correlations between VS and reading comprehension as well as with writing ability provided examples of language proficiency (Beglar and Hunt, 1999; Laufer, 1992; Qian, 1999; Astica, 1993; Beglar, 2000; Laufer, 1998; Laufer and Nation, 1995). In fact, the abovementioned studies confirmed that the larger the learner’s VS, the more proficient he/she will be in the target language.

Studies of VS supported the developing trend of interest in vocabulary and widened the scope of research interest in vocabulary assessment (Laufer, 1992, 1997, 1998; Laufer and Nation, 1995, 1999; Meara, 1992, 1996, 2000; Nation, 1990, 1993; Read, 1998, 2000; Schmitt, 1997, 2000). Different vocabulary researches have proven that the larger the learner’s VS, the more proficient he/she will be. Examples of language proficiency have been summed up from correlations between VS and reading comprehension as well as with writing ability (Astica, 1993; Beglar, 1999; Laufer, 1992, 1998, 2010; Laufer and Nation, 1995; Qian, 1999). Testing VS has also proved to be a useful tool in classifying groups of learners (Meara, 1992), helping in their institutional admissions (Laufer, 1998), and aiding teachers to diagnose and correct vocabulary imperfections of their learners (Schmitt, 1997).

Further, the development of VS is influenced by numerous factors. The easiest factors to identify are age since the bulk of necessary vocabulary is well settled by adulthood after sufficient exposure to the target language since an early age. The second vital factor is the extent of focus on vocabulary learning in a specific teaching/learning context. Hence, the results emerging from the studies of this latter factor will help in refining vocabulary teaching practices. At a theoretical level, the development of VS indicates potential relationships among different learning aspects and the growth of receptive and productive VK as well as the distinction between both dimensions. The main pedagogical aim of studying the development of VS is
establishing a clear understanding of the amount of instruction necessary to reach a specific VS level.

2.5.3. Vocabulary Teaching- Past and Current Trends

Vocabulary teaching is one of the most important elements in the language classroom because it helps learners to express their ideas and feelings through words and meanings. The importance of vocabulary learning to learn a language is widely accepted, and the role vocabulary has in receptive and productive language situations, has also been confirmed throughout the research literature because

Vocabulary is no longer a victim of discrimination in second language learning research, nor in language teaching. After decades of neglect, lexis is now recognized as central to any language acquisition process, native or non-native. What many language teachers might have intuitively known for a long time, that a solid vocabulary is necessary in every stage of language learning, is now being openly stated by some second language acquisition (SLA) researchers. (Laufer, 1997, p. 147)

Unlike grammar research which proposed different patterns to sequence grammar activities, vocabulary research debates the efficacy of the explicit vs. implicit instruction for effective vocabulary learning with little focus on specific patterns to order vocabulary activities. Greenwood (2004) asserts that “there is a great divide between what we know about vocabulary instruction, and what we (often still) do” (p. 28).

Obviously, the teaching of the whole bulk of the lexicon is impossible, so the focus of a vocabulary teaching methodology is rather on teaching strategies that make the task of lexis learning more effective. Besides, most of the lexis learners acquire happens incidentally through their direct contact with the language in different contexts. In consequence, putting vocabulary
learning activities into effective instruction necessitates encouraging the students to notice lexical chunks through continuous exposure to spoken and written language even outside the classroom.

The wealth of existing language teaching approaches has tackled vocabulary differently in relation to their basic tenets (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Although vocabulary research did not bloom until very recently, the importance of vocabulary was fully recognized even within the heydays of the communicative approach as reflected in Wilkins’ (1972; 1974) declaration that learning vocabulary is as important as learning grammar. Under the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) in which the main focus was grammar and translation in second and foreign language teaching and learning, vocabulary was sidelined (Jones, 1995). The focus was on enabling learners to read and write, and the vocabulary that the learners were exposed to was purposefully selected to demonstrate grammatical rules. In the Reform Movement of the 1880’s, the study of word lists out of context as in the GTM was avoided and replaced by a complete text study in which isolated vocabulary items were supplied, but phonetics and transcriptions were prioritized over vocabulary (Zimmerman, 1997).

Under the Direct Method, the target language was uniquely used to illustrate and explain the meaning of unknown vocabulary. Hence, concrete vocabulary was clarified by means of demonstrations, and abstract vocabulary through associations of ideas (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). However, vocabulary was and for the first time the main focus of the Reading method and SLT in the 1920’s to the 1930’s, since the main concern was on developing the reading skills of foreign language learners through rational selection of the vocabulary to include in language courses. These methods produced some of the vocabulary lists such as the General Service List
that West published in 1953, and which is still relied on nowadays in structuring vocabulary measures (Laufer and Nation’s PVLT, 1995; Laufer and Nation, VocabProfile, 1999).

In the 1940’s, the audio-lingual method’s stimulus-response basis considered vocabulary as a set of items which should suit the different sentence structures, with an assumption that vocabulary increases as a matter of exposure to good target language habits (Coady, 1995). Besides, the method proposed that over vocabulary learning at early stages in the learning process endows the learners with a false security feeling. In the same way, CLT brought the concept of communicative competence and vocabulary was not the focus of explicit interest under its methodology assuming that vocabulary will take care of itself in L2 learning in a similar way to first language acquisition. The Natural Approach is no exception in considering vocabulary as a language component that happens with no direct instruction, but through extensive reading provided that comprehension happens.

Vocabulary research has not reached a unified view on the efficacy of one particular instruction method over another as Beck, McKeown and Omanson (1987: 150) argue, “Research has provided much useful information about vocabulary learning and instruction. What it has not provided is a simple formula for optimal instruction, because no such formula can exist”. However, there is a strong debate about whether explicit or implicit instruction should be used for effective vocabulary learning. Many researchers (Cunningham, 2005; Kamil and Hiebert, 2005; Nagy, 2005; Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 2001; Skehan, 1998) opted for a direct, systematic, multifaceted instruction with room for multiple exposures, in order to promote word knowledge as well as its different aspects. Explicit vocabulary learning guides the attention of the learners to vocabulary, through their direct involvement in activities that focus primarily on vocabulary. Teaching vocabulary explicitly uses a variety of techniques including word definitions, synonym
pairs, word lists, word associations, the keyword method, semantic mapping and semantic feature analysis. Other techniques that Harmer (2001) has mentioned include the use of realia, pictures, mimicry, explanation, and translation.

Nation (2001) divides words into low frequency and high frequency words, for which non-native speakers need to master the latter first, since it is limited in size and relatively deserving time and attention. He argues that teaching second language vocabulary explicitly may raise the learners’ awareness about the words they learn and facilitate their recognition in later stages of learning. He clarifies this argument stating that

When words are met in reading and listening or used in speaking and writing, the generativeness of the context will influence learning. That is, if the words occur in new sentence contexts in the reading text, learning will be helped. Similarly, having to use the word to say new things will add to learning. (Nation 2001, p. 80)

Accordingly, the students need to be explicitly exposed to the new words introduced in order to sustain their attainment. While the first context of word use introduces the words, the use of new contexts and creating opportunities for word use will reinforce the learning of the target vocabulary.

These teaching techniques and the whole explicit vocabulary learning method were severely criticized for the major factor of vocabulary being too broad to be covered and learned through explicit backgrounds (Nagy, 1997). The alternative for this explicit vocabulary instruction was to teach vocabulary implicitly. The aim of indirect vocabulary instruction is to draw the attention of the learners to the target words, which will be grasped “incidentally” through exposure to a variety of contexts, reading and materials with the focus on language use instead of learning itself. Research indicates that this unplanned vocabulary learning goes true
for the low frequency words for which the learners are exposed to in various contexts, so they do not necessitate a direct instruction. In this implicit method of vocabulary teaching, Nation and Newton (1997) point out that “…the teacher needs to ensure that learners are being exposed to materials and activities that will expand their vocabulary in useful ways” (p. 238).

Hence, the role of the teacher under implicit vocabulary teaching is to guide the learners and draw their attention through more reading and various types of activities. Sökmen (1997) specified three methods to teach vocabulary implicitly. First, Sokeman (1997) asserts that teachers should guide learners to establish links between words to learn and words already learnt “the human lexicon is, therefore, believed to be a network of associations, a web-like structure of interconnected links” (p. 241). Second, teachers should focus on recalling words through longer intervals rehearsal opportunities. Finally, teachers need to use effective materials for illustration and rely on real life contexts. All in all, the implicit instruction as Nation (2001) emphasized requires rich contexts and multiple exposures to the target words to learn new vocabulary items.

Nation (2007) emphasized that the vocabulary activities used in a language lesson can be categorized using the four strands of meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, language-focused learning and fluency development. The principle for putting these strands into an effective course is the balanced integration of these strands within equal time opportunities for presentation. The teaching style, the learners’ needs, and the overall classroom organization determine the success of integrating these strands. Moreover, each strand has a specific set of activities and conditions that put them into effective use.

First, the meaning-focused input strand builds learning through receptive language skills following Krashen’s (1985) input hypothesis. Activities such as “extensive reading, shared reading, listening to stories, watching TV or films, and being a listener in a conversation”
(Nation, 2007: 2) are used to gain knowledge through this strand. Waring and Takaki (2003) proved in a study that providing meaning-focused input through extensive reading develops vocabulary size.

Second, the meaning-focused output strand focuses on learning through productive language skills in response to Swain’s (1995, 2005). The activities used within this strand include typically, “talking in conversations, giving a speech or lecture, writing a letter, writing a note to someone, keeping a diary, telling a story and telling someone how to do something” (Nation, 2007: 3). Speaking activities mix both strands of input and output since the output of a speaker becomes input to a learner.

Next, the third strand of language-focused learning is also referred to as the focus on form instruction and builds on deliberate learning of language features. Nation (2007:5) specified “Pronunciation practice, using substitution tables and drills, learning vocabulary from word cards, intensive reading, translation, memorising dialogues and getting feedback about writing” as activities to use to learn under this strand.

The last strand of fluency development integrates the four language skills to help the learners use their previously accumulated knowledge in the aim of understanding and conveying messages. To achieve this latter aim, the series of activities employed include “speed reading, skimming and scanning, repeated reading, 4/3/2, repeated retelling, ten-minute writing and listening to easy stories (Nation, 2007: 6). For this particular strand, Nation (2007) emphasized that if any of the aforementioned activities included unknown vocabulary to the learners, focused on language forms, or excluded speed for performance, it is no longer a fluency activity. The
best way to put these four strands into use is through integration that respects the overall classroom and teaching/learning contexts.

Vocabulary research can reciprocally affect language learning and teaching as Schmitt (2000) opines that “lexical knowledge is central to communicative competence and to the acquisition of a second language” (p. 55). Zimmerman (1997) also confirms that vocabulary is “arguably central to language acquisition and use” (p. 17). In consequence, the use of effective vocabulary instruction methods and finding the best ways to promote this knowledge are fundamental in language research.

2.6. Grammatical Knowledge

The difference in views about defining grammar may be justified by means of the variety in the way language is described. The debate about defining grammar is not a recent issue in language teaching/learning contexts. The variety stems from the difference in the considered defining perspective. Traditionally, grammar stands for a set of rules to master (Hinkel and Fotos, 2002). This set of rules constitutes an abstract system that underlies a language, and the basis to develop grammar for learning purposes. According to Thornbury (1999), grammar is “a description of the rules that govern how a language’s sentences are formed” (p. 1). This focus on the prominence of rules as the main construct of grammar and the use of rules as a medium for grammar instruction shaped the understanding of GK.

2.6.1. The Nature of Grammatical Knowledge

Understanding the nature of GK and its categories depends on the grammar defining perspective and on the developments in language teaching approaches. The reason for this stems from the impact that a grammar definition has on the overall grammar teaching pedagogy and methodology in the language classroom. This debate among researchers on defining grammar
was transferred to understanding the nature of GK. Although Crystal (2004) emphasizes that GK is fundamental to the whole process of language learning, the nature of this knowledge was perceived differently in the research literature. In order to better understand the concept of GK, Richards and Reppen (2014) distinguish between grammatical ability and GK. The ability to use grammar in spoken and written discourse to communicate in different contexts presents grammatical ability. This grammatical ability is further explained as

The grammatical choice that speakers or writers make – for example, whether to use an active or passive be+ verb form, or whether to use the modal *can* or *would* when making a request – are not made in a vacuum, but in a context of language use. They are thus text-based, not sentence-level, choices made in the act of participating in a communicative event, whether it be a conversation with friends or writing an e-mail to a colleague. In each situation there is ‘text’ being created and an audience. (Cullen, 2012, p. 295)

Thus, the text becomes the main unit and follows the choices that a speaker or a writer does following the conventions of a language in spoken and written events. Opposite to this grammatical ability is GK which stands for the knowledge level that permits correct language use grammatically speaking. In Richards and Reppen’s words (2014) “Grammatical **knowledge** refers to knowledge of the rules that account for grammatically correct language” (p. 6). The focal unit to obtain this knowledge is the sentence. This GK shaped the practices of traditional language teaching approaches and was viewed as a separate component that language learners have to possess in order to control their language ability. Hence, learners’ GK was the target of instruction through drill and practice activities while assessment focused on the mastery of various grammatical points through separate item tests.
Additionally, the distinction between GK and grammatical ability seems to depict the same distinction drawn between competence and performance. While competence presents the knowledge of rules, performance stands for the use of the competence in various contexts to convey meaningful messages. Thus, grammar instruction that aims at developing both competence and performance will focus on both aspects of knowledge acquisition through rule mastery and skill development through appropriate contextual use (Newby, 2006). In another recent understanding of GK, Purpura (2004) clearly distinguishes between GK and grammatical ability. While grammar refers to a language system, Purpura (2004) views GK as the “set of internalized informational structures” of direct relevance to grammatical form and meaning that are accessible through language use (p. 85). Grammatical ability goes beyond the level of knowledge to include use. It is the combination of GK and strategic competence which stands for metacognitive strategies, as understood by Bachman and Palmer (1996). Purpura (2004) involves cognitive strategies as well under this strategic competence.

Another understanding of GK originates from the nature of storage of this knowledge. Anderson (1990) distinguished between declarative knowledge as the knowledge of facts and things, and procedural knowledge as the “knowledge about how to perform various cognitive activities” (p. 219). Thus, GK encompasses both knowledge of the rules which presents the declarative knowledge, and knowledge of how to use these rules which refers to procedural knowledge. According to Ur (1996), this rule knowledge permits the learners to know and use sentence patterns correctly. In this respect, teaching grammar will focus on better ways to develop this GK through encompassing all of the elements of language structure, meaning, and use.
Furthermore, following the distinction between ‘acquisition’ and ‘learning’ as stated in Krashen’s (1981) theory, the nature of GK as Newby (2006) emphasized is understood in two different ways. The first is ‘tacit’ or unconscious knowledge and stands for the grammatical competence which builds on the knowledge of grammar rules. This knowledge is implicit and characterizes the grammatical knowledge of native speakers’ first language and for which the user has no direct access to the overall grammatical competence. The second understanding views grammatical knowledge as a conscious or explicit knowledge of rules. The user of an L2 is conscious of the rules through explicit grammar teaching methodology. In the same way, Ellis (2006) draws on the distinction between explicit knowledge as a conscious knowledge to classify GK. Ellis (2006) distinguished between analyzed and metalinguistic knowledge. The first according to Ellis (2006) stands for the awareness about the working system of grammatical rules, and the former presents the learner’s knowledge of “grammatical metalanguage” and ability to access rules descriptions (p. 95).

2.6.2. Grammatical Accuracy

Despite the stated variety in understanding the nature of GK, Larsen-Freeman (2003) emphasizes that “grammatical” means “accurate” and that “grammar does have to do with accuracy” (p.13). Accuracy refers to the ability of learners to use language accurately in order to achieve a precise conveying of meaning. Brown (2000) defines accuracy as being “clear, articulate, grammatically and phonologically correct” (p.254). The elements listed in the definition emphasize the essential need for the correctness of grammar among other aspects. As a matter of fact, language accuracy cannot be maintained without GA. Ur (1996) also defines accuracy as “getting the language right” (p. 103). In fact, this “right” criterion could not be understood outside the frontiers of GA. To argue in the same position, Thornbury (2006)
identifies accuracy as “the extent to which a learners’ use of the second language conforms to the rules of the language” (p. 2). In this definition, the focus is clearly set on rules as an indicator of accuracy in the learners’ language.

Additionally, Richards and Schmidt (2002) point out how “accuracy is the ability to produce grammatically-correct sentences, but it may not include the ability to speak or write fluently” (p. 204). This being the case, the usefulness of GA shapes most of the understanding of language accuracy and plays a fundamental role in effective communication. Thornbury (2015) revised his former definition of accuracy to cover the aspects of language use contexts stating, “Accuracy is the extent to which a speaker/a writer’s lexical and grammatical choices are unremarkable according to the norms of the (immediate) discourse community” (p. 1). This definition differs radically from the 2006 definition in terms of accuracy being a matter of choice rather than a rule-obligation depending on the users’ doctrine of discourse norms.

GA represents the consistency of the produced language in speech or writing with the target language structure. According to Thornbury (2000) accuracy of the learners’ performance depends on the extent to which the output matches the set standard for accuracy. Hence, accuracy can be understood in terms of degrees since the matching of the output with the original structure varies among the various performances from full accurate matching to no accurate matching. Housen and Kuiken (2009) defined accuracy as performance that is free of errors. Since the types of errors that emerge in the learners’ performance develops along the new lexical items and grammatical forms learned, the degree of GA has to be assessed according to precise standards. Hence, assessing GA has to take into consideration the nonlinear nature of the development of specific forms. Skehan (1998) suggested a framework for assessing GA including three levels as shown in table 3 below:
Table 3

Grammatical Accuracy (Skehan, 1998: 221)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Scale descriptors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Expert</td>
<td>Good grammatical control; occasional ‘slips’ or non-systematic errors and minor flaws in sentence structure may still occur, but they are rare and can often be corrected in retrospect.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>Does not make mistakes which lead to misunderstanding; errors occur but it is clear what he/she is trying to express.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waystage</td>
<td>Can use some simple structures correctly, but still systematically makes basic mistakes.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These three levels are based on the types of errors that appear in the performances of the learners and the effect of these errors on the quality of communication in terms of fulfilling the intended meanings. The used scales rate the number of mistakes and the extent to which these mistakes influence the clarity of meaning or cause breakdowns in communication.

The complexities pertaining to GA are related to form, meaning, and use and their interrelationship which constitutes a challenge in diverse tones (Larsen-Freeman, 2003). By way of exemplification, the learners’ knowledge of the way to build a grammatical structure may be challenged by his lack of the awareness of the multi-meaning nature of the structure and its situational dependence. To avoid these complexities, Thornbury (2000) emphasized that learners can develop their GA through connecting the system of rules through time. In consequence, the more time the students have, the more “they plan, monitor, and fine-tune their output” (Thornbury, 2000: 4). The development of GA is not a linear process according to Noris and Ortega (2009) but goes through a curvilinear process. Further, the importance of GA is recognized in identifying different levels of language ability among the learners. It is also a main element that assessment considers to judge the performance of learners (Holmberg, 1986).
Testing grammatical accuracy evokes the learners’ grammatical performance and their ability to use their grammatical knowledge to convey meanings in contextual use.

2.6.3. The Structure of the English Sentence

Thornbury (2006) explains that “Grammar is seen as the study of syntax and morphology of sentences” (pp.2-3) besides the possible forms to construction in a language. The study of the sentence structure falls within the interest of grammar, particularly syntax. Kane (2000) emphasizes that the task of defining the sentence in order to cover the wide range of fields it is linked to is not easy. Simply put, a sentence for Kane (2000) could stand for “a word or group of words standing by itself, that is, beginning with a capital letter and ending with a period, question mark, or exclamation point” (p. 151). This definition marks the description of a sentence in writing because the understanding of a sentence in speaking incorporates the use of intonation and pauses as separating entities. As the focus of this study is on the written sentence structure, the sentence is considered as the central element of written discourse.

Thornbury (1997) confirms that “the basic unit of language analysis is the sentence” (p. 57). This reveals the importance of the sentence in understanding the nature of language at spoken and written modes. Ur (1996) also identifies the sentence as “the most convenient ‘base’ unit” (p. 79), and it has a vital role to meet the ends of different teaching tasks. In understanding the meaning of the sentence, Thornbury (1997) combines the functions that the combined set of words- which are usually a subject, a verb and predicate, perform such as expressing a request, a command, an agreement, etc, with the structural form of the sentence since it starts with a capital letter and ends with a period or a relative mark.

As a grammatical term, the sentence stands for a meaningful unit that is composed of a set of words which on their own stand to convey a particular meaning. Other grammatical terms
which are deeply rooted in the understanding of the sentence as Ur (1996) categorizes them include: the clause, the phrase, the word, and the morpheme. The clause is a mini-sentence that is composed of a set of words but do not necessarily end up with a full stop. The clause in included in sentence formation and shapes the sentence structure as the latter may have two or more clauses. The phrase does the same function of the words but can be one word or more words which serve as shorter unit within the clause. The word as Ur (1996) defined it is “the minimum normally separable form” and the morpheme is “a bit of a word which can be perceived as a distinct component” (p. 79). Being composed of words, the sentence is understood according to its constituent parts or parts of a sentence including subject, verb, and object for example which are defined by means of the parts of speech.

According to Kane (2000), the grammatical sentence is independent because it stands on its own to convey a complete thought under a proper arrangement of the words to respect the rules of the language. It also consists of a subject which indicates the words that present who or what the sentence is about and a predicate, and the verb which states something about the subject. The number and type of clauses decide about the types of grammatical sentences and their structure. Accordingly, there are four possible ways to structure the grammatical sentence: the one subject-verb connection which constitutes the simple sentence, two or more independent clauses joined together through coordination or appropriate punctuation and this forms the compound sentence, and one independent clause plus at least one dependent clause forms the complex sentence. The compound-complex sentence is a combination of a compound sentence and a complex sentence and is formed out of having at least two independent clauses and at least one dependent clause. (Ur, 1996)
The language errors of the learners should be seriously and analytically treated because they inform explicitly about the overall process of language learning and the progress in the learner’s knowledge (Brown, 2000). According to Ringbom (1987), the errors of the learners provide “insight into how far a learner has progressed in acquiring a language and showing how much more the learner needs to learn” (p. 69). The efficacy of analyzing the learners’ errors to promote GA has been empirically investigated and confirmed (White and Arndt, 1991; Carroll and Swain, 1993). Errors in writing could be the result of the complexity and challenges of the writing skill because as Richards and Renandya (2002) assert that “there is no doubt that writing is the most difficult skill for L2 learners to master. The difficulty lies not only in generating and organizing ideas, but also in translating these notions into legible text” (p. 303). This difficulty is understood at the level of appropriately applying the higher level skills of writing such as content and organization, and lower level skills in writing including punctuation, diction, and grammatical structures.

The errors in the structure of the written sentence at the grammatical level are the result of flaws in respecting the rules for the usage and combination of grammatical items as Ur (1996) explained. To be grammatically accurate, a sentence must include both a subject and a predicate. Subjects and verbs must agree in number; singular subjects take singular verbs and plural subjects take plural verbs. A common sentence structure problem is when subjects and verbs in the sentence disagree in number. Other agreement errors in the sentence include pronoun agreement which happens when a wrong pronoun is used such as using a plural pronoun with a singular antecedent. The antecedent can cause problems in pronoun reference including ambiguous reference, vague reference, implied reference, or pronoun case when the subjective or objective case pronoun does not clearly refer to the subject or the object of the sentence. To be
grammatically correct, the words and phrases in a sentence that act as modifiers should have the word(s) to modify within the sentence to avoid dangling modifier error, and should be placed correctly to avoid misplaced modifier error.

The sentence which misses a subject, a verb, or both elements is not grammatically correct leading to the sentence fragment error. The latter is also caused when a dependent clause is standing alone expressing an incomplete thought. To be grammatically correct, the clauses of the sentence should be linked appropriately through the use of proper punctuation or linking words. Comma splices and fused sentences are examples of inappropriate linking of the clauses in a sentence. Further, to be grammatically correct, the expression of similar ideas in a sentence should use the same grammatical forms which fall under parallelism. Accordingly, accuracy of the sentence structure builds on how well the rules for structuring the sentence were followed and respected. (Crystal, 2004)

2.6.4. Approaches to Grammar Teaching

GK in general and GA in particular are subject to development under grammar teaching. In fact, grammar is prominent in teaching English as a second and foreign language because learners need a good knowledge of grammar to promote their overall knowledge of the language. This good GK is the outcome of grammar teaching which involves any instructional technique that draws learners’ attention to some specific grammatical form in such a way that it helps them either to understand it metalinguistically and/or process it in comprehension and/or production so that they can internalize it. (Ellis, 2006, p. 84)

In this definition, grammar teaching includes the selection of the appropriate techniques and setting objectives to instruct the learners grammatically. Yet, the debate among linguists and
educationalists was not related to where grammar should be located in a language teaching programme; rather the focus was on how to teach grammar. According to Rutherford (1987: 9), grammar is “a necessary component of any language teaching programme”. The importance of grammar in language teaching is recognized through the role it was assigned in various teaching methodologies.

The progress in language teaching approaches through the years did not resolve the issue of grammar instruction situation (Ellis, 2001, 2006). Until the 1970s, grammatical structures and lexical units’ memorization constituted the norm in language teaching approaches with the belief that this will enable learners to communicate. The grammar-translation method has dominated grammar teaching practices for decades. Larsen-Freeman (2000) and Richards and Rodgers (2001) explain that under this method, learners learn about grammar rules through deductive instruction, memorize the rules and then apply them to similar situations. The mere focus on declarative knowledge acquisition and the teacher centeredness in the traditional grammar translation methodology were the main points of criticism that led teachers and researchers alike to search for alternatives.

During the 1970s, the shift from the focus on language form to language use announced the birth of the communicative approach. The main focus in this approach is on the mastery of communication and verbal interaction rules which will automatically lead to the mastery of form. CLT provided the needed alternative since language was no more viewed as a system of rules only, but also as a resource for meaning generation. Grammar in this respect is no more considered as a restrictive system of rules to respect for accurate language use or “a linguistic straitjacket” as Larsen-Freeman (2003, p.103) puts it.
Contemporary language teaching approaches use a mixture of both practices no matter which approach is dominant. In a structure-focused approach, grammar is the focus of instruction but taught through communicative tasks. The initial concern in the grammatical structure is extended to include its communicative purposes. In a communication-oriented approach, the development of communication skills becomes the main task through providing learners with content for understanding and then performance in other communicative tasks. Form in this approach is not neglected but brought in to clarify ambiguous grammar points through specific activities.

Along the development of these three phases of language teaching approaches and building on their basic tenets, numerous grammar teaching methodologies emerged. However, all the suggested grammar teaching methodologies can be categorized under the two core grammar teaching approaches: deductive and inductive. These two approaches have been rivals for long, and despite the numerous researches carried to identify which is more effective, the debate is unsettled. Although they differ in their constructive methodology, both approaches share the same aim of developing the learners’ GK (Rutherford and Smith, 1988).

The deductive approach according to Harmer (2001) is a step-by-step process in which “Explanation and practice sequences are usually PPP-like” (p. 203). The teacher starts by presenting the target language rule, showing how to form it, and providing examples for contextual use. After being exposed to numerous examples illustrating the target grammatical structure use, Gollin (1998) explains that the learners are asked to create their own examples. Nunan (1991) emphasizes that the deductive approach is applicable to lessons in which the main objective is teaching grammar structures such as the grammar translation method. Ellis (1993) explains that deductive grammar teaching aims at teaching grammatical rules explicitly through
teacher presentation and explanation by means of “making learners notice structures that they might not otherwise have noticed” (p. 104). The main advantage of this approach is providing both teachers and students with enough time to handle the target grammar structure; teachers are offered a simple and quick way to present the rule, and students do a lot of practice. Larsen-Freeman (2003) suggested teaching complex grammar items deductively to ensure students’ full understanding.

Inductive grammar teaching is a bottom-up approach in which the instruction moves from specific to general. It builds on the belief that language learners are more attentive to parts than the whole. The main principle of inductive grammar teaching is guiding the students to induce the target rules through the introduction of language contexts and practical examples containing the rule in question. Nunan (1999) defined the inductive approach as any process leading the students to discover the target grammar rule themselves. Instead of isolating the grammar rule and making it the main focus of the lesson, the inductive approach creates a context in the form of a text or an audio for example, and students manipulate the exploration of the target rule through induction. Thornbury (2003) described inductive grammar teaching as any approach that starts from providing students with language samples including the target grammar rules. In the next stages, the students analyze the examples to draw the rules, and finally they produce their own examples using the induced rules.

2.6.5. Patterns of Grammar Activities Sequencing

GK have constituted the backbone of many language teaching methodologies over the history of language teaching. Since language form was the target of both teaching and research, finding the best ways to deliver knowledge to language learners about language forms produced many patterns. The PPP pattern situated itself as a deductive traditional pattern that affected
grammar teaching over the years. This pattern was also the motivation that issued many patterns of grammar teaching in response to its negative effects in the language classroom. As Larsen-Freeman (2009) points out, “perhaps the most widely practiced traditional approach to grammatical instruction has been portrayed as the three Ps – present, practice, produce” (p.523). Generations of students were instructed grammatically using the steps of this approach. A typical grammar lesson under this approach will focus on a single objective which is the learning of a given language structure. Criticism to the PPP model raised opposing voices that called for alternative patterns in grammar teaching. Namely, Larsen-Freeman, (2009) identifies the input processing (IP), the focus on form and the non-interventionist (NI) patterns as the needed shift from the PPP methodology.

The aim of the IP deductive model is to provide an explanation to the way learners direct their attention or otherwise not to linguistic data in the input and the roles they assign to nouns. VanPatten (1996, 2002a) suggested “Input Processing” out of the belief that L2 learners face major difficulties in being attentive to both form and meaning in a simultaneous way. The main task in this model is to draw the attention of students to a feature or an item in the target language input that can cause them problems while learning. The model consists of a set of principles related to learners including as VanPatten (1996, 2002a) explained, processing meaning before form, preference of processing lexical items than grammatical structures, processing form which is not meaningful happens after processing communicative content, the first noun strategy, processing of sentence initial elements is a learner priority. However, the IP model remains vague in terms of which processes are involved since much of the talk is about the “strategies and mechanisms that promote form-meaning connections during comprehension” (VanPatten and Cadierno, 1993: 226).
IP as Benati (2013: 93) explains “is not a full theory which can account for all processes involved in the acquisition of a second language”. This model is rather concerned with analyzing and understanding the way learners connect form and meaning. Included in this learners’ processing of form-meaning connection is the set of strategies and techniques that learners use to extract intake from the provided input. VanPatten (2002a, 2004, and 2009) described this set of strategies that learners use in order to process data from the language input. The main strategies used include: processing meaning before form, processing content words first, use of lexical clues instead of grammatical form to access meaning, processing initial sentence items before final sentence items (VanPatten, 2004: 14).

The main concern of the IP model is to enable learners to use the enabling principles to obtain “richer intake from input by having them engage in structured input activities that push them away from the strategies they normally use to make form-meaning connections” (Wong, 2004: 33). This is achieved through providing plain data about the target language forms, training the learners in using the strategies to derive meaning from the input, and structuring language activities that process the input in ways that permit learners to depend on form to get meaning. This way, Benati (2013) ensures that the IP pattern is an effective pattern to instruct learners with different proficiency levels because “learners are pulled away from their natural processing tendencies toward more optimal tendencies” (VanPatten, 2002a: 764).

The aim of the IP model is to provide an explanation to the way learners direct their attention or otherwise not to linguistic data in the input and the roles they assign to nouns. Sheen (2005) criticized most of the input based suggested models to be ineffective, but VanPatten’s IP model proved to be effective. In fact, several studies (VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993; Wong and VanPatten, 2003; and Benati, 2005) proved the effectiveness of the IP model in teaching
grammar. However, The IP model remains vague in terms of which processes are involved since much of the talk is about the “strategies and mechanisms that promote form-meaning connections during comprehension”. (VanPatten and Cadierno, 1993: 226)

The NI pattern claims that explicit grammar instruction under the PPP and IP patterns is of little effect in the natural grammar acquisition process. Krashen (1981, 1982) explained that the mastery of grammar rules can never cause their unconscious use in communication. He argues that explicit and implicit knowledge are located in different parts of the brain. Implicit knowledge is unconscious and acquired through a natural process of language learning in which the learner uses a learnt grammar rule in the same way a first language rules are used. Brown (2000) explains that the learner gets access to this knowledge easily during spoken and written language tasks, and this contributes in the development of communication skills.

Hence, implicit knowledge results from a sub-conscious language process as justified by means of native speakers’ lack of conscious knowledge of all the rules of their language (Krashen, 1987). Consequently, the only way to learn grammar is through providing students with accessible comprehensible input in the target language. Krashen (1981) insists that the use of a clear and sufficient input will automatically lead to the acquisition of the necessary grammar. Thus, the students’ GK will serve in monitoring and reviewing what they produce in the target language in its spoken and written forms. Long (1991, p.41) also supports this non-interventionist claim, stating, “[...] the best way to learn a language …is not by treating it as an object of study, but by experiencing it as a medium of communication”.

There is no evidence that the students analyze grammatical rules through the provided input, as Spada (1997: 80-81) explains, “. . . while positive evidence contains information about what is possible in the target language, it does not contain information about what is not
possible”. Ur (1996) holds the same opposing position as for the effectiveness of the development of communicative skills separate from explicit grammar rules. Ur (1996: 5) further explains, “[The] ability to communicate effectively is probably not attained most quickly or efficiently through pure communication practice in the classroom- not, at least, within the framework of formal course of study”. In support of this view too, Thornbury (1999: 16) states, “Research suggests that learners who receive no (grammar) instruction are at the risk of fossilizing sooner than those who receive”.

The claims that implicit grammar teaching instruction is insufficient and the need to raise awareness about the importance of language form led to the focus on form inductive pattern. Long (1996, p.45-46) defines this focus on form instruction as drawing “… students’ attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication”. Moreover, the attention span of students can be limited due to the focus on some grammatical items and not others and the focus on form interferes to help in noticing the unnoticed or missed structures (Schmidt, 1990). In this respect, Long and Robinson (1998) argue that students’ understanding of some grammatical forms becomes the responsibility of both teachers and their peers. Students have to be exposed to real-life input, and if they face difficulties in learning grammatical aspects, teachers and their peers have to provide the necessary explanations and examples of use.

This focus on form can be managed in different ways as Larsen-Freeman (2009) explained. For instance, Sharwood Smith (1993) proposed input enhancement through visual aids in order to make some grammatical features more salient for instruction. Another way to fit the requirements of the focus on form approach is the input flooding. This technique of flooding meaningful input works through making the target grammatical structure more frequent in the
provided input which offers the target structure more opportunities to be noticed. Over-flooding may lead to priming in which the students produce the target structure, directly. While both previous techniques focus on processing form through the involvement of input, other researchers (Swain, 1985; Morgan-Short & Wood Bowden, 2006; Shehadeh, 2003; Toth, 2006) believed that the output can play a decisive role in language teaching. Providing learners with a “comprehensible output” according to Swain will grade the students’ input processing from the semantic to the syntactic level. This will ultimately lead to the production of the target output. The aim behind presenting “comprehensible output” first is to increase students’ noticing level, mainly “to notice what they do not know, or know only partially”. (Swain, 1995: 129)

2.6. Conclusion

The aim of this chapter was to present a theoretical framework for the present study. The chapter discussed the understanding of sequencing in ELT and its conceptualization in the current study, and reviewed the literature on the existing PAS in ELT. Then, the chapter offered a detailed account on VK and GK with particular focus on VS and GA as the main investigated areas. Vocabulary and grammar teaching methods and patterns were also discussed following the focus of this study on providing instruction in both areas. The next chapter introduces the research methodology that describes the overall process of conducting the present research.
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

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CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter outlines the methodological framework of the current study. It presents the research context in which a description of the research method, the research designs, and the approach of data analysis are provided. The chapter then describes the participants and the research instruments used with rationales for their selection. It further explains the procedures of data collection comprehensively in the light of the research design, the used instruments, and the conducted quasi-experiments. And it finally presents the particular procedures of analyzing the collected data in this study.

3.2. Research Method

In order to meet the main present research aim which focuses on testing the role of integrating various PAS in promoting RVS, PVS, and GA, the research used a *quasi-experimental method* (Campbell and Stanley, 1963, 1966). By definition, the term “quasi-experiment” also referred to as “field-experiment” and “in-situ experiment” (Leedy & Ormord, 2010) is used to indicate studies in which experimental procedures are employed but with no complete control of the conditions of the experiment in terms of randomization. The main difference between true experimental and quasi-experimental research designs is the lack of randomization opportunities in quasi-experimentation research. Specifically, the CG and the EG of the research are used in the quasi-experiment without randomization. The main advantage of the quasi-experimental design is reducing the chances for systematic errors that may emerge from biased research groups’ distribution. In Seliger and Sohamy’s words (1989), “any effects of extraneous variables occur by chance and that chance is equally distributed between groups” (p. 143).
In research contexts where the condition of randomization is impeded by means of institutional conditions and administrative restrictions (Brown and Rodgers, 2001), the only choice remaining for researchers is the use of quasi-experiments. In the context of this study, randomization was not possible because of pre-existing classes designed administratively. The random assignment of subjects into experimental and control groups was not possible and was the main reason to “dictate that a quasi- or pre-experiment rather than a true experiment be conducted” (Nunan, 1992: 40). Carrying field work studies with “non-equivalent groups” has been approved because of methodological considerations in which Dornyei (2007) explains that it was “generally accepted that properly designed and executed quasi-experimental studies yield scientifically credible results” (p. 117).

The major difficulty behind the absence of randomization appears at the level of controlling both personal variables such as gender, motivation, intelligence, and learning strategies, and extraneous variables such as the language input presented outside the training, the learners’ overwhelming study program, and tiredness. Because the population in this study was third year undergraduate students, the factors related to the administrative division of undergraduate students into eleven classes, the number of the students (390 student), and the overloaded third year study programme are factors that may affect external validity. Likewise, the extraneous variables mentioned above -by way of exemplification, may influence internal validity. Consequently, it was crucially important to neutralize the personal variables in the two selected research groups in order to maintain the research validity.

In order to answer the research questions and test the stated research hypotheses in the current study, the quasi-experimental method of this research used two types of designs. The need for using two different types of designs in this study is the result of treating two different dependent variables which are VS and GAS simultaneously under the effect of the same independent variable which is the integration of various PAS in teaching vocabulary
and grammar. Thus, the research procedures designed for treating each dependent variable determined the type of quasi-experimental design followed.

As the most common type of quasi-experimental designs, the nonrandomized control group pretest-posttest design has the same characteristics of the lab-experiment pretest-posttest design in a true experiment except for the absence of randomization (Campbell and Stanley, 1963). Hence, in this design there is a control group which functions as a statistical intervention to reduce the effects of extraneous variables, but this group is not assigned randomly. This design requires the use of two groups: an EG which undergoes the stages of the treatment, and a CG which receives no treatment and serves as a comparison scale. The comparison in this design is performed at the level of the key measured variables in order to decline any differences which may result from pure chance. In this study, the nonrandomized control group pretest-posttest design was followed in order to investigate the role of integrating various PAS in promoting RVS and PVS. Accordingly, the EG and the CG were not randomly assigned because of the administrative limitations in deciding on the group divisions and study time.

The one-group pretest posttest design was followed in order to examine the role of the integrated PAS in teaching grammar in promoting GA. The main reason for selecting this design is the theme of the study which reports about the value of a teaching methodology that integrates various PAS in teaching grammar. Besides, only one group at third year level which is the population under study had volunteered for the pre-experiment on GA. The reason behind this one group volunteering was the full timetable of third year level which imposed severe limitations on the population’s willingness to volunteer for the study since the treatment sessions on GA were set up extra to the study schedule. The one group pretest post-test design was used with the 34 subjects who were selected based on their consent and availability. In this design, the subjects are assigned to one group and the condition of
randomization and the use of the CG are both absent which creates a pre-experimental design (Nunan, 1992). As a consequence, there is little possibility to infer cause and effect as Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2007) confirm. Besides, internal validity is threatened under the use of the one group pretest post-test design because of maturation, history, and testing factors (Duckart, 1998). Maturation stands for the psychological changes that may occur to the subjects, history represents the events which may influence the results other than the treatment, and testing refers to the subjects’ exposure to the pretest which may influence their performance on the posttest (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). In this study, these limitations were taken into consideration through a set of measures at the level of sampling (see section 3.3 below) and instrumentation (see section 3.4. below).

In respect to the stated research questions, a mixed methods approach was followed in order to collect and analyse data through the used research instruments. As an approach in which both quantitative and qualitative research approaches of data collection and analysis are used, the mixed methods approach permits variation in data collection and analysis procedures which strengthens the validity of the results (Creswell, 2005). The qualitative data supplement the quantitative data to establish a complementary method of data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2011; Dornyei, 2007). In this study, the reason for selecting the mixed methods approach is its practicality in collecting and analyzing data through the set of research instruments. Accordingly, this study combined the qualitative approach (the use of observations to supplement the questionnaire findings at the first phase), and the quantitative approach (quasi-experiment with the use of tests as the main data collection instruments) to answer the raised research questions.

3.3. Participants

This study took place at the English Language and Literature Department of Mohamed Lamine Dabaghine University Sétif 2 during the academic year 2014-2015. Over a thousand
students enrolled the department under the supervision of 53 permanent teachers. The licence-master-doctorate (LMD) system provides the whole agenda of curricula in terms of objectives and areas of knowledge to cover. Yet, the teachers are required to arrange detailed contents and teaching methodologies that respond to the subject requirements. In consequence, a variety of contents and teaching methods prevail to meet the learners’ needs and the target subject area.

In this study, the population was all third year EFL students (390 students) both males (66) and females (324) with an age range of 21-23 years old at the English Language and Literature Department. Since the study of the whole research population is not possible and is also impracticable, as Singh (2006: 81) asserts, selecting a sample that would look very similar to the investigated population in its core characteristics, such as age, gender, and educational background proved to be helpful (Dornyei, 2003). For this study, the administrative constraints in terms of groups’ division and the overloaded schedule of undergraduate levels impeded probability sampling. In consequence, the subjects in this study were not randomly assigned.

The purposeful selection of third year level as the research population and sample was the result of three main reasons. First, as the graduation year for the Licence phase, examining the VS and GA of third year students after studying grammar for two years (3 hours in the first year and an hour and a half in the second year), and exposure to English language vocabulary through a variety of subjects through two years of intensive instruction is worth investigating. Measuring the VS and GA of third year students will provide insights on the VS and GA level that third year students graduate with at the Licence phase. Second, first and second year levels were not accessible for the present research because they were subjects in ongoing experiments in three different researches. As a matter of fact, the results of the quasi-experiment carried in the context of this study would have been biased by the
interference of other experiments if the researcher selected second or first year students. The third reason is the willingness that third year students had expressed in cooperating and participating in the research.

Because it was not possible to meet the research aims through conducting the main study with the whole population of third year students (390 students) due to time and administrative limitations, and following the two types of quasi-experimental designs used, the sample of this study included two groups of 41 and 34 third year students. The spread of sampling was fulfilled according to the types of methodological designs used. In order to examine the role of integrating various PAS in promoting RVS and PVS, the use of the nonrandomized control group pretest-posttest design necessitated the use of two groups. Consequently, the sample in the quasi-experiment on VS consisted of a CG that included 41 students and an EG which included 34 students. The final sample consisted of 75 students including 62 female and 13 male students with an age range of 21-23 years old.

The assignment of the subjects into CG and EG was not random because of the administrative arrangement of the groups, but two methods of group assignments were used. First, the researcher used the matching assignment method through analyzing the characteristics of the subjects from the CG and the EG in order to ensure that they are as similar as possible before introducing the treatment (Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002). This matching assignment method was fulfilled in this study through the use of technical cards that gathered personal and academic data about the subjects (see section 4.2.1 for further details). Second, the researcher used the masking method in which the subjects were not informed about the study group they are assigned to. This blind assignment according to Shadish et.al (2002) helps to reduce the effects of bias on the results of the quasi-experiment.

Further, in order to investigate the role of integrating various PAS in promoting GA, the use of the one-group pretest posttest design required the use of one group only. The 34
subjects in the EG of the quasi-experiment on VS were selected to participate in the pre-experiment on GA. The aim behind selecting the EG subjects is meeting the second research aim which is to examine the relationship between VS and GA. The scores of these subjects on used vocabulary and grammar tests will be correlated to examine any significant correlation between VS and GA.

Overall, the final sample of 75 subjects who participated in the present research in its quasi-experiment section on VS and 34 subjects who took part in the pre-experiment on GA was selected based on the subjects’ consent (see Appendix F), frequent availability and convenience which were related to administrative division of the groups. According to Stake (1995), “Our time and access for fieldwork are almost always limited. If we can, we need to pick cases which are easy to get to and hospitable to our inquiry” (p. 4). Probability sampling was not possible because it was very difficult to contact a sample formed out of probability sampling techniques in view of the administrative constraints and the learners’ full schedule of studies and assignments. The selection of the sample of this study then was based on the factors of consent, availability, and hospitality of the subjects.

3.4. Instruments

Based on the research aim which investigates the role of an independent variable being the integration of various PAS incorporated to measure two dependent variables (VS, and GA) and the research designs used, the current research used a set of research instruments. This section provides a description of the instruments used in respect to their format, content, and objectives of use. These instruments are classified- according to what they measure, to vocabulary measures and grammar measures. The vocabulary measures include two tests of receptive and productive VS while the grammar measures consist of one grammar test designed for the context of this study.
3.4.1. Vocabulary Measures

In order to measure RVS and PVS of the CG and the EG subjects at the beginning and at the end of the quasi-experiment, this research used the RVLT and the PVLT. Both tests were used for comparative purposes between the performances of the subjects from both groups in respect to the stated research hypotheses and the used research design. This section describes both tests and the rationale for their selection in the context of this study.

3.4.1.1. Receptive vocabulary levels test.

Designed by Nation (1983), the Receptive Vocabulary Levels Test (RVLT) is a context-independent, selective, discrete test that measures the learners’ RVS. It is one of the most widely used tests in the vocabulary research area and a major research tool to measure RVS. Its main purpose is to assess the vocabulary size of second and foreign language learners. Originally designed as a diagnostic test to use for instructional purposes, the test was revised (Version A) and three more versions (versions B, C, D) designed by Schmitt et al. (2001). According to Meara (1996), the RVLT was the “nearest thing we have to a standard test in vocabulary”. The same view was explicitly stated by Read (2000) and Schmitt (2010) who admit that the test has nearly become standard for testing RVS.

The test got its name from the five frequency levels: the first 2,000 words, 3,000 words, 5,000 words, 10,000 words, and an Academic Word List level, measured within its sections. The test exceeds the traditional testing scoring measures to provide a whole profile of the learners’ receptive vocabulary size. The words in the 2,000 level up to the 10,000 were selected from the lists of Thorndike and Lorge’s (1944) frequency count and were verified against 2,000 word level in the General Service List of West (1953) as well as the frequency lists of Kučera and Francis (1967). Likewise, the academic level words were derived from the University Word List of Xue and Nation (1984), which is a list of general academic words.
that learners encounter while reading academic texts within their English studies at university level, generated from a variety of disciplines with the exclusion of technical vocabulary (Coxhead, 1998).

The test format builds on a six option matching words with their definitions, with eighteen word families tested at each level, using the following format:

1 business
2 clock _____6___ part of a house
3 horse ____3__ animal with four legs
4 pencil ___4___ something for writing
5 shoe
6 wall

The revised version of the RVLT used in this study (see Appendix A) has some further developments, including ten clusters per level against six clusters in the original test, each containing six words and three definitions to be matched, resulting in a 150-item test against the 90-item original test. Schmitt et al. (2001) stated the purpose behind writing each cluster as follows:

1) The options in this format are words instead of definitions.
2) The definitions are kept short, so that there is a minimum of reading, allowing for more items to be taken within a given period of time.
3) Words are learned incrementally, and tests should aim to tap into partial lexical knowledge (Nagy et al., 1985). The Levels Test was designed to do this. The option words in each cluster are chosen so that they have very different meanings. Thus, even if learners have only a minimal impression of a target word’s meaning, they should be able to make the correct match.
4) The clusters are designed to minimize aids to guessing. The target words are in alphabetical order, and the definitions are in order of length. In addition, the target words to be defined were selected randomly.

5) The words used in the definitions are always more frequent than the target words. The 2000 level words are defined with 1000 level words and, wherever possible, the target words at other levels are defined with words from the General Service List (essentially the 2000 level). This is obviously important as it is necessary to ensure that the ability to demonstrate knowledge of the target words is not compromised by a lack of knowledge of the defining words.

6) The word counts from which the target words were sampled typically give base forms. However, derived forms are sometimes the most frequent members of a word family. Therefore, the frequency of the members of each target word family was checked, and the most frequent one attached to the test. In the case of derivatives, affixes up to and including Level 5 of Bauer and Nation’s (1993) hierarchy were allowed.

7) As much as possible, target words in each cluster begin with different letters and do not have similar orthographic forms. Likewise, similarities between the target words and words in their respective definitions were avoided whenever possible. (p. 59)

In spite of its wide use for assessment and research purposes, the RVLT suffers some shortcomings prevalent in the test format. One major drawback is that the test builds on the use of word lists that are dating back to 60 years old. This factor may be decisive in determining the validity of the test, since the outdated frequency counts may not cope with the up-to-date word usage. To tackle this issue, Hu and Nation (2000) revealed in a study that the most frequent 2,000 word lists retrieved from the General Service List presented 75% to 90% of the vocabulary covered in various kinds of texts. Another weakness within the test is
inherent in the structure of the word lists on the assumption that high frequency words are acquired before low frequency words. This is not case true all the time because L2 vocabulary learning research (Laufer, 1998; Zimmerman, 2004) has shown that learners may rely on their L1 to compensate their knowledge gaps in certain contexts. The RVLT may fail to display these basic VK gaps.

However, the validity and reliability of the RVLT have been verified in numerous studies (Beglar & Hunt, 1999; Read, 1998; Schmitt, 2001). In terms of reliability, the test is recorded to be highly reliable through using Cronbach’s alpha analysis with an index of 0.915 to 0.960 for each section of the test (Schmitt et.al, 2001). The validation studies have revealed that the test with its five levels forms a continuum in which the first lower levels receive higher scores than the higher levels (Read, 2000), which is reflecting the natural process of vocabulary acquisition to large extents. Beglar and Hunt’s (1999) validation study concentrates on the 2,000 and the University Word Level (AWL), carried with Japanese students. Schmitt et al. (2001) have also carried a validation study for the new version of the RVLT, including students from a variety of age, educational background and proficiency, and concluded that both their group sample and native speakers perform well on the test. Other validation studies were carried with small groups of participants as reported in Meara (2005) and Laufer (2005).

For the sake of this research, the RVLT was used in the quasi-experiment stage to diagnose the RVS of the participants. The diagnosis results will be compared with the results obtained after re-administering the RVLT at the end of the quasi-experiment. The features that Schmitt et al. (2001) have specified to their revised version of the RVLT motivated its use for the present study. Besides, the reliability and validity of the test in the abovementioned studies as well as its significant reliability in the present study (see section 3.5.2 for further results) supported its use to research the first research hypothesis on RVS.
3.4.1.2. Productive vocabulary levels test.

In order to test the second research hypothesis on the role of integrating various PAS in enhancing PVS, the study used Nation’s (2001) Productive Vocabulary Levels Test (PVL T), version C (see Appendix B for further details). Designed by Laufer and Nation (1995), the productive (also called ‘active’) version of the RVLT, also available in three more versions that use items of the revised versions of the RVLT, builds on the principle of production rather than recognition in order to measure a controlled productive ability. Laufer and Nation (1995: 37) claim that

We use the term ‘controlled productive ability’ for the ability to use a word when compelled to do so by a teacher or researcher, whether in an unconstrained context such as a sentence-writing task, or in a constrained context such as a fill-in task where a sentence context is provided and the missing target word has to be supplied.

This construct of controlled productive ability was created to support the low confidence of some learners while using their receptive word knowledge productively. This support is created through providing context in a sentence with a missing word for which the first few letters are provided as a cue, and the learners use their aided recall to complete the given words, as shown in the following sample:

I’m glad we had this opp__________ to talk.

She found herself in a pred__________ without any hope for a solution.

Sudden noises at night sca__________ me a lot.

The same word sampling used in the RVLT is applied for the PVL T with 18 sentences containing blanks with initial word letter at each of the five levels (Read, 2000).

The test got its name after its quality of measuring the productive knowledge at the levels of form, meaning, and syntactic features of the target word; however, receptive
knowledge is also required in order to understand the context provided in the sentence, which makes the whole testing atmosphere similar to real vocabulary usage. However, Waring (2009) evaluated the test as being simply a recall test, and although Nation (1999) explained that the words which learners recall correctly can be used in a productive way, Read (2000) insists on the misleading nature of the test building on the use of recall items which “require production only in a very restricted sense” (p. 157).

Unlike the RVLT which is recognized as a valid research instrument, many researchers questioned the validity of the PVLT (e.g. Meara and Fitzpatrick 2000; Read 2000; Fitzpatrick 2007a; Webb 2008). The validity and reliability of the PVLT was the main concern of Laufer and Nation’s (1999) analytical study of a small number of secondary and first year university students. The results indicated the usefulness of the test in revealing the general proficiency level of EFL learners, and its practicality for classroom settings use. The test is also described to have good reliability indices of 0.86 and 0.91 for version A and C of the test (Laufer and Nation, 1999). However, the test has been questioned due to the lack of clarification as to what productive knowledge really entails (Melka 1997; Read 2000; Webb, 2008; Schmitt, 2010). Moreover, the test has been criticized for validity issues since it is not solely testing productive knowledge, but receptive knowledge as well, which questions the productive nature of the test itself (Read, 2000; Webb, 2008). Despite this criticism, the PVLT is widely used as a measure of PVS.

In the present research, the PVLT was selected to measure the PVS of the subjects at the beginning and at the end of the quasi-experiment for comparative measures of their performance on the test. The first reason for selecting the test is its format and purpose which are close to the criteria of many of the practice activities used during the instructional treatment of vocabulary in terms of structure and purpose. The PVLT is built on sentences with a missing word and only the first letters of these words are provided as cues. In a similar
way, many of the practice activities provided during the instructional treatment on vocabulary in this study were structured through contextualized sentences with missing words for which only the first letters were provided in order to help the subjects recall the presented words. Hence, the need for recall to produce words as the main objective of the PVLT and the structure of the test which provides cues to finish the missing words motivated its use for this study. The second reason for using the PVLT is its high reliability index obtained in this study (see section 3.5.2. for more details) which prompted its use to investigate the second research hypothesis.

3.4.2. Grammar Measures

In order to test the GA level of the subjects at the beginning and at the end of the pre-experiment for comparative purposes, the researcher designed the Sentence Structure Knowledge Test (SSKT) in order to test the participants’ GA level in terms of recognition, recall, and composition of accurate sentences (see appendix D). The need for designing a grammar test is the result of the research needs in terms of testing specific items under GA. The focus on structuring grammatically accurate written sentences generated the need for developing a test that measures the learners’ ability to identify and write grammatically accurate well-structured sentences.

Because accuracy of sentence structure in the context of this study stands for grammatically error-free sentences at the level of writing accurate sentences that have no sentence structure problems firstly, and at the level of combining grammatical items secondly, the test focused on 8 grammatical errors based on their frequency in the analysed corpus of third year exam essays (see appendix E for further details). These errors included lack of subject-verb agreement, misplaced modifiers, unclear pronoun reference, faulty parallelism, faulty subordination, faulty coordination, run-on sentences, and sentence fragments. There is to state in this respect that other grammatical errors were identified in the
analysed essays corpus such as pronoun case and wordiness, but their low frequency in the analysed corpus discarded their consideration for the current study.

The test format was divided into three main sections following the three abovementioned levels of recognition, recall, and composition (see appendix D for details). The first and second sections of the test included 8 items following the number of grammatical errors treated in the context of this study. In both sections, the sentences corresponded to a specific grammatical error. The third section consisted of 4 items in respect to the four sentence types in English (Crystal, 2004) requiring the students to compose a simple sentence, a compound sentence following three instructions, a complex sentence following two instructions, and a compound-complex sentence.

The first section of recognition requires the student to read the sentences in order to identify the error and its type. The student underlines and names the error as in the following example from the first sentence on the first section of the SSKT:

E.g. To read, singing, and to paint which entertain seventeen year-old Nancy are her favourite hobbies.

The second section builds on the student’s recall of grammatical rules in order to correct the grammatical errors in the provided sentences. This recall is based on selecting the correct answer from the four provided corrections per sentence. The first option in every sentence was kept similar to the original sentence in order to make the subjects reflect on the error type in the sentence. The following example illustrates the task in the second section:

E.g. The man gave ice cream to the children covered with chocolate.

a. The man gave ice cream to the children covered with chocolate.

b. The man covered with chocolate gave ice cream to the children.

c. The covered with chocolate, the man gave ice cream to the children.

d. The man gave ice cream covered with chocolate to the children.
The third section of composition tests the students’ ability to fully compose sentences following the provided test instructions. At this level, the students had to make use of their overall understanding of sentence structure problems in terms of recognition of the problem and recall of grammatical rules in order to write accurate sentences (see appendix D for further results).

3.5. Data Collection Procedures

Collecting data for the present research was fulfilled through three main phases. The first phase was conducted in order to identify the PAS used in the OE and grammar classrooms through conducting observations. The second phase is the pilot study which was conducted in the aim of testing the reliability of the research instruments. The third phase is the quasi-experimental study which provided data from the quasi-experiment on VS and the pre-experiment on GA in order to test the research hypotheses. This phase was conducted using two instructional treatments as an intervention phase between the pretesting and post-testing stages of the quasi-experiment. The following table summarizes the phases of the study:
### Summary of the Phases of the Study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phases</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Instruments</th>
<th>Data Collection Procedures</th>
<th>Data Analysis Procedures</th>
<th>Rationale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Phase One</strong></td>
<td>6 OE and Grammar teachers at the English Language and Literature Department</td>
<td>Observation</td>
<td>45 hours of observation for 3 groups in OE 22 hours of observation for 3 groups in grammar classes.</td>
<td>Qualitative (profiles)</td>
<td>1. To identify the pattern(s) of activity sequencing used in the OE and grammar classrooms.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Phase Two</strong></td>
<td>Pilot study 97 third year EFL learners</td>
<td>The RVLT, The PVLT</td>
<td>Administration of the tests during 3 OE sessions</td>
<td>Quantitative (Cronbach alpha)</td>
<td>1. To examine the reliability of the RVLT. 2. To examine the reliability of the PVLT. 3. To test the reliability of the SSKT.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Phase Three</strong></td>
<td>Main study 75 third year EFL learners</td>
<td>The RVLT, The PVLT</td>
<td>2 intervention phases</td>
<td>Quantitative (mean scores, paired samples t-test, independent samples t-test)</td>
<td>1. To report on any significant differences in the scores of the subjects on the used tests in relation to the treatment provided. 2. To check if any significant growth in RVS, PVS, and GA at sentence structure level had occurred in response to the treatment provided. 3. To examine whether there is a significant correlation between RVS, PVS, and GA as reported through the scores of the subjects on the used tests.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quasi-experiment on VS 41 third year students Experimental group: 34 third year students</td>
<td>The RVLT, The PVLT</td>
<td>13 weeks of instructional treatment on vocabulary</td>
<td>Quantitative (mean scores, paired samples t-test)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pre-experiment on GA 34 third year EFL learners</td>
<td>The SSKT</td>
<td>13 weeks of instructional treatment on GA.</td>
<td>Quantitative (mean scores, paired samples t-test)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.5.1. Phase One: PAS Identification in Vocabulary and Grammar Teaching Used at the English Department

The various PAS that exist in the research literature does not state for granted that teachers are aware of this variety or how to use the principles underlying these PAS in language teaching. Further, the importance of vocabulary and grammar in language learning does not guarantee that teachers are using the appropriate PAS to teach both language constituents. Hence, there is a need to observe teachers in the EFL classroom in order to identify the PAS that they use to process their lessons during vocabulary and grammar teaching. Particular to the context of this study, it is requisite to observe OE teachers at third year level as the target population to spot the PAS used to treat vocabulary. The main reason behind selecting the subject of OE is its purposeful focus on vocabulary teaching besides the oral-aural skills. The importance assigned to vocabulary in this subject could be understood from the objectives set in the curriculum of third year level which clearly states the presentation and practice of target vocabulary according to the introduced themes. Similarly, there is a need to observe grammar teachers at first and second year levels in order to identify the PAS used to treat grammar.

This identification phase was requisite in order to formulate the research hypotheses and establish a rationale for the main study. Since the integration of various PAS is the principle underlying this study, it is necessary to explore the used PAS and whether integration is practiced. This phase was also compulsory to compare the role of the provided treatment on vocabulary using the integrated PAS with the existing PAS in the quasi-experiment on VS in respect to the nonrandomized control group pretest-posttest design. Further, the identification of the used PAS was a main factor that helped in selecting the patterns to integrate in teaching vocabulary and grammar in the quasi-experiment.
The subjects in this first phase included 6 teachers of English at the Department of English Language and Literature at Sétif 2 University. They were 4 females and 2 male teachers and have an English teaching experience of 4 to 28 years. The 3 OE teacher participants were responsible for teaching OE at third year level and were purposefully selected to describe their vocabulary teaching method. The 3 grammar teachers form the entire population of grammar teachers at the department and share the responsibility of teaching grammar at first and second year levels. The teachers selected presented different age, academic, and experience background levels.

In order to describe the PAS that EFL teachers use in the OE and the grammar classrooms, the study used a structured participant observation which is “characterized by a careful definition of the units to be observed, the style of recording the observed information, standardized conditions of observation and the selection of pertinent data of observation” (Kothari, 2004: 96). Therefore, the PAS were specified as the main units to be observed through the lesson opening, the practice stage, and the closing, along the identification of the activities used and the sequencing of these activities (see appendix G for further details). The data were recorded using a type-recorder and a video camera. The research used a participant observation because it permits the natural recording of the observed data and allows the researcher to verify the accuracy of the observed through reference to these recordings.

Further, selected to collect data from within the classroom, the observation phase provided data about the PAS used in third year OE classes as the main population under investigation and in first and second year grammar classes since grammar is only taught at these two levels. Three randomly selected third year groups belonging to three different OE teachers were subject to 5 observation sessions of 3 hours each providing a sum of 15 hours per group. Further, two groups at first year level under the supervision of two grammar teachers and one group at second year level under the responsibility of one grammar teacher
were randomly selected to be observed throughout five observation sessions of an hour and a half each per group providing 22 observation hours. The data collected out of these conducted observation sessions became input for qualitative data analysis.

The data emerging from the observation were analysed to organize the qualitative data into profiles. The data collected during the observation stage were transcribed and organized into files per observed teacher. The observation transcripts (see appendix H for details) were analyzed qualitatively to report on the PAS that the observed teachers use in the OE and grammar classrooms to teach vocabulary and grammar. The analysis was based on the use of a four-scale (Not observed, Need improvement, Observed, and Shown very well) observation evaluation checklist in order to analyze and interpret the obtained data (see appendix G for further details). The data were organized into profiles to respond to the six observed classrooms and teachers.

3.5.2. Phase Two: Pilot Study

In order test the reliability of the research instruments, a pilot study was conducted during the first term of the academic year 2014-2015. The pilot study was conducted as a pretesting of the research instruments in order to ensure their reliability (Baker, 1994: 182-183). Although the aim of the pilot study was to inspect on the possibility of designing tests of receptive and productive vocabulary size relevant to the context of the study, the research ended up by using two standard tests due to the following reasons. First, deciding on the test format was difficult because there is no particular format of testing vocabulary at the department following the available methods of standardized test formats (Laufer and Nation, 1995; Meara, 1992; Nation, 1990; Read, 2000; Schmitt, 2010). Second, deciding on the language of testing was determined to be English since using the translation-test format was impractical because of the multi-Arabic word synonymy; finding the right translation of
words in Arabic was a further hindrance since no frequent one-to-one word correspondence exists. Therefore, the use of translation in testing was discarded because such test format would test both vocabulary and translation skills of the respondents who might even concentrate on the task of translation over vocabulary and this would affect the quality of their answers.

The subjects in the pilot study were 97 EFL third year students selected randomly out of the entire population of third year students. The subjects had an age range of 21-23 years old and included 69 female students and 28 male students. The scores of the subjects on the RVLT, the PVLT, and the SSKT were collected and analysed in order to test the reliability of the research instruments for the main study. The RVLT, the PVLT, and the SSKT were administered during OE classes in cooperation with the subject teachers. The purposes of the tests and instructions for answering were provided to the teachers (see appendix I for more details). The time allotted for test answering was 50-60 minutes with an average of 10 minutes per section. The teachers were asked to give as much time as needed for the students to accomplish the test answering task. In fact, the responding time ranged between 50 minutes and 90 minutes.

The tests were collected after completion during the same session with no missing tests. The items on the answered test were scored depending on the correctness of the item and on whether an answer was provided at all. Minor spelling errors were tolerated if the item supplied was correct and fall under the same part of speech of the tested word; for example *pupil* instead of *pupils* at the 2000 level was scored correct following Nation’s (1990) experience of using the test. The tests were scored and analysed using the SPSS 22.0 (2014) version in order to measure the reliability indices of the three tests using Cronbach alpha.
After collection, the data gathered by means of the RVLT became input for analysis using the SPSS 22.0 software (2014). The software analyzed the obtained RVLT data to verify the test reliability across the sample of respondents. Cronbach alpha measured the internal consistency reliability of the test. The reliability index (Cronbach’s alpha) across the test was .949 which is a high reliability coefficient since a reliability level of .90 is considered satisfactory. The reliability indices for each level of the test are shown in the table 5 below:

Table 5

Reliability Indices of the Receptive Vocabulary Levels Test.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Cronbach Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>.903</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3000</td>
<td>.903</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5000</td>
<td>.903</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10000</td>
<td>.887</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWL</td>
<td>.926</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>.949</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the table above shows, the reliability indices for the 2000 level, the 3000 level, and the 5000 level were satisfactory in excess of .90 reliability levels. Besides, the reliability index for the UWL was highly satisfactory (Cronbach alpha= .92). However, the reliability level of the 10000 level was .887 which is reliable since an index of over .70 is significantly reliable (Zimmerman, 2004; Dornyei, 2003). On the whole, the obtained reliability indices of the test and most of its levels were consistent with the original test reliability levels (Beglar, 1999; Read, 1988; Schmitt et.al, 2001). The reliability indices of the RVLT in Schmitt et.al (2001) were all over .91 which was another reason for using the test in this study. Thus, the reliability index of the test (.94) motivated the use the RVLT in the current study.

The data collected by means of the PVLT were analysed using the SPSS 22.0 through several stages. The software was used to test the reliability of the PVLT. Thus, the resulting
reliability index of the entire test was .807 (Cronbach alpha=.795) which is a reliable score.

Table 6 below reports the reliability indices for each level of the test:

Table 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Cronbach Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>.771</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3000</td>
<td>.709</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5000</td>
<td>.727</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10000</td>
<td>.703</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWL</td>
<td>.733</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>.807</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As could be drawn from table 6 above, the indices of all the levels were reliable since they were over .70 (Dornyei, 2003; Zimmerman, 2004). Over the entire test, the reliability index was .807 which is significantly reliable to justify its use in the current study. Although the reliability of PVLT was tested repeatedly in L2 research, the research settings of this study called for testing the reliability of the test in order to assess the credibility of the obtained data for the research questions. Zimmerman (2004) had used the PVLT to examine the role of VS in assessing second language vocabulary and found a high reliability index of .94. The significant reliability index (Cronbach alpha= .807) of the test indicates that the scores obtained from the PVLT were significantly reliable and justify the research into the second research hypothesis.

In order to ensure the validity of the data resulting from the SSKT, the test was analysed for reliability using Cronbach alpha. The obtained reliability index was .76 (Cronbach alpha= .76). As Dornyei (2003) confirms, the reliability index is valid when it is in excess of .70. Accordingly, the test reliability was confirmed and motivated the use of the test to examine the third research hypothesis.
3.5.3. Phase Three: the Quasi-experimental Study

The quasi-experimental study was conducted following the used methodological research designs and the research variables. It included the quasi-experiment and the pre-experiment conducted in order to investigate the role of the provided treatments that build on integrating various PAS in vocabulary and grammar teaching in the aim of promoting VS and GA. The independent continuous variable is the integration of various PAS in teaching vocabulary and grammar. Particularly, the integration of the deep-end strategy, the task-based, and the scenario-based patterns in explicit vocabulary teaching and the PPP, the focus on form, and the ESA patterns in grammar teaching are the main independent variables in the current study. The dependent variables in the quasi-experiment on VS are the RVS and the PVS while GA is the dependent variable in the pre-experiment on the integrated PAS in teaching grammar. The nature of these dependent variables is numerical and continuous since they are scores which are subject to measurement and development.

The subjects in the quasi-experimental study were 75 third year EFL students at the Department of English Language and Literature in the quasi-experiment on VS, and 34 EFL students at the same department in the pre-experiment on GA. In order to collect data for the main study, the researcher has taken two factors into consideration. First, the phases of the research determined the plan of administering and re-administering the main research instruments at the beginning and at the end of the quasi-experiment on VS and the pre-experiment on GA. Second, the two treatment phases on vocabulary and grammar were implemented in order to examine any significant differences in the scores of the subjects on the used tests. The RVLT, the PVLT, and the SSKT were administered to the subjects at the beginning and at the end of the quasi-experimental study in order to measure the subjects’ RVS, PVS, and GA and compare the obtained scores with the posttests scores. The researcher explained the purpose of the tests and the study aims to the subjects.
The effect of the provided instructional treatments during the quasi-experiment on VS and the pre-experiment on GA which were based on the integration of various PAS was measured by conducting pretests and posttests and comparing their results statistically. The RVLT, the PVLT, and the SSKT were administered to the subjects at the beginning and at the end of the quasi-experiment on VS and the pre-experiment on GA. The main advantage of the pretest-posttest design is the ability to determine whether there are differences in the outcome after treatment and to reduce the effect of confounding variables that may result from nonmanipulable factors (Shadish et.al, 2002).

The pretests were used in order to control the selection bias resulting from the non-random selection of the subjects. These pretests served in measuring the subjects’ RVS and PVS at the beginning of the quasi-experiment, and GA at the beginning of the pre-experiment in order to compare their scores on the posttests for any significant differences. The RVLT and the PVLT pretests also serve in ensuring that the subjects from the CG and the EG were homogeneous at RVS and PVS before providing the treatment of integrated PAS in teaching vocabulary.

The pre- and post- RVLT were administered to the subjects after stating the purpose of the test and instructions for answering. Although the students were requested to complete the tests within 60 minutes time, extra time was provided for answering the tests. The test answering time ranged between 50 and 90 minutes. Significantly, the subjects revealed a high interest in accomplishing the test answering task and the tests were collected upon completion with no missing data. The pre- and post- PVLT were administered to the subjects after explaining the purpose of the test and giving instructions in terms of time and guidelines for answering. Because of the nature of the test, the answering task was spread on two sessions of 45 minutes each in order to reduce the effect of fatigue. Overall, the time spent in answering the test ranged between 60-90 minutes. The researcher ensured that no dictionaries
were used while answering the test. The tests were collected upon completion with no
missing data.

The pre- and post- SSKT were introduced to the subjects within 60 minutes time for
accomplishment. Along explaining the purpose of the study, the researcher explained the
purpose of the test and the purpose of each of its sections as well as the instructions
pertaining to test answering. The test answering time ranged between 30 and 60 minutes. The
researcher collected the tests upon completion with no missing data. The pretests and the
posttest were both administered during class time. Table 7 below summarizes the stages of
administration of the pretests and the posttests:

Table 7

Administration Procedures of the Pretests and the Posttests of the Quasi-experimental
Designs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Pretest Phase</th>
<th>Posttest Phase</th>
<th>Answer time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RVLT</td>
<td>CG December 9th, 2014 at 9:30 am</td>
<td>May 5th, 2015 at 9:30 am</td>
<td>50-90 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EG December 10th, 2014 at 9:30 am</td>
<td>May 6th, 2015 at 9:30 am</td>
<td>60-90 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PVLT</td>
<td>CG December 16th, 2014</td>
<td>May 5th, 2015 at 14:00</td>
<td>55-90 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EG December 17th, 2014</td>
<td>May 6th, 2015 at 14:00</td>
<td>65-90 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSKT</td>
<td>January 20th, 2015 at 8:00 am</td>
<td>May 4th, 2015 at 8:00 am</td>
<td>30-60 minutes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Immediately after the treatment periods which lasted for 13 weeks for vocabulary
teaching through integrating the deep-end strategy, the task-based, and the scenario-based
patterns, and 12 weeks for grammar instruction by means of integrating the PPP, the focus on
form, and the ESA patterns, the subjects completed the posttests. The subjects were reminded
of the purposes of the tests and instructions to answer them. The posttests help to measure the
dependent variables (Slavin, 2007) which are VS and GA at the end of the treatment periods.
There were no significant differences between the groups at the level of the tests’ answering
time as the time spent on answering the tests was very close as shown in the table above. The
data emerging from the pretests and posttests became input for statistical analyses because of
the numerical nature of the obtained data.

3.6. Data Analysis Procedure

The data analysis of this study took several stages following the used research
instruments and the stated research hypotheses. The data from the three tests used in the main
study were analysed statistically using the SPSS 22.0 version. For all the data gathered from
the tests, the significance level was set at a $p \leq .05$ levels.

3.6.1. Scoring of Tests

While the data of the used vocabulary tests was scored according to the experience of
the test developers, the grammar test was scored based on the number of items with each item
granted a score. The scoring method for calculating the data obtained from the vocabulary
tests and the grammar test was processed as follows:

1. According to Nation (1990), the identification of an adequate score at every level of
the RVLT is relevant to the researcher’s judgment, and “to make this judgment, it is
necessary to look at the score for each level in terms of the total words known and
not known at that level” (p.3). Consequently, the mean scores of the subjects in this
study were judged according to the number of scores obtained at each level and
compared to the total number of words required for each level. Similarly, the overall
level on the RVLT was judged through the number of words obtained for the entire test and compared to the total number of words required for the entire test.

2. The maximum possible score for the five levels of the RVLT was 150. The scores were distributed according to the number of correct answers with one point assigned for each correct answer. Hence, a score of 30 is the maximum score at each level.

3. According to Nation’s (1990) experience in using the PVLT, a weak score at each level means that the test respondent obtained less than 15 correct answers. The PVLT was scored depending on the number of correct words provided regardless of some minor spelling mistakes. The discarded spelling mistakes reflected partial knowledge of the test words among the respondents under the same *family word*. The following sentences are answer examples of the study test respondents; while answer A is accepted regardless of the spelling mistake and awarded a score, answer B was rejected and obtained no score:

A. Ann introduced/introduces her boyfriend to her mother.

B. Her beauty and charm/chance had a powerful effect on men.

As the two provided examples illustrate, while the verb tense mistake in A was tolerated, using a different word from the intended word (chance instead of charm) in sentence in B was not tolerated. Other tolerated mistakes included the singular and plural forms of both nouns and verbs. However, answers which provided words of no relevance to the sentence context as in example B or disfigured the meaning required were not awarded any score. Such cases indicate that the respondents have little if any understanding of the context of the test sentences.

4. The SSKT contained 23 items which were scored on a maximum of 23 points with one point awarded for each correct answer. The first and second section of the test was easily scored because of the nature of the tasks (identification and selecting
from multiple choices). However, the third section was scored following some measures because it required the students to write sentences taking both form and meaning of the sentences into consideration. Although morphological spelling mistakes were discarded, the spelling mistakes of relevance to verb tense as well as the singular and plural forms of verbs and nouns were thoroughly considered while scoring. Furthermore, the semantic mistakes were highly considered since the first and second sections of the test builds on the respondents’ understanding of the sentences. Thus, meaningless answers revealed that the respondents had little understanding of the sentence contexts. In the example sentences below, both examples were not awarded scores because the first is a sentence fragment and the second creates confusion about the meaning of the sentence.

a. When the children found a treasure map in the discarded books at the library basement.

b. The man covered with chocolate gave ice cream to the children.

3.6.2. Statistical Analysis

The quantitative data resultant from the pretests and the posttests were analysed statistically using the SPSS 22.0 (2014) version. The stages of the tests data analysis were further imposed by the stated research hypotheses. The t-test was used to measure the data resulting from the RVLT, the PVLT, and the SSKT before and after the quasi-experiment phases. In this study, the standard deviation of the whole population is unknown because the conditions of random sampling in the selected sample were not fully met. The main advantage of the t-test is its use with small sample size to compare the obtained mean scores on the tests in order to infer any statistical significance. Two types of t-test measures were used in this study. The independent sample t-test was used to compare the means of the CG and the EG subjects before and after the quasi-experiment on the RVLT and the PVLT. The
dependent samples t-test (also called the paired sample t-test) was used for two ends. First, it was used in order to compare the mean scores of each study group on the RVLT and the PVLT at the beginning and at the end of the quasi-experiment. Second, the paired samples t-test was used in order to compare the mean scores of the participants on the SSKT in the quasi-experiment on GA before and after the quasi-experiment for any significant growth in their GA at the sentence structure level.

Because of the continuous nature of the data gathered through tests, the research used the Pearson Correlation Coefficient. As a nonparametric method for analyzing relationships between variables, the Pearson Correlation Coefficient was used to measure the degree of association between the two variables of vocabulary size at receptive and productive dimensions as reported on the RVLT and the PVLT scores and the SSKT scores on GA at sentence structure level at the EG subjects level. The correlation significance was set at .01.

The RVLT data were analysed to calculate the mean scores on the RVLT at the beginning and end of the quasi-experiment. These mean scores were compared using the paired sample t-test. The data were examined using the SPSS 22.0 software to establish a clear statistical process in several stages:

1. The RVLT reliability was calculated across the test levels and through the entire test.

2. The mean scores emerging from the distribution of data per test level and over the entire test were calculated for the subjects before and after the quasi-experiment.

3. The paired samples t-test was used to compare the mean scores of the subjects per study group at the end of the quasi-experiment.
4. The independent samples t-test were calculated for comparison purposes between the mean scores of both study groups in order to examine statistical differences in both groups’ RVLT performance in response to the main objective of the study.

5. The significance p-values were set at $p \leq .05$ and were further obtained in relation to the t-test results to use them in deciding about the significance of the t-test results and differences.

The data from the pre- and post- PVLT were analysed using the SPSS 22.0 software following a number of statistical procedures:

1. The data were analyzed to verify the reliability of the PVLT over each test level and through the entire test.
2. The Mean scores of each vocabulary level and over the entire test were calculated.
3. The paired samples t-test compared the obtained mean scores for any statistical significance at the end of the quasi-experiment per study group.
4. The independent samples t-test was used to compare the mean scores of the CG and the EG before and after the quasi-experiment for statistical significant differences between the results of each group.
5. The p-values were calculated to analyze the significance of the dependent samples t-test results. Along these p-values, asymptotic significances were obtained. The significance level was set at $p \leq .05$.
6. In case of significant differences found, close examination of the significant results was fulfilled for causal links.
The data collected by means of the SSKT became input for the SSPS 22.0 software. The results were analysed to examine any significant growth in the GA as reported through the test. The data analysis was conducted following a number of steps as shown below:

1. The SSKT was tested for reliability using Cronbach alpha.
2. The mean scores and standard deviations of each test section and through the entire test were calculated before and after the quasi-experiment.
3. The mean scores were used to calculate the paired samples t-test across the subjects before and after the quasi-experiment to compare the results for any significant statistical differences.
4. The significance of the t-test results was analysed using the calculated p-values with reference to the asymptotic significances obtained.
5. The Pearson Correlation Coefficient was used to examine the relationship between the obtained mean scores on the SSKT and the scores on the RVLT and the PVLT. The significance level was set at p= .05.

**3.7. Conclusion**

This chapter mapped the methodological design and justified the research methodology followed in this study. It characterized the research method, the participants, and the instruments used particularly for the context of this study. It had also described the data collection procedures in respect to the three phases of the research and the two conducted quasi-experiments. These procedures of data collection particular to this study defined the data analysis procedures. The next chapter describes the conducted quasi-experimental study in the light of the followed methodological designs and the treated independent variable.
CHAPTER 4: THE QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL STUDY

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CHAPTER FOUR
THE QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL STUDY

4.1. Introduction

This chapter describes the conducted quasi-experimental study in the present research. It discusses the procedures followed in order to integrate the deep-end strategy, the task-based, and the scenario-based patterns in vocabulary teaching in the quasi-experiment, and the procedures of integrating the PPP, the focus on form, and the ESA patterns in grammar teaching in the pre-experiment. These procedures discussed include the measures undertaken prior to conducting the quasi-experimental study in terms of controlling the effect of confounding variables, designing courses, and planning the outline of the instructional treatments, and the procedures of the administration of the quasi-experimental study treatments.

4.2. Design of the Quasi-experimental Study

Because of the nature of this study which investigates the effect of an independent variable on two dependent variables and following the characteristics of the research context in terms of the settings and the participants, the quasi-experimental study in the present study consists of the quasi-experiment on integrating the deep-end strategy, the task-based, and the scenario-based patterns in vocabulary teaching, and the pre-experiment on integrating the PPP, the focus on form, and the ESA patterns in grammar teaching. The quasi-experiment on vocabulary was conducted in order to meet the first main research aim of examining the role of integrating the deep-end strategy pattern, the task-based pattern, and the scenario-based pattern in promoting RVS and PVS. Accordingly, the results of quasi-experiment on VS test the first and second research hypotheses.
**Hypothesis 1**

The integration of the deep-end strategy pattern, the task-based pattern, and the scenario-based pattern in teaching vocabulary may promote RVS.

**Hypothesis 2**

The integration of the deep-end strategy pattern, the task-based pattern, and the scenario-based pattern in teaching vocabulary may promote PVS.

Further, the pre-experiment on GA was carried out in the aim of achieving the second main research aim of investigating the role of integrating the PPP, the focus on form, and the ESA patterns in promoting GA at written sentence level. The results emerging from the pre-experiment on GA test the third research hypothesis.

**Hypothesis 3**

The integration of the PPP pattern, the focus on form pattern, and the ESA pattern in teaching grammar may promote GA at the written sentence structure level.

Because the absence of random assignment of the subjects (n= 75) in the quasi-experiment on integrating the deep-end strategy, the task-based, and the scenario-based patterns can affect negatively the internal validity of the results on RVS and PVS, a research intervention was requisite in order to control the individual variables between the CG (n= 41) and the EG (n= 34) subjects. This intervention would ensure that the CG and the EG subjects were as similar as possible at the level of pre-intervention characteristics. It would also show that the controlled confounding variables are not the cause of the quasi-experiment results. The internal and external validity of the research results can also be biased under the extraneous variables effects. As such,
control over these extraneous variables is fundamental to demonstrate that they are not the cause of the research results. Similarly, because the individual variables of the subjects (n= 34) in the pre-experiment on integrating the PPP, the focus on form, and the ESA patterns can threaten the internal validity of the results on GA, controlling these variables is fundamental to neutralize their potential effect on the pre-experiment results.

4.2.1. Control of Individual Variables

As stated in section 3.3., the assignment of the CG and the EG subjects was completed through the matching assignment method in order to ensure homogeneity in the characteristics of the subjects before introducing the treatment in the quasi-experiment on VS. Personal variables may interfere in the internal validity of the quasi-experiment results on RVS and PVS. There is a need, therefore, to neutralize the effect of these variables.

In order to control the potential effects of individual variables, information on personal and academic covariates were collected from the subjects at the beginning of the quasi-experimental study. This information was collected by means of technical cards (see appendix J for further results) which were designed to examine whether the subjects had as similar as possible characteristics before the instructional treatments were provided. These cards were designed using a rating scale measurement with a number of response options out of which the respondents select one option. The implication from using this coding is that the higher the option the respondents chose, the greater the strength of frequency.

These technical cards included both personal and academic information about the subjects. The personal data focused on the aspects of gender and learning preferences only while age and nationality were not considered as personal variables that may affect the results because the
subjects from both study groups had the same age range (21-23) and belonged to the same nationality. Academic variables included years of English study, high school study stream, vocabulary level perception, grammar level perception, time spent in learning vocabulary outside the classroom, and time spent in learning grammar outside the classroom. Table 8 below displays the personal and academic variables stated in the technical cards:

Table 8
Controlled Personal and Academic Covariates during the Quasi-experimental Study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Scale measure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Categorical (dichotomous)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning preference</td>
<td>Categorical (dichotomous)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary level perception</td>
<td>Quantitative (ratio)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of English study</td>
<td>Quantitative (ratio)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school study stream</td>
<td>Categorical (dichotomous)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time spent in learning vocabulary outside the classroom</td>
<td>Quantitative (ratio)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar level perception</td>
<td>Quantitative (ratio)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time spent in learning grammar outside the classroom</td>
<td>Quantitative (ratio)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The frequencies of each of the research covariates relevant to the personal and academic data of the subjects throughout their responses to the technical cards were analysed in order to neutralize the effects of individual variables that could affect the validity of the quasi-experiments results.

Since gender has been proved to affect all the aspects of the language learning process (Dornyei, 2005), it was necessary to examine its distribution between the study groups. The results are stated in table 9 below:
Table 9

Gender Distribution between the CG and the EG Subjects.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Control Group</th>
<th>Experimental Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percent (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>82.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>17.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In terms of gender, the majority of the respondents in both study groups were females. As stated in table 9, the distribution of female and male subjects in the CG and the EG was significantly very close which confirms the homogeneity of the groups at this level and reduce the potential effect of gender on the quasi-experiment on VS and the pre-experiment on GA results.

Another personal covariate which may bias the results of the quasi-experiment is the subject’s learning preferences. These learning preferences indicate the subjects’ perception of the importance of language constituents and their focus on learning a particular constituent following their preference. For this study, only vocabulary and grammar were purposefully listed as learning preferences because the neutralization of one constituent will also neutralize the other.

Table 10 below displays the distribution of learning preferences among the subjects:

Table 10

Learning Preferences Distribution between the CG and the EG Subjects.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning Preferences</th>
<th>Control Group</th>
<th>Experimental Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percent (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>39.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>60.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The majority of the respondents in both groups (CG= 60.97%, EG= 61.76%) stated that they prefer learning vocabulary over grammar. The obtained frequencies for vocabulary preference (CG= 60.97%, EG= 61.76%) and grammar preference (CG= 39.02%, EG= 38.23%) indicate that the subjects from both groups were quite homogeneous at the level of learning preferences. This homogeneity reduces the effect of the learning preferences covariate on the quasi-experiment on VS and the pre-experiment on GA results given that the subjects share the same learning preference. This vocabulary learning preference is emphasized in Schmitt’ words (2010), “Learners carry around dictionaries and not grammar books” (p. 4).

High school study stream is important because literary stream students receive more instruction in English in terms of the hours spent per week in studying English. Therefore, it is requisite to explore the distribution of this covariate among the CG and the EG subjects as a confounding factor that may interfere into the quasi-experiment results. The distribution results of this covariate are illustrated in table 11 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>High School Study Stream</th>
<th>Control Group</th>
<th>Experimental Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percent (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literary</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>73.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scientific</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>26.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As table 11 indicates, the majority of the students in both study groups were literary stream students. While scientific stream students studied English for 3 hours only per week at high school, literary stream students spent 5 to 6 hours per week in English study. Since the majority of the students in both study groups belonged to the same study stream, there is little possibility for the high school study stream covariate to affect the results of the quasi-experiment on VS and
the pre-experiment on GA because the previous learning experience is common between the subjects.

The subjects were then asked to report on their own perception of their vocabulary level. This covariate is important because it can act as an intrinsic motivating factor in vocabulary learning. The results are stated in table 12 below:

Table 12

Vocabulary Level Perception Distribution among the CG and the EG Subjects.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vocabulary Level Perception</th>
<th>Control Group</th>
<th>Experimental Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percent (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>17.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>58.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below average</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although the subjects from both study groups perceived their vocabulary level differently, the majority (CG= 58.53%, EG= 61.76%) stated that they had an average vocabulary level. On the other levels, the obtained frequencies were also quite homogeneous among the CG and the EG subjects. This homogeneity in the subjects’ perception of their vocabulary level neutralizes the effect of this covariate on the quasi-experiment on VS results.

The effect of vocabulary teaching on vocabulary learning depends on the time allotted to vocabulary tasks in the classroom (Nation, 2007). The time students spend in learning vocabulary outside the classroom can also influence their overall vocabulary level. The time that the subjects from both study groups spend in learning vocabulary outside the classroom is stated in table 13 below:
Table 13

Time Spent in Vocabulary Learning outside the Classroom Distribution among the CG and the EG Subjects.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vocabulary Learning Time</th>
<th>Control Group</th>
<th>Experimental Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percent (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-5 hours</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>87.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-10 hours</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 10 hours</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As table 13 shows, the results emphasize that the overall majority from both study groups (CG= 87.80%, EG= 85.29%) reported to spend one to five hours (1-5 H) weekly in learning vocabulary outside the classroom. The obtained results imply that the CG and the EG are homogeneous in terms of the time spent in vocabulary learning. This homogeneity reduces the effect of the vocabulary learning time outside the classroom covariate on the quasi-experiment on VS results.

Similarly, the subjects were asked to report on their grammar level perception as a covariate which may intrinsically motivate the subjects to learn grammar and affect the results of the pre-experiment on GA. The results are shown in table 14 below:

Table 14

Grammar Level Perception Distribution among the CG and the EG Subjects.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grammar Level Perception</th>
<th>Control Group</th>
<th>Experimental Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percent (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>51.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>31.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below average</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The obtained results suggest that more than half the respondents in both study groups perceive their grammar level to be good while the distribution of the other suggested level was very close between the subjects. These results reveal homogeneity between the CG and the EG in terms of grammar level perception which reduces the effect of this variable on the pre-experiment on GA results.

The respondents were also asked to report the time they specify for learning grammar outside the classroom. This covariate was considered important because it may affect the grammar level of the subjects. The results are shown in table 15 below:

Table 15

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grammar Learning Time</th>
<th>Control Group</th>
<th>Experimental Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percent (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-5 hours</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>92.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-10 hours</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 10 hours</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Significantly, the majority of the respondents in both study groups (CG= 92.69%, EG= 94.11%) stated that they spent 1-5 hours weekly in learning grammar outside the classroom. This result indicates that both study groups are homogeneous in terms of the time they spend in grammar learning, and reduces the potential effect of this covariate on the pre-experiment on GA results.

4.2.2. Control of Extraneous Variables

The internal validity of the results could be affected by a number of extraneous variables linked to the context of the current study. These variables are related to the research participants,
the researcher, and time effects. The quasi-experiment on VS in the current research followed a quasi-experimental design. One of the serious limitations set on this design is the limitations on random selection of the research sample. Seliger and Shohamy’s (1989) explain that “In the real world in which schools and classes exist, serious limitations are placed on the freedom of researchers to manipulate and control the conditions under which they conduct research” (p. 148). In this study, random selection and assignment of the sample were not possible under administrative limitations. Yet, homogeneity between the participants was obtained at the level of personal and academic variables.

Another extraneous variable that may affect the internal validity of the research results is the participants’ sensitivity to the used tests. This sensitivity includes either the participants becoming familiar with the test format, or the effect of the pre-test through practicing the test contents. Although the pre- and post-tests used in this study to measure RVS and PVS were the same in terms of format and content, the time interval of 13 weeks between the pretest and the posttest can reduce the familiarity and test practice effects. The last extraneous variable which may endanger the internal validity of the results is the time set for the quasi-experiment conduct. Seliger and Shohamy (1989: 101) explain that, “there is no hard and fast rule for deciding when enough time has elapsed for collecting a valid sample data or for a treatment to have an effect”. Research on vocabulary learning confirmed that VK is not subject to full mastery and is a developing and deepening knowledge through a lifespan. The time allotted for conducting this research was set according to the timeframe of the integrated patterns in vocabulary teaching syllabus. Hence, the quasi-experiment was conducted through 13 weeks during the second semester following the syllabus requirements.
Other extraneous variables related to the teacher trainer, environmental factors, and the timetables of the study groups were also considered as threats to internal validity. The teacher trainer was the researcher herself because of the main reason that the quasi-experiment was conducted in the second semester; the teachers were less cooperative in implementing a new methodology due to their full and busy schedule. Environmental variables linked to the quality of context are not influential because the same conditions of the classrooms and laboratories during the training were available for the CG and the EG subjects. The timetables of both study groups were administratively arranged which means that the positive and negative impact of this administrative arrangement could be perceived at both groups level. Yet, the timetables of the CG and the EG, as stated in table 15 below, indicate that both groups have a morning and afternoon session. Consequently, the similarity in the distribution of the sessions implies that the administrative scheduling of the study sessions is not influential on the quasi-experiment results.

External validity which stands for the possibility of generalizing the results of the study sample to the entire population was taken into consideration through a set of measures to control possible endangering variables. First, the characteristics of the population of third year students were not applicable to the study sample since there was no random selection of the subjects. Further, the timetables of the study groups were not changed in any respects. To control the environment effect and for ethical considerations, the subjects were informed about the development of a research in their classes. The purpose of the research was not stated to offset the effect of subjects’ explicit deliberate focus on the study areas. However, the researcher was the instructor who provided the treatment of integrated PAS in vocabulary and grammar teaching during the intervention phases. Although this presence endangers the external validity of the study, the similarity in the personal and academic profiles of the teachers and their cooperation in
terms of providing the same content to the study sample were measures taken to reduce this
effect. The personal and academic profiles of the subject teachers were collected using technical
cards (see appendix K) in the aim of neutralizing the effect of personal and academic covariates.
The results are stated in table 16 below:

Table 16
Personal and Academic profiles of the Subject Teachers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal and Academic Variables</th>
<th>CG Teacher</th>
<th>EG Teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main field of study</td>
<td>Applied Linguistics (University of Algiers)</td>
<td>Applied Linguistics (University of Sétif)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualification</td>
<td>MA</td>
<td>MA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional experience at university</td>
<td>3 years</td>
<td>4 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching experience outside university</td>
<td>1 year</td>
<td>1 year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main teaching subject</td>
<td>Oral expression</td>
<td>Written expression</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the results of table 16 confirm, there is a quite homogeneity in the personal and academic
profiles of the CG and the EG teachers. This homogeneity neutralizes the effect of the teachers’
characteristics on the quasi-experiment on VS and further supports the effect of the used PAS in
vocabulary teaching.

4.3. The Quasi-experiment on Vocabulary Size

The quasi-experiment on VS was conducted during the second semester of the academic year
2014-2015. The main reason for selecting the second semester is the possibility to conduct the
quasi-experiment continuously with as few breaks as possible unlike the first semester in which
the introductory week, the winter holiday and the first term exam weeks are main pauses which
prevent the continuous implementation of the quasi-experiment. Accordingly, the treatment
started on January 21th, 2015 and ended on May 6th, 2015 for a 13 weeks period. The main
objective of the treatment was to meet the research aims in terms of examining the role of the
instruction that integrates various PAS in teaching vocabulary, mainly the deep-end strategy, the
task-based, and the scenario-based patterns in promoting RVS and PVS.

4.3.1. Rationale for the Integrated Patterns in Vocabulary Teaching

In order to investigate the role of patterns integration in promoting RVS and PVS, the deep-end strategy, the task-based, and the scenario-based patterns were selected. The rationale for selecting these three patterns is their variety in terms of activity sequencing stages. They were also chosen based on the theoretical underpinnings of each pattern as well as their advantages. Although they all fall under CLT, the three integrated patterns differ in their principles and outcomes as discussed below.

The deep-end strategy pattern was selected because of its main advantage of production at the first stage. This implies that the learners will use their own vocabulary in speaking or writing to accomplish the first stage of production. As the learners present their production, the teacher diagnoses weaknesses in the used vocabulary and provides immediate feedback. Because it falls under CLT, this pattern encourages the learners’ communication and teacher’s feedback at the first stage. Hence, the deep-end strategy pattern presents the meaning-focused strand in Nation’s (2007) classification since the learners produce in speaking or writing at the first stage. Further, the pattern was selected because it motivates the learners’ declarative knowledge since the production is context-relevant at the first stage, and then procedural knowledge in which the learners learn more about how to use relevant language to the context under study in the second and third stages.

The task-based pattern was selected because it supports the use of language for meaningful communication under preparatory, practice, and performance stages. Most importantly, this pattern was selected because learners act as main sources of input for the whole
Another reason for selecting the task-based pattern is the possibility to integrate all language skills in teaching vocabulary. Hence, the learners can move from procedural knowledge before and during the task in which they learn how to use vocabulary to work on the task, to declarative knowledge after the task through the repeat performance option in order to reinforce knowledge of the presented vocabulary.

The scenario-based pattern was further selected because of its main advantage of encouraging learners to generate as much language as possible. The interaction and cooperation created under the use of the selected scenarios motivates the learners to use language they already know and search for new lexical items to feel more expressed. Consequently, because the scenarios are always about a problematic situation, the learners work on reflectively to select appropriate language to solve the stated conflict. Hence, the learners do not think about the appropriate solution for the conflict only, but also think about the language appropriate to play the roles within the scenarios.

4.3.2. Course Design and Vocabulary Activities Selection

In order to integrate the deep-end strategy pattern, the task-based pattern, and the scenario-based pattern in teaching vocabulary, there was a need to identify course objectives and to select the teaching content, the instructional materials, and the vocabulary learning activities. The teaching methodology was established according to the stages of the three integrated patterns. Course design stands for “the selection and sequencing of content- the ‘what’ of teaching” (Ellis, 2003: 205). Because the main focus of the present study is the sequencing of activity patterns or the teaching ‘how’, the teaching content- which consisted of the themes, the learning objectives, and vocabulary learning activities, presented to the subjects was selected in cooperation with the CG teacher in order to set the same objectives and select the same instructional content. This selection principle was motivated by the need to reduce the
confounding factor of dissimilarities in the teaching content between the study groups which could bias the results of the quasi-experiment.

The same course design was ensured for the CG and the EG subjects in order to neutralize the effect of the teaching ‘what’ as a key confounding external variable that could cause the quasi-experiment results. The aim of the course was set to develop knowledge of English vocabulary in relation to specific areas. Inherent in this common course design between the study groups is setting the same learning objectives and the use of the same teaching materials. The need to set the same objectives is to ensure that the content provided to both study groups works towards the same ends. Further, the selection of the same teaching materials was important to assure that the subjects in the CG and the CG are exposed to the same content.

This course design was based on the use of five different teaching units with various themes within each unit in order to create variety in the presented content. This variety in the presented units and themes implies that the introduced vocabulary is theme-based and rich in terms of the areas covered. The advantage of this variety is stimulating the learners’ interest in the overall vocabulary learning process. These main covered units were medicine, law and judiciary system, food, people and feelings, and social concerns with various themes under each unit. The themes were selected to provide meaningful and purposeful uses of English vocabulary as stated in table 17 below:
Table 17

Quasi-experiment on Vocabulary Teaching Units and Themes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Units</th>
<th>Themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Medicine</td>
<td>medical equipment, medical professions (Who is who?), diseases and illnesses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law and Judiciary System</td>
<td>law and order, crimes and offenses, criminals and wrongdoers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People</td>
<td>feelings and moods, characters and personalities, professions and jobs that people do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food</td>
<td>Food culture, recipes and restaurants, food and health</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Concerns</td>
<td>domestic violence, emotional abuse, Britain’s child beggars</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Themes relevant to each area were selected and presented under the target integrated patterns. Each unit included 3 lessons that focused on relevant themes to the unit and represented each of the integrated PAS. The alignment of content throughout the lessons was arranged by the researcher in order to respond to the requirements of the sequencing stages of the used pattern.

The vocabulary learning activities had specific objectives to achieve along the overall aim of the study in promoting RVS and PVS under the integration of various PAS. The objectives assigned to vocabulary activities depended on the types of these activities and on the repetition principle (Nation, 1990; Rott, 1999) through reviewing and practicing the vocabulary taught in every session. The aim behind this repetition was to limit the forgetting possibility among the subjects through various gradual exposures to the target vocabulary.

Some of the vocabulary activities provided during the instructional treatment were designed and others were adapted in order to meet the objectives of the present research and the stages of the selected patterns (see appendix L for further details). Further, the vocabulary activities provided during the quasi-experiment were divided into learning activities and practice activities.
following the objectives of the activities. Vocabulary learning activities were the range of activities that introduced the new vocabulary items to the students in multiple contexts. Vocabulary practice activities encompassed the activities that focused on repeating the newly introduced words during reviewing.

Vocabulary learning activities were selected from Watcyn-Jones’ (1995) Target Vocabulary 3 and other secondary resources (see appendix L for further details). The basis for selecting these activities was the varied frequency of words which refer to various vocabulary levels, and the focus of the selected activities on different aspects of learning words including word form, use, meaning, and collocations. In terms of form, the focus was on providing the spoken and written form of the words. The following activity from unit 1 illustrates the focus on spoken word form:

Activity Two: Write the phonetic transcription of the following illnesses.

Amnesia, Anorexia, Cancer, Catarrh, A cold, A coma, Cramp, Diabetes, Dyslexia, Epilepsy, Hay Fever, An inflammation, Malaria, Malnutrition, Miscarriage, Pneumonia.

The focus on written word form is shown in the second task from an activity in unit 3:

The students watch the final episode of “Street Food around the World” in order to:

1. Choose the best cuisine along the show presenter.

2. Write down the names of food stated in the show.

3. State their food habits and preferences?

The use aspect focused on providing contexts of selected words use for communicative situations. Activities that treated word use included the range of activities in which the students
use the introduced words in previous activities to different communicative situations (presenting reports, dialogues, etc) as shown in the following activity from unit 1:

Activity two: Use the words in the previous activity in sentences which state the function of the listed medical equipments.

The activities treated the meaning of words through linking the meaning to the context of use. Examples of word meaning activities include the matching activities in which the students match the word with the right meaning, and the gap filling activities in which the students have to understand the meaning of the word and the sentence for appropriate placement. The following activity from unit 2 is an example of matching words to get word meanings:

Activity Two: fill in the missing words in the passage below. Choose from the following list and note that two of the words are used twice. (Adopted from Watcyn-Jones, 1995, p.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>accused</th>
<th>guilty</th>
<th>put on probation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>acquitted</td>
<td>imprisonment</td>
<td>Sentence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hamsters</td>
<td>judge</td>
<td>testimony</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crown Court</td>
<td>jury</td>
<td>Trial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>defence</td>
<td>Justice of the Peace</td>
<td>Verdict</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dock</td>
<td>Magistrates Court</td>
<td>witness box</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>evidence</td>
<td>oath</td>
<td>witnesses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fine</td>
<td>prosecution</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are two main courts of law in Britain - the (1)……………… for minor offences, such as speeding, shoplifting, etc. and the (2) ……………………… for more serious offences such as fraud and murder. The magistrate or (3)……………………………… who tries cases in the lower court does not have special education or training in law and does not get a salary. (The job is voluntary and part-time.).

At a (4) ………………… at a Crown Court, the (5) ……………………… or defendant stands in the (6) …………………… while lawyers question (7) ……………………… who have to say what they have seen or know and who stand in the (8) …………………… They have to swear an (9) ……………………. to 'tell the truth, the whole truth and nothing but the truth.' What they say is known as their
There are usually two lawyers or counsel in the courtroom. One is known as Counsel for the defendant, and the other as Counsel for the accused. This person has to try to prove that the person accused of the crime really committed it.

The judge sits in a large seat facing the defendant. During the trial they sit in silence, listening carefully to all the evidence. Then, they are locked away until they can decide whether the person is guilty or not. This decision is called the verdict.

The judge now decides the punishment or as it is called. If the person is innocent, he or she is released immediately and is free to go home. If the person is guilty and the crime is serious, he or she could be given several years in prison. However, if it is a first offence, the person might be given a fine instead, for example £1,000, or

Word collocations in activities focused on linking the selected words in use to their matching collocational words. These activities treat word form also since the students have to identify the classes of words in order to collocate the target words correctly. The following activity from unit 3 illustrates the focus on collocations:

Activity one: In pairs, think of food to match each adjective.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tastes</th>
<th>Textures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sour</td>
<td>Soft</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweet</td>
<td>Hard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salty</td>
<td>Chewy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bitter</td>
<td>Crunchy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bland</td>
<td>Crispy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>Smooth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hot</td>
<td>Creamy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spicy</td>
<td>Flaky</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Vocabulary practice activities included a different range of activities in order to help the subjects practice the vocabulary introduced in the learning activities. Vocabulary games were used for practice and reviewing previously taught vocabulary. These vocabulary games included
crosswords puzzle and mixed letters games which were used as warm-up activities and end-of-
class reviewing activities to create opportunities for repetition of the introduced words and to
help the students memorize the newly taught vocabulary items. The activity below is an example
of crosswords puzzle in unit 3:

The following activity from unit 4 is a mixed letter game:

Activity: Identify the words in the following mixed up letters of each word.

Snasistosaia itngolo gumigng mdle lsginumg sorna rofergy hetft lbile dafur

Collocation activities were also used and presented through phrasal verbs and idiomatic
expressions. The objective behind using these activities was to increase the subjects’ ability of
noticing collocations and the network of words in the provided contexts. The following activity
from unit 1 is a collocation based activity:

Activity three: explain the meaning of the following phrasal verbs and use them to write
your own sentences.

Feel a bit under the weather, be over the worst, fight off, be on the mend, be back on
one’s feet again, be over, come down with

The presentation of the selected vocabulary learning and practice activities during the
intervention phase was based on the stages of the integrated PAS in vocabulary teaching. Since
all of the three integrated patterns were organized around three stages, the sequencing of the used
vocabulary activities was based on the stages of these patterns.

4.3.3. Vocabulary Instructional Treatment

The instructional treatment on integrating the deep-end strategy, the task-based, and the
scenario-based patterns was provided throughout 13 weeks. The researcher was the instructor
during the 13 weeks of treatment. The sessions were scheduled in respect to the study programme of the subjects which consisted of two sessions of an hour and a half each weekly. The timetable of the sessions as administratively arranged is stated in table 18 below:

Table 18

Experimental and Control Groups Timetables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>EG</th>
<th>CG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wednesdays (9:30 and 14:00)</td>
<td>Mondays (14:00) and Tuesdays (12:30)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The time allotted for the designed lessons introducing each of the integrated patterns were presented depending on the lesson objectives and content. The time set for each lesson ranged between an hour and a half and 3 hours depending on the lesson objectives, the selected content, and the stages of the used PAS.

Overall, the lessons representing each pattern were presented in a three weeks period. 15 lessons were provided divided on 5 lessons per pattern spread on the 13 weeks of the treatment. The integration of the selected PAS was not done through incorporating the patterns within the same lesson; instead, every lesson was sequenced following the regulations of one of the target patterns. The organization of the lessons per pattern according to the number of weeks is provided in table 19 below:
### Table 19

The Distribution of the Integrated Patterns in Teaching Vocabulary on the Quasi-experiment Weeks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lessons per Pattern</th>
<th>Number of Weeks</th>
<th>Overall Time of Presentation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The deep-end Strategy</td>
<td>Week 1, 4, 7, 10, 11</td>
<td>13.5 hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The task-based Pattern</td>
<td>Week 2, 5, 8, 10, 12</td>
<td>13.5 hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The scenario-based Pattern</td>
<td>Week 3, 6, 9, 11, 13</td>
<td>12 ours</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The instructional treatment was spread on the three PAS integrated, the 15 teaching themes, and the 13 weeks of instruction. The instruction through the use of the designed lessons according to the stages of each of the integrated patterns was fulfilled sequentially in order to ensure the effect of integration within each unit. Each three weeks of the instructional treatment were devoted to the integration of the three integrated patterns except for weeks 10 and 11 in which four lessons were provided during sessions of an hour and a half only based on the selected content and the lessons’ objectives (see appendix L for further details).

The principle underlying the integration of the deep-end strategy, the task-based, and the scenario-based patterns is the use of each pattern to introduce a lesson on a specific theme within the teaching units. The first lesson in each unit during the instructional treatment was provided following the principles of the deep-end strategy pattern. As the production stage is the first stage, the students were required to use the target language in spoken and written modes through individual, pair, or group work in order to discuss, inform, describe, narrate, and persuade using dialogues, written reports, and oral discussions. This production stage is based on communicative situations which were developed in relation to the lesson theme. The following is an example of the production stage of the first lesson in unit 1:
Stage one: Production

Activity One: describe a personal experience where you were very sick (state the illness, describe the symptoms, your visit to the doctor- name his specialty, and his/her counseling, and what medications you took).

Activity two: with your partner, choose one of the following situations to prepare a conversation in the first situation, and to describe the place and people in the second situation.

    Situation One: At the doctor’s

    Situation Two: In the hospital

As could be summed up from both activities, the vocabulary that the students will use is contextualized to elicit their background knowledge about the theme and to involve them directly in the lesson.

At the presentation stage, the theme of the lesson is introduced to the students through watching videos, listening to scripts and songs, reading texts, and critical relevant situations to the theme. These introductory phases were followed by class discussion through sets of questions about the presented material. The following example is the presentation stage of the first lesson in unit 1:

Stage Two: Presentation

1. The students watch a video “The doctor and the patient” (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=YKvAaiGnldY), and discuss the following questions:
2. What was your impression on the first time you visited a doctor? Why?

3. How would you describe a doctor-patient relationship?

4. Do you think that doctors can learn from their patients? How? Give examples.

5. What is the best advice you got from a doctor? Why was it the best?

As the last stage of the deep-end strategy pattern, the practice stage introduced the students to various activities that either introduced new vocabulary relevant to the theme or practiced the previously presented vocabulary at the production and presentation stages or in other practice activities. The following activities from the practice stage of the first lesson in unit 1 illustrate the learning and practice activities used:

*Stage three: practice*

**Activity One:** (Adopted from Watcyn-Jones, 1995, p. 23)

Look at the drawings and write the correct numbers 1-20 next to the following words.

(See appendix L for details)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>adhesive tape</th>
<th>ointment</th>
<th>thermometer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bandage</td>
<td>pill/tablet</td>
<td>Tweezers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capsule</td>
<td>plaster cast</td>
<td>walking frame</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cotton wool</td>
<td>safety pin</td>
<td>walking stick</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crutch</td>
<td>sling</td>
<td>Wheelchair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hearing aid</td>
<td>stethoscope</td>
<td>X-ray</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(hypodermic) needle</td>
<td>stretcher</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Activity two:** Use the words in the previous activity in sentences which state the use of the listed medical equipments.

While the first activity presents the words to learn, the second activity permits the students to practice the words of the first activity. There is to mention at this level that the time allotted for
production and practice stages depended on the number of the activities and the nature of the required task to accomplish in each activity.

The second lesson in each unit was presented using the task-based pattern (see appendix L for more details). The pre-task stage introduces the students to the theme of the lesson through the use of questions as in the example below from lesson two in unit 1:

**Stage one: pre-task**

Which first aid techniques will you use in the situations stated below? (Situations adopted from Watcyn-Jones, 1995, p. 31)

- had fainted
- had hiccups
- had a hangover
- had swallowed a coin or a paper clip
- had frostbite

The second stage of the task-based pattern builds on assigning a task to a specific group to present it to the rest of the class. In addition to this technique, the task in the second stage was distributed on several groups (6 to 7 groups) because of the big number of subjects (34 students). During the task, the students work in groups to read texts or watch videos about the lesson theme and prepare reports about them for discussion with the whole class. At the during task stage of the second lesson in unit 1, the students were divided into two main groups in order to read two texts presenting different medical professions (see appendix L for details), discuss them, and report their comprehension of the nature of the presented professions and the roles of the medical professionals. At the post-task stage, the groups select their spokespersons who present their reports to the rest of the class. The students and the teacher listen to complete the missing data or
correct any mistakes. The follow up activities present activities which further consolidate the theme of the lesson on medical professions as shown in the following activity from lesson two in unit 1:

**Activity one:** Work in pairs to match each of the following definitions with the right medical profession. (Adopted from Watcyn-Jones, 1995, p. 34)

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>A casualty</td>
<td>a) is a person, usually a woman, who has been trained to advise pregnant women and to help them when they are giving birth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>A chiropodist</td>
<td>b) is a person who treats illness and physical problems by moving and pressing muscles and bones.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>A chiropractor</td>
<td>c) is a person who is trained to treat patients by giving them exercise or massage, often to help them walk again after an accident or operation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>A consultant</td>
<td>d) is a doctor whose job is to perform operations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>A district nurse</td>
<td>e) is a person who has been injured or killed in an accident, a fire or a war.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>A general practitioner (GP)</td>
<td>f) is a person who tests people's eyesight and provides glasses and contact lenses.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>A home help</td>
<td>g) is a doctor who examines a dead body to find out how the person died.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>A matron</td>
<td>h) is a doctor who treats people suffering from mental illnesses.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>A midwife</td>
<td>i) is a person who is trained to treat and care for people's feet.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>A nurse</td>
<td>j) is a doctor trained in general medicine who treats people in a certain local area for all kinds of illnesses. He or she is usually the first doctor people go to when they are ill.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>An optician</td>
<td>k) is a doctor who specializes in one area of medical treatment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>An osteopath</td>
<td>l) is a person who is employed by the medical and social services to help people who are old or ill with their cleaning, cooking, shopping, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>An out-patient</td>
<td>m) is a person who treats diseases by feeling and pressing the bones, especially those of the back and neck.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>A pathologist</td>
<td>n) is a person who is qualified to prepare and sell medicines.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>A paediatrician</td>
<td>o) is the woman in charge of the nurses in a hospital. Nowadays she is officially called a senior nursing officer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>A pharmacist</td>
<td>p) is a high-ranking and very experienced hospital doctor who gives specialist advice in one particular area of medicine.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>A physiotherapist</td>
<td>q) is a person who has to visit a hospital regularly for treatment while still living at home.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>A psychiatrist</td>
<td>r) is a person who looks after patients in hospital.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>A specialist</td>
<td>s) is a nurse, employed by the local authority, who visits and treats people in their own homes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>A surgeon</td>
<td>t) is a doctor who specializes in treating sick children.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The third lesson in each lesson was provided following the stages of the scenario-based pattern (see appendix L for more details). The first stage of rehearsal requires assigning the roles of the selected scenario to the students who work in groups in order to develop their version of the scenario. The rehearsal stage from the third lesson of unit 1 is presented below:

**Stage One: Rehearsal**

The class is divided into groups of 3-4 students. Half the groups in the class was assigned role A while the other half was given role B.

Role A: you are a first year student of medicine and you are attending your first day of training in the hospital. During your training, numerous victims of a terrible accident were brought into the hospital and you were asked to give help. You do not really know how to do things because of stress and the speedy instructions of your college teacher. You need to react rapidly to identify the health condition (wound, illness).

Role B: The training in the hospital is under the supervision of one of your strict college teachers. He asked you to give help when the accident casualties were brought in. The instructions of the teacher were quick and calling for speedy actions.

At the performance stage, the teacher explained the frame of the scenario and the groups select their scenario performers to play the scenario in front of the rest of the class. At the debriefing stage, the performances of the groups were assessed based on the stated ideas to solve the conflict in the scenario and the language used to communicate these ideas. The students then work towards creating a model scenario for the conflict in question. The follow up activities introduced vocabulary related to health conditions and diseases as in the following example activity:

*Activity one:* Look at the drawings below and write the correct numbers 1-10 next to the
following words. (Adopted from Watcyn-Jones, 1995, p. 40)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a blister</th>
<th>a bump</th>
<th>a mole</th>
<th>varicose veins</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a boil</td>
<td>a corn</td>
<td>pimples</td>
<td>awart</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a braise</td>
<td>a eut</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The procedures described for the three lessons from unit 1 above were followed to plan the lessons in the other four units. The same order was kept in terms of the use of the integrated PAS. The distribution of the integrated PAS in teaching vocabulary through the lessons and the instructional weeks is discussed below (see appendix L for details).

*Weeks 1, 2, and 3*

The three first weeks of the treatment were devoted to teaching the first unit ‘Medicine’ using the integrated patterns. The first week used the deep-end strategy pattern to present the first theme. The production stage involved the subjects in describing personal experiences, and create communicative situation relevant to the theme. At the presentation stage, the subjects watched and interacted with a short video, and at the practice stage, they worked on a set of learning and practice activities. In the second week, the task-based pattern was used to provide the second lesson. At the pre-task stage, the subjects reacted to a set of situations on the theme. During the task, they worked in groups to read and discuss two different texts and prepare reports on them through simulation. After the task, the groups reported their ideas to the whole class and simulated the selected medical professions. In the third week, the scenario-based pattern was used to provide the third lesson on diseases and illnesses. The selected scenario was a medical aid service in which the subjects had to provide solutions for a critical situation. The learning and practice activities elicited examples of diseases and illnesses.
Week 4, 5, and 6

During these three weeks, the treatment integrated the three patterns to cover the second unit ‘Law and the Judiciary System’. The fourth week used the deep-end strategy pattern in order to provide the first lesson on ‘law and order’. In the first stage, the subjects discuss the need for law following a set of questions. At the presentation stage, the subjects have to react to situations building on their knowledge of the law. And at the last stage, they work on a set of activities. The fifth week provided a lesson on crimes and offences using the task-based pattern. At the pre-task phase, the subjects discuss a set of questions to describe a crime. During the task, they watch a video and prepare questions about its content, and report their ideas and question each other after the task. For the controlled practice, the subjects work on relevant activities about crimes and offenses. The sixth week presented the last lesson in the unit on Law using the scenario-based pattern. The whole lesson was structured around the solving a conflict between the law and the community towards criminals using the stages of the pattern. The learning and practice activities provide vocabulary relevant to the theme.

Weeks 7, 8, and 9

During the seventh, eighth, and ninth weeks, the treatment focused on the third unit of ‘food’. The first lesson presented in the seventh week used the deep end strategy pattern to introduce the theme of food culture. At the production stage, the subjects describe their food experiences. At the presentation stage, they watch an episode from a food programme and react to the content, and they work on a set of activities on the theme at the practice stage. The eighth week introduced the second lesson on ‘recipes and
restaurants’ following the stages of the task-based pattern. While the subjects answer questions about the theme at the pre-task stage, they read, discuss, and prepare reports on their readings during the task, and they present their reports at the after-task stage and practice through a set of activities. The third lesson in the unit was presented in the ninth week using the scenario-based pattern. The first stage presents a scenario of a young cook in conflict for which the subjects try to find solutions which are processed through the stages of the lesson as dictated by the used pattern. The follow up included activities to practice vocabulary on food and health.

*Weeks 10 and 11*

The tenth and eleventh weeks of the treatment presented the three lessons of unit four in sessions of an hour and a half per lesson because of the content selected and the nature of the themes. The first lesson introduced the theme of feelings and moods using the scenario-based pattern. The subjects worked towards providing solutions for the set conflict on a husband taken by work and giving less importance to his family. The second lesson used the deep-end strategy to present the theme of character and personality. After producing some descriptions of selected characters, the subjects listen to a script on the story of the word ‘heart’, and then practice activities about characters and personalities. The third lesson on people and professions used the task-based pattern to present and discuss the profession of being a teacher and the role of being a learner. After reporting their ideas to the class for discussion, the subjects work on vocabulary activities relevant to professions.
The last three weeks of the treatment presented the three lessons of the last unit on ‘social concerns’. The first lesson on domestic violence was presented on the eleventh and twelfth weeks in a three hours session using the deep-end strategy pattern. After reporting their own conception about the theme and discussing with the class with the teacher, the subjects watch a video on domestic violence and answer a series of questions and then practice through the provided activities. The second lesson on emotional abuse was sequenced using the task-based pattern on the twelfth and thirteenth weeks during three hours of instruction. At the pre-task stage, the subjects describe their relationships with their mother, then read a short story on the struggle of a mother and discuss how to report it during the task. They report their ideas to the rest of the class after the task and practice vocabulary in the follow up activities. The last lesson used the scenario-based pattern during the thirteenth week in an hour and a half session to introduce the theme of Britain’s Child Beggars. In response to the conflict situation, the subjects work towards solutions through discussing, reporting, and evaluating the prepared scenarios.

Immediately after the 13 weeks of treatment, the vocabulary posttests were administered to the CG and the EG subjects in order to measure the effect of the provided treatment on their RVS and PVS.

4.4. The Pre-experiment on Grammatical Accuracy

The pre-experiment on GA was conducted during the second semester with 34 subjects. It started on February 4th 2015 and ended up on April 29th, 2015 for a total of 12 weeks in sessions of an hour and a half presented on Tuesdays at 9:30 am. The little possibility to infer cause and
effect in the pretest-posttest design was reduced because grammar was not taught at third year level which supports the effect of the grammar treatment on the GA level of the subjects. This implies that the interference of instruction on grammar other than the treatment provided in the pre-experiment as a confounding factor was minimized.

4.4.1. Rationale for the Integrated Patterns in Grammar Teaching

The patterns integrated to teach grammar in this study included the PPP, the ESA, and the focus on form patterns. The PPP was used because it represents the traditional PAS in the language classroom and because of its numerous advantages. These advantages are the results of the decades of the pattern use in language teaching. Ellis (1988) and Skehan (1996) believe that the pattern conforms to the learners’ potential to learn the target language through intensive exposure and thorough practice. Besides, Read (1985) and Lewis (1993) believe that the production stage awards wider communicative opportunities for learners through reusing the presented target language at earlier stages. Likewise, Skehan (1996: 17) emphasizes the facilitating role of the PPP pattern in testing and checking the comprehension of students thanks to the limited constructive methodology.

Similarly, Hedge (2000: 167) considers the advantageous nature of the first two stages of presentation and practice in developing the noticing capacities of learners “by providing frequent occurrence of a particular form for students to notice”, which consequently affects their input generation (Skehan, 1998). Additionally, Newby (2006) explained that the focus under the PPP pattern is more on developing declarative knowledge explicitly to support grammatical rules learning. The first step of presentation signifies the declarative knowledge level since it presents the target rules to the learners. According to Dekeyser (1998, 2007a, 2007b), procedural
knowledge is activated through continuous practice as provided in the second stage of the method. Once the learners become unconsciously using the target rule, they use it automatically in their production and “proceduralization is achieved by engaging in the target behavior –or procedure” as Doughty and Williams (1998, p.49) explain. These many advantages of the PPP pattern as reported in the research literature after decades of the pattern use motivated its use to teach grammar in this study.

*The focus on form* pattern was selected because of its main advantage of presenting language forms in communicative contexts. This way, the instruction of GA could be contextualized to increase the noticing abilities of the subjects. The grammatical items presented depend on the selected input in order to provide an understanding of sentence structure and problems of GA in the structure of the sentence. The main reason for choosing the focus on form pattern is the inductive treatment of grammatical forms which increases the learners’ ability to notice sentence structure problems. Alternatively, if the learners face difficulties in noticing the target sentence structure problems, the teacher and peers interfere to provide explanations and examples. This way, the cooperative nature of noticing the grammatical items sustains the overall process of focusing on the GA in the structure of the written sentence.

The *ESA* pattern was selected for integration in grammar teaching because of the engagement principle underlying the pattern which stimulates the emotional involvement of the learners in the lesson. Engaging the learners emotionally in the lesson through raising their sympathy, interest, and curiosity about the theme by means of appropriate input helps them to recognize the target grammatical form during the study stage. In consequence, the engagement phase increases the preparedness of the learners to receive explanations on the GA of written sentence structure, and to practice through the set of selected activities. The ESA pattern permits the learners to
activate their knowledge on the presented grammatical forms to produce their own sentences. This makes the learners reflect more on the GA of the sentence structure and pay attention to produce grammatically accurate sentences.

4.4.2. Course Design and Grammar Activities Selection

In order to examine the role of integrating the PPP pattern, the focus on form pattern, and the ESA pattern in promoting GA at written sentence level, and following the needs of these patterns in terms of sequencing grammar activities, the researcher selected teaching contents that focused on teaching grammar in context through making links between grammatical forms and meanings in the aim of helping the subjects to understand and produce the English sentence accurately. As such, the main principle was offering as many possibilities for practice as possible taking into consideration the sequencing of the integrated patterns. Further, because the GA treatment focuses on 8 grammatical errors, the course design was specifically developed to treat these errors.

According to Ellis and Johnson (1994: 115), the choice of teaching materials has a great effect on the language that the learners are exposed to and the learning strategies they use. The grammar teaching content was selected to meet the aim of the present research on integrating PAS to promote GA at written sentence level. The focus on the sentence as the instructional unit required selecting teaching content that would permit the contextualization of the written sentence through providing various themes. The themes covered included nature, literature and readings, mystery, exams, taboos, the internet, tourism and culture, talents, religious extremism and fame in order to ensure a various and rich content. Each theme was explored to teach one grammatical form according to the 8 treated grammatical errors problems, while the two last
themes of religious extremism and fame were explored to review four grammatical errors. The
spread of the themes on the 8 grammatical errors is shown in table 20 below:

Table 20

Grammar Teaching Themes Distribution on the Target Grammatical Errors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Grammatical errors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nature</td>
<td>Subject-verb agreement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literature and readings</td>
<td>Pronoun reference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mystery</td>
<td>Misplaced modifiers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exams</td>
<td>Faulty parallelism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The internet</td>
<td>Faulty coordination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taboos</td>
<td>Faulty subordination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism and culture</td>
<td>Run-ons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talents</td>
<td>Fragments</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The selection of teaching contents along the integration of PAS as the teaching ‘how’ defined the
aim of the syllabus and the objectives per lesson. Hence, following the aim of the study of
promoting GA at written sentence level, the aim of the developed grammar syllabus was to
develop the subjects’ knowledge of the accurate grammatical structure of the English sentence in
writing. Setting objectives per lesson was processed according to the target grammatical error
and the selected activities.

The grammar activities provided during the treatment aimed at raising the awareness of
the participants about the importance of GA. It further had the basic aim of developing the
students’ ability to build grammatically accurate sentences in writing. The training provided a
variety of grammatical activities which were designed or adopted (see appendix M for details) in
the aim of enhancing the students’ GA of written sentences in practice. These activities included
the subjects in a variety of tasks including the identification of the grammatical errors at sentence
or text levels as shown in the example activity below from lesson seven on run-ons:
1. Underline the comma splices and the fused sentences in the following passage.

2. Edit the passage below to fix the run-ons. Use proper capitalization, punctuation, coordination, and subordination.

Next Tuesday, we are going on a field trip to Memphis, we are going to see Graceland. It will be interesting to see where Elvis lived. I am saving my money for the gift shop therefore I cannot let myself buy anything until then. The bus ride there will take us about two hours so we are all going to bring our video games to play. We will visit Graceland in the morning then we are going to eat lunch on Beal Street. It is close to the Mississippi River so we are going to go to Mud Island after lunch. I have been to Mud Island before, however I am excited about going there again. We won’t have time to visit the Memphis Zoo or the Pink Palace Museum we just don’t have time to do it all. My mom thinks we should have gone to the zoo or museum instead of Graceland but I don’t agree with her. My friends and I are excited about our trip we have worked hard to raise the money to pay for it. I think we will learn a lot of interesting facts about Elvis and I know that Mud Island will teach us a lot about the Mississippi River. I love field trips, they make learning fun. (Adopted from www.LittleWorksheets.com)

The second type of activities was based on correcting the grammatical errors to construct grammatically accurate sentences through working on separate sentences or through editing passages following specific instructions as in the example activity above (Edit the passage below to fix the run-ons. Use proper capitalization, punctuation, coordination, and subordination). The third type of activities required the subjects to write and edit their written sentences and compositions and the other subjects’ sentences and compositions to correct the target grammatical errors through individual, pair, or group works as in the example activity below:
Production stage: Write an essay retelling a fairytale of your choice. Identify the modifiers in your partner’s essay, and edit the essay for any modifier placement errors.

Some of the activities used during the training were adopted from Robitaille & Connelly (2007) and other resources, and some other activities were designed by the researcher through using her own written sentences and passages or through using samples of the subjects’ written compositions in the written expression subject (see appendix M for further details). This resulted in full integration of the subjects who showed more interest in dealing with their productions becoming subject to analysis and evaluation by the whole study group. In consequence, not only did the subjects notice their grammatical mistakes, but they also had opportunities to discuss them in pairs or through group work activities.

The sentence structure problems treated in the activities were those highlighted in the SSKT in order to enable the final evaluation of the subjects’ growth of GA in terms of accurate sentence structure writing. Hence, the activities covered problems of lack of subject-verb agreement, misplaced modifiers, unclear pronoun reference, faulty parallelism, faulty subordination, faulty coordination, run-on sentences, and sentence fragments. The activities presented the abovementioned problems through intensive and repeated samples of designed activities. This repetition functioned as a rehearsal stage at the beginning of lessons through warm-ups to review the sentence structure problem previously taught and practiced. (See appendix M for further details)

4.4.3. Grammar Instructional Treatment

The instructional treatment on grammar was provided by the researcher because grammar was not included in the curriculum of third year level. The instructional materials provided rich...
contents and were selected to provide the target grammatical problems in rich communicative contexts. Although the main focus during the treatment was on the grammaticality of the sentence structure, meaning was not neglected and treated through the selected contexts. Immediate corrective feedback to the sentence structure problems and the grammatical errors was provided explicitly during the practice activities and the production stage.

The sessions were scheduled extra to the learning programme and the regular timetable of the subjects after having their consent (see appendix F for further details) and the administration’s consent. The distribution of the sessions on the treatment weeks is stated in table 21 below:

Table 21

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lessons per pattern</th>
<th>Weeks</th>
<th>Time for Treatment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PPP</td>
<td>3, 4, 7, 10</td>
<td>6 hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus on Form</td>
<td>1, 6, 9, 12</td>
<td>6 hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESA</td>
<td>2, 5, 8, 11</td>
<td>6 hours</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each lesson presented an aspect of GA at the written sentence level. The 8 sentence structure problems introduced in the SSKT were treated through the integrated patterns throughout the 12 weeks of treatment. Each of the integrated PAS for teaching grammar was offered 6 hours during the treatment period. The integration of the three patterns was sequential in order to guarantee the variety stated by the procedures of each pattern. The reason for this distribution was the need to create more opportunities for the learners to notice the grammatical errors, practice their correction, and produce grammatically accurate written sentences. The first pattern used throughout the sequential presentation was the ESA in which the subjects engaged
in a reading or listening task followed by discussions based on the lesson theme as shown in the example from lesson 1 below:

*Stage one: engagement*

1. You are going to sit for the IELTS test or the TOEFL test. Explain your preparation techniques.
2. The students watch a video “IELTS Speaking Questions and Sample Answers”.
3. The students prepare their own sample answers to the following sample questions raised in the video:
   a. What do you usually do at the weekends?
   b. Do you enjoy your weekends now more than you did when you were a child? Why?
   c. What was the most special gift you gave to someone?

At the study stage, the subjects work on a set of activities to identify the target grammatical error and draw the grammatical rules for editing the error as in the following example:

*Activity two: Identify the parallelism as correct (C) or incorrect (I).*

1. Either I will graduate with honors or I will take a job.
2. Not only is this food unattractive, but also bad service.
3. Neither my answers nor the way I explained myself satisfied the teacher.
4. Not only was my hair cut too short, but also uneven.
5. When I met Clara, both my instinct and my intuition told me she was honest.

At the activation stage, the subjects activate their knowledge about the target grammatical error in order to edit sentences and passages, and write error-free sentences in paragraph or essay format as in the following example:
Activation stage

Edit the following paragraph for faulty parallelism errors to write parallel sentences.

The classification of tests in the language classroom depends on the procedures of taking the tests and the purpose to do the tests. Tests can be a serious challenge. They can be stressful, they can help to set pedagogical principles about language teaching, and they can help to design more effective tests. There are several types of tests to assess the learning outcome in the language classroom. Paper and pencil language tests assess specific language components or receptive comprehension while performance-based tests assess language use in communication. Tests are also defined by their purpose for use. Achievement tests measure the knowledge acquired after a training period or programme of instruction. Cloze tests examine specific areas such reading comprehension through regular intervals of blank words. Diagnostic tests are used to diagnose knowledge of specific linguistic items. Discrete point tests focus on testing particular language areas. Placement tests serve in placing the learners appropriately into a course of study. Proficiency tests test how much knowledge of language the learners have.

The focus on form was the second pattern structure grammar lessons. Since this pattern has no clear procedures for its implementation, advocates of this pattern (VanPatten, 2009) suggested using the task-based or content-based methodology in presenting the target grammatical items. As such, the task-based methodology was followed to plan and present the grammar lesson under the focus on form principle of implicit grammar instruction. At the pre-task stage, the subjects discuss a set of questions on the lesson theme as in the following example:

Stage one: pre-task

Discuss the following questions:
1. What does the planet mean to you?

2. What are man’s contributions into the planet?

3. What forms of damage did man cause to the planet?

4. How can man protect the planet?

5. Has man’s dominion been good for the planet?

At the second stage, during the task, the subjects read texts or watch videos on the theme for discussion and their attention is implicitly directed to the target grammatical error through writing examples on the board or repeating the sentences that contain the errors as in the following example:

**Stage two: during task**

The students watch a video from “The Big Questions” on whether man’s domination has been good for the planet.

**Discussion**

The students are divided into two main groups in order to discuss positive and negative aspects of man’s domination for the planet. Sample sentences from the video were provided as examples including the grammatical error to help the subjects notice it. The groups prepare arguments for debate depending on their position towards the theme.

At the post-task stage, the subjects debate their ideas and discuss with the rest of the class. They also work on practice activities that focus on the target grammatical item as illustrated in the activity below:

**Controlled practice**

Choose the right verb to agree with the sentence subject. Justify your choice.

1. One of the students (is/are) studying algebra.
2. The exhibit of the artist’s paintings (was/were) very interesting.

3. Mrs. Andrews, along with, Mr. Stone, (do/does) volunteer work.

4. All of the salesmen, including Mr. Stone, (was/were) at the meeting.

5. Every one of the girls (do/does) her shorthand homework.

6. Either Julia or her friends (is/are) planning to attend.

7. Both of the carpenters (is/are) planning to do the job.

8. Neither the students nor the instructor (want/wants) to miss class.

9. The women, as well as the men (sing/sings) beautifully.

10. Most of the nurses (work/works) every day.

The PPP pattern was the third pattern of the sequential presentation of the integrated patterns during the treatment period. At the presentation stage, an explicit introduction of the grammatical error was provided through providing examples of sentences with the target grammatical error related to the theme as illustrated below:

**Stage one: Presentation**

The theme is introduced through the following questions:

1. Which country do you want to visit in the near future? Why?

2. What do you know about the culture of this country?

3. Do you think that your visit to this country will let you know more about its culture? Explain

After discussing these questions, the students watch a video on “cultural tourism” and discuss the relationship between tourism and culture in the light of the video content. The
following sentences extracted from the video were written on the board for explicit presentation of the grammatical error and the rules to fix it:

1. The relationship between culture and tourism is receiving increasing international attention from development agencies, governments, and the tourism and creative industries, you will explore the emerging and in some cases controversial connections between cultural tourism and the environment.

2. Importantly, Graduates will be prepared for entrepreneurial careers and inspiring futures if you are interested in a challenging career in cultural tourism linked to any aspect of the creative sports and heritage industries, then this is definitely the course for you.

At the practice stage, the subjects practice the identification and correction of the target grammatical error through a set of activities as in the following example:

Activity one: Correct each run-on by separating the independent clauses with a period or by adding a comma and a coordinating conjunction or just a coordinating conjunction if the comma is already present.

1. The economy is good right now, there are lots of job openings.

2. Interest rates are low people can afford to buy a new house.

3. Banks are making loans almost everyone can qualify.

4. Consumers are buying new cars in record numbers, last month over ten thousand new cars were bought in this state.

5. Sometimes saving money is the wise course of action, later you can use the money for a down payment on a house or car.
At the production stage, the subjects wrote sentences, paragraphs, or essays about a topic relevant to the lesson theme and edited their productions individually or passed them to their partners and other students for editing following specific instructions as in the example below:

*Production stage*

In an essay, write a retelling of a fairytale of your choice to create your own version.

Exchange your essay with your partner for edition (underline the modifiers in the essay and evaluate their placement).

The target grammatical errors were provided through explicit and implicit information and selecting activities that provide meaningful practice about these errors. The treatment focused on the aspects of recognition of the errors, correction of the errors, and then composition of grammatical error-free sentences at sentence, paragraph, and essay writing levels. Three reasons motivated this variety in compositions although the main focus was the sentence. Firstly, using different types of compositions was meant to create variety in the writing tasks to motivate the learners to produce in writing. Secondly, this variety was needed to contextualize the task of sentence writing through writing sentences about different themes. The third reason for using different types of compositions was to allow the subjects to write as many sentences as possible and within as many grammatical problems as possible.

The time allotted for presenting each grammatical error depended on the amount of practice activities provided and the involved production tasks. The sequencing of the activities was based on the stages of each of the integrated patterns with various opportunities for practice and production following the sequencing of the integrated patterns. The treatment of the target grammatical errors under the use of the integrated PAS and the selected themes for grammar
teaching was distributed on the 12 weeks as discussed below (see appendix M for further results).

Week 1

The first week focused on the lack of subject-verb agreement error under the theme of ‘nature’ using the focus on form pattern. At the pre-task stage, the subjects watched and discussed a video from “The Big Questions” on whether man’s domination has been good for the planet. They also read a text developed by the researcher in order to help them notice the lack of subject-verb agreement error. During the task, the subjects worked in groups to prepare a written summary on the benefits and drawbacks of man’s domination to earth and the need for preserving green spaces (whose responsibility is it?). At the post-task stage, the subjects debated the topic with the rest of the class. For controlled practice, they identified and corrected the errors in the text and worked on other activities.

Week 2

The second week was devoted to the last grammatical error of ambiguous, vague, and implied pronoun reference under the theme of ‘Literature and Readings’ using the ESA pattern. At the engagement stage, the subjects read two critical reviews on two novels (Inferno by Dan Brown and Gone Girl by Gillian Flynn) and answered questions relevant to the reading task. At the study stage, they analysed the reviews to identify the unclear pronoun reference errors. The teacher explains the grammatical error at this stage and provides the rules of correcting the unclear pronoun reference. At the activation stage,
they corrected the errors in the reading passages and worked on a set of activities on unclear pronoun reference identification and correction.

**Weeks 3 and 4**

The third and fourth weeks during the instructional treatment on grammar introduced the misplaced modifiers error under the theme of ‘Mystery’ using the *PPP* pattern. Along the misplaced modifiers, the subjects were also introduced to limiting and dangling modifiers in order to set the difference between the three types of modifiers errors. At the presentation stage, the students read a summary of Agatha Christie’s “And Then There Were None” novel and analysed the underlined sentences to recognize the problem of misplaced, limiting, and dangling modifiers. At the practice stage, the subjects worked on activities of recognition and correction of misplaced, limiting, and dangling modifiers. At the production stage, the subjects wrote retellings of fairy tales of their choices in essay format and exchanged them for evaluation with particular focus on modifiers identification and placement.

**Week 5**

The fifth week during the training introduced faulty parallelism to the subjects under the theme of ‘Exams’ using the *ESA* pattern. At the engagement stage, the students watch a video on “IELTS Speaking Questions and Sample Answers” and interact with the video through preparing their own answers to a sample of questions raised in the video. At the study stage, the students analysed a developed text on tests to identify faulty parallelism and generate the rules for parallel structures use. At the activation stage, the students worked on a set of activities to identify and correct faulty parallelism.
Week 6

The sixth week of the treatment was devoted to the treated grammatical errors in the five previous weeks using the focus on form pattern. At the pre-task stage, the students read a text on ‘religious extremism’ and answer a set of questions. During the task, the class was divided into two main groups which were further divided into groups of 5 students each in order to write sentences that present arguments for western concerns about Islam as an extremist religion and arguments against these concerns. Upon completion, the students set a debate to argue for or against the topic while the teacher and the rest of the class listen to discuss the presented arguments. For controlled practice, the students worked on two texts which included lack of subject-verb agreement, unclear pronoun reference, misplaced modifiers, and faulty parallelism errors to identify and correct the errors.

Week 7

The seventh week was dedicated to faulty subordination using the PPP pattern under the theme of ‘taboos’. At the presentation stage, the students were provided a text on taboos and were asked to identify the main and subordinate clauses and the way they were linked together in order to notice the problem of faulty subordination. At the practice stage, the students worked on a set of activities about faulty subordination. And at the production stage, the students watched a video on “euthanasia” entitled “Taking Mercy-Euthanasia Debate” and wrote paragraphs to argue for or against ‘euthanasia’. Upon completion of writing the paragraphs, the students exchange their paragraphs for evaluation through underlining the main and subordinate clauses to sort out any faulty subordination errors.
Week 8

The eighth week was devoted to faulty coordination under the theme of ‘the internet’ using the ESA pattern. At the pre-task stage, the subjects were guided towards noticing the target grammatical error through reading a text on ‘internet hackers’. During the task, the subjects worked in groups to discuss in paragraphs the topic of ‘trust in the virtual world’. At the post-task stage, the groups communicate their ideas to the rest of the class for a thorough discussion. The controlled practice activities involved the subjects in a set of identification and correction of faulty coordination.

Week 9

The ninth week was dedicated to teaching sentence fragments using the focus on form pattern. Because the used pattern builds on communicative language use, the target grammatical error was presented through reading a text on the theme of talents and discussing a set of questions about it. After reading the text, a group of five students is asked to write a paragraph on ‘whether talents should or should not be encouraged?’ while the rest of the class works on the same task individually. Once completed, the group presents their paragraph and arguments to the class for discussion and to provide other arguments for and against the topic. The students then exchange their paragraphs and are asked to identify the subjects, the verbs, and the dependent clauses in their classmates’ paragraphs and write the sentence fragments they sort out on the board. Afterwards, the students correct the problems in the identified fragments. The students then work on other practice activities on identification and correction of sentence fragments under controlled practice.
Week 10

The tenth week of the treatment was devoted to run-on sentences introducing the comma splice in the first week and the fused sentence in the second week using the PPP pattern. The presentation stage introduced the target grammatical problem. The practice stage included activities that focused on both recognition and correction of comma splices and fused sentences. The production stage consisted of writing a paragraph on tourism in Algeria and the role of cultural variety in which the subjects had to justify all the comma uses to treat comma splices and identify their clauses types.

Week 11

The eleventh week of the treatment was dedicated to reviewing the four grammatical problems introduced in the four previous weeks using the ESA pattern under the theme of ‘euthanasia’. At the engagement stage, the subjects read a text on the industry of fame in the 21st century and discussed the set of raised questions. At the study stage, they analysed the text for the identification and correction of faulty coordination, faulty subordination, run-ons, and fragment errors. At the activation stage, they wrote the stories of fame of celebrities of their choices in paragraph format and exchanged their paragraphs for editing the aforementioned errors.

Week 12

The last week of the instructional treatment on grammar used the focus on form pattern in order to review the grammatical errors presented during the treatment weeks under the theme of ‘memories and dreams’. At the pre-task stage, the subjects read a passage on the topic and discussed a set of questions about it. During the task, they worked in groups to argue for the positive and negative effects of social networks on teenage life. At the
post-task stage, they set a debate on the topic. For controlled practice, they edited the passage for identifying and correcting the 8 grammatical errors presented during the treatment.

Immediately after the 12 weeks treatment period, the post SSKT was administered to the subjects in order to test the role of the integrated patterns in grammar teaching in promoting their GA level.

4.5. Conclusion

The focus of this chapter was to describe the quasi-experimental study which set the integration of various PAS in vocabulary and grammar teaching into practice. This description was based on the used quasi-experimental designs and followed the dependent variables of the study. Hence, after discussing the procedures of conducting the quasi-experiment on VS, the study revealed the procedures followed to conduct the pre-experiment on GA. These procedures included the measures undertaken prior to conducting the quasi-experimental study in order to avoid potential threats to internal and external validity of the results. They also provided the steps of planning and implementing the quasi-experiment on VS and the pre-experiment on GA. Based on the followed research methodology presented in chapter three and the description of the quasi-experimental study provided in this chapter, the next chapter presents and discusses the findings of the present study.
CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

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CHAPTER FIVE
FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

5.1. Introduction

In the light of the research methodology described in chapter three and the description of the quasi-experimental study procedures stated in chapter four, this chapter presents and discusses the findings of the current study. The chapter is divided into two main sections. The first section presents the findings of the study following the three research phases, the stated research questions, and the data analysis procedures. The second section provides discussions for the obtained results in order to confirm or reject the research hypotheses.

5.2. Results

This section provides the results of the study obtained throughout the three phases. The results are organized following the stated research questions and the research methodology. The results of the first phase consist of the observation results organized into profiles to describe the vocabulary and grammar teaching patterns. The results of the second phase present the pilot study results on the reliability of the research instruments (see section 3.5.2. for more details). The results of the third phase are the results of the conducted quasi-experiment on VS and the pre-experiment on GA. The following table summarizes the organization of the results of the current study with reference to the research questions:
Table 22

Summary of Data Collection and Data Analysis Procedures per Research Question.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Questions</th>
<th>Data Collected</th>
<th>Data Analysis Procedures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. What PAS do EFL teachers use to teach vocabulary in the EFL classroom?</td>
<td>Observation (n=3)</td>
<td>Qualitative (Profiles)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. What PAS do EFL teachers use to teach grammar in the EFL classroom?</td>
<td>Observation (n=3)</td>
<td>Qualitative (Profiles)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. To what extent does the integration of various PAS promote RVS?</td>
<td>RVLT (n = 75)</td>
<td>Quantitative analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(dependent and independent t-test,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>significance was set at p= .05 levels)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. To what extent does the integration of various PAS promote PVS?</td>
<td>PVLT (n = 75)</td>
<td>Quantitative analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(independent and dependent t-test,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>significance was set at p= .05 levels)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. To what extent does the integration of various PAS promote GA at written</td>
<td>SSKT (n = 34)</td>
<td>Quantitative analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sentence structure level?</td>
<td></td>
<td>(dependent t-test, significance was set at</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>p= .05 levels)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. What is the relationship between VS and GA as revealed through the scores on</td>
<td>RVLT, PVLT, SSKT</td>
<td>Quantitative analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the used vocabulary and grammar tests?</td>
<td>(n=34)</td>
<td>(Pearson correlation coefficient,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>significance was set at p= .01)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2.1. PAS Identification in Vocabulary and Grammar Teaching Used at the English Department Results

This section provides the results of the observation carried prior to the quasi-experimental study in order to investigate the PAS used in vocabulary and grammar teaching. This
observation carried in the OE and the grammar classrooms works towards answering the first and the second research questions.

5.2.1.1. Research question 1.

The aim behind the observation of the OE teacher was to report on the PAS used in vocabulary teaching. The results of this observation works towards answering the first research question:

1. What PAS do EFL teachers use to teach vocabulary in the EFL classroom?

The results of the observation of the OE teachers were organized in the form of profiles as stated below.

**Profile of Teacher One**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Degree held</td>
<td>Magister</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English teaching experience</td>
<td>26 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral expression teaching experience</td>
<td>19 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary teaching method</td>
<td>Explicit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is taught about a word</td>
<td>meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson opening</td>
<td>presentation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson development</td>
<td>presentation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson closing</td>
<td>discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Types of vocabulary activities</td>
<td>whole class oral discussion activity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher use of language</td>
<td>questions, definitions, synonyms, antonyms, examples, keywords, use new words in context.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of vocabulary knowledge emphasized</td>
<td>receptive knowledge</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first teacher observed had an overall experience of 19 years in teaching oral expression. This experience enabled him to deal with teaching vocabulary thematically to meet students’ needs. His vocabulary teaching was deductive through discussions and no room for vocabulary activities use. In the language laboratory, the teacher introduced the students into English language varieties (British, American, Australian, and South African) through videos, broadcasts and recordings. Moreover, the vocabulary presented was thematic reflecting cultural and authentic contexts. Themes such as politics, domestic violence, climate
change, Britain’s child beggars, multiculturalism, and human trafficking were dealt with through discussions. In addition, the teacher created links between the previously stated information and the new content. The vocabulary load was appropriate to the level of the students since the teacher diversified the contexts. Hence, the students react to the theme first at the laboratory in response to the questions of the teacher. Later in the classroom, the students discussed the theme in broader terms under the full guidance of the teacher.

However, the variety of themes presented was opposed to the use of the same method of vocabulary teaching. The observed teacher used the same pattern of teaching vocabulary that focused on the presentation and production stages. The overall teaching method started with the teacher presenting the theme to the students through a listening task (listening to broadcast, speech, or watching a video). After the listening section, the teacher opened a discussion about the theme with the students to draw their reflections on what they had listened to. The observation further reported the focus on listening and speaking activities only in teaching vocabulary while reading and writing activities were fully absent. Although vocabulary was taught explicitly, what was taught about a word was limited to meaning. Further, the teacher domination of the discussion created little if any opportunities for the students to use the vocabulary presented. Further, the repetition opportunities were very limited as no chances for practice were created.

Meanwhile, the whole discussion was teacher-dominated with few interaction and discussion opportunities created for students. This low student interaction could be the result of little background knowledge about the theme and the one-listening opportunity offered. Moreover, there are no opportunities for vocabulary practice since there was no vocabulary activities presented since the stage of practice was missing. The teacher did not encourage the use of the dictionary and relied on spelling to introduce new words instead of using the whiteboard. Overall, the teaching pattern used was the PPP pattern although the practice
stage was absent and the production stage was dominated by the teacher (see appendix H for further details).

**Profile of Teacher Two**

| Gender: Female |
| Degree held: bachelor |
| **English teaching experience**: 11 years |
| **Oral expression experience**: 10 years |
| **Vocabulary teaching method**: Explicit |
| **What is taught about a word**: meaning, spoken and written form |
| **Lesson opening**: presentation |
| **Lesson development**: practice |
| **Lesson closing**: production |
| **Types of vocabulary activities**: providing definitions, synonyms/antonyms activity, matching activities, language games, fill-in the gaps, sentence completion |
| **Teacher use of language**: questions, definitions, examples, prompt instructions, synonyms, antonyms, keywords. |
| **Type of vocabulary knowledge emphasized**: receptive knowledge |

In the second classroom observed, the teacher has a ten years experience teaching OE. Although her vocabulary teaching method was also deductive and theme discussion-based as the first teacher, the themes included were of less variety. The practice stage was not neglected if compared to the first teacher. At the presentation stage, the teacher introduced the theme briefly to the students through brainstorming. The themes were presented through a listening task or a series of questions relevant to the topic. The students practice through a series of activities. The production stage was considered as an assessment tool in which students have to prepare projects on assigned topics and present them.

The vocabulary presented was thematic and practical reflecting authentic contexts of use, but there was no continuity between previous and new presented information. Every session contents and vocabulary stood isolated from the next content provided. The vocabulary load was adequate to the level of the intended students, but the content and
situations were less stimulating of new themes. The vocabulary learning activities used were level appropriate creating opportunities for vocabulary knowledge use and for classroom participation. Moreover, there were smooth links between the activities since the students move from a recognition stage to use in assigned situations. There was a variety in the types of activities used too, as stated in the teacher profile, since practice was the main stage of the lesson. The teacher-students interaction was remarkable with many opportunities for students to discuss and speak and the teacher was mostly an instructor and guide. The emphasis on practice as the main stage through students’ intensive discussion of the theme encouraged productive vocabulary use situations to meet the teacher’s objective of promoting the students’ VK.

Profile of Teacher Three

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Gender:</strong></th>
<th>female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Degree held:</strong></td>
<td>magister</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>English teaching experience:</strong></td>
<td>4 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Oral expression teaching experience:</strong></td>
<td>3 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Vocabulary teaching method:</strong></td>
<td>Explicit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>What is taught about a word:</strong></td>
<td>meaning, spoken and written form, collocations, associations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lesson opening:</strong></td>
<td>presentation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lesson development:</strong></td>
<td>practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lesson closing:</strong></td>
<td>practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Types of vocabulary activities:</strong></td>
<td>listening activity, providing definitions, providing synonyms/antonyms, matching activities, filling in the gaps, games, word mapping</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teacher use of language:</strong></td>
<td>questions, definitions, examples, explanations, gestures, translations, synonyms, antonyms, collocations, homonyms, false friends, prompts, instructions, keywords.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type of vocabulary knowledge emphasized:</strong></td>
<td>receptive knowledge (speaking)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The third teacher was the youngest and less experienced compared to the other two teachers. The vocabulary was presented deductively but of less thematic variety and context authenticity if compared to the themes of teacher one. The content selected and the vocabulary load were level appropriate, but impractical in terms of stimulating new themes,
critical thinking and problem solving skills. Furthermore, there were no links between previous and newly presented information and the cut between themes created less opportunities for the students to remember or re-use the vocabulary introduced previously.

At the laboratory, the teacher started the lesson through a theme presentation by means of using videos, conversations, or songs. After listening, the teacher leads a discussion with the students through questions, examples and explanations creating various interaction opportunities for students. In the classroom, the teacher provides handouts in which the students worked on activities relevant to the theme. After answering the activity, the students provided their answers with a full discussion of each answer with the teacher in relevance to the theme presented. The teacher guided the discussion through questions and explanations. Besides, the teacher used the whiteboard to write the new words presented and encouraged the students to use dictionaries to find out meanings of difficult words. She also created opportunities for interaction among the students to diversify the expression of ideas relevant to the theme. The use of different vocabulary activities (see the teacher profile) created practice variety from a learning session to another. Overall, the teacher relied on a two sequence teaching method in which presentation and practice were fully emphasized.

5.2.1.2. Research question 2.

The results of the observation carried in the grammar classroom in order to investigate the PAS used in grammar teaching works towards answering the second research question:

2. What PAS do EFL teachers use to teach grammar in the EFL classroom?

The results emerging from observing the three grammar teachers was organized using profiles.
Profile of Grammar Teacher One

| Gender: | Male          |
| Degree: | Magister     |
| English Teaching Experience: | 6 years |
| Grammar teaching experience: | 4 years |
| Grammar teaching method: | Deductive |
| Lesson opening: | presentation |
| Lesson development: | practice |
| Lesson closing: | production |
| Types of grammar activities: | grammatical form-based activities |
| Teacher use of language: | questions, definitions, examples |

The first grammar teacher observed was a male teacher with three years experience in teaching grammar. The observed sessions focused on teaching conditional tenses and the lesson format was a typical PPP pattern. The teacher opened the lesson with a presentation of the conditional tense with explicit provision of the grammar rules that govern the use of the conditional in English. Next, the teacher provided examples of conditional sentences and asked the students to provide further examples. The teacher supplied the students with handouts that included practice in the form of grammatical form-based activities.

The practice focused on the same format of activities in which accurate use of the conditional tenses rules through putting the verbs into the right tenses was followed. While the students were working on the activities, the teacher moved around to provide any required explanations. The students were given turns to provide their answers and the teacher corrected their errors. During the production stage, the students were asked to compose their own examples of sentences using the target conditional tenses. Yet, there is to emphasize that the time allotted to the production stage was not enough for the majority of the students to provide their answers.
Profile of Grammar Teacher Two

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender:</th>
<th>female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Degree:</td>
<td>Magister</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English Teaching Experience:</td>
<td>6 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar teaching experience:</td>
<td>6 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar teaching method:</td>
<td>Deductive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson opening:</td>
<td>presentation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson development:</td>
<td>practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson closing:</td>
<td>production</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Types of grammar activities:</td>
<td>grammatical form-based activities, grammatical meaning-based</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher use of language:</td>
<td>questions, definitions, examples</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The second teacher observed was a female teacher who had taught grammar all along her teaching experience. The whole method of grammar teaching as stated in her questionnaire answers and as confirmed through observation is the deductive method. This explicit grammar teaching was methodologically set into practice through the PPP pattern. Yet, unlike the first teacher, the teacher relied on the use of both the explicit use of rules and situations to present the grammatical items.

The grammar lessons observed centered on teaching the modal verbs to express obligations. The first phase of the lesson presented the model verbs with detailed explanations and examples. The students interacted with the teacher in a remarkable way mainly to justify the use a particular modal instead of another. The practice stage introduced the students to the same type of activities in which they should fill in the gaps with the appropriate model verb with a use justification.

The whole practice presented different communicative situations that express obligation and the students follow the rules to justify their use of the model verbs accurately. Hence, both aspects of grammatical correctness and appropriateness were emphasized during the observed lessons. The production phase involved the students in developing situations of obligation in pairs or groups along with justifications of use. Hence, the variety of teaching
strategies and activities along the explicit teaching of grammar developed numerous opportunities for learners to promote their GK. (See appendix H for further details)

**Profile of Grammar Teacher Three**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender: female</th>
<th>Degree: Magister</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>English Teaching Experience:</strong> 6 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Grammar teaching experience:</strong> 6 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lesson opening:</strong> presentation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lesson development:</strong> practice</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lesson closing:</strong> production</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Types of grammar activities:</strong> grammatical meaning-based</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teacher use of language:</strong> questions, definitions, examples</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The third teacher is another female of six years experience in teaching grammar. The comparison of her questionnaire answers with the observation results revealed no contradictions in the data obtained. The main objective of the grammar lessons as stated in the teacher questionnaire responses was to promote the GK of the students. To meet this objective, the teacher taught grammar deductively using the PPP traditional model. Thus, the lesson opening was a presentation of the grammatical items that focused on the use of “modal verbs” to express possession. The teacher asked the students about the previous lesson and summarized the rules that govern the use of model verbs expressing possession in English. Then, the teacher presented the “modal verbs” thorough explanation of their use through definitions and examples.

The practice stage included a set of meaning-based activities in which the students use “modal verbs” in sentences and justify their choices of use. The teacher provided time for the students to reflect on the activities before answering. As they finished, the students provided their answers while the teacher and the whole class interacted to correct the mistakes. Similarly, at the production stage, the students worked on developing their own situations in the form of dialogues and stories to further practice the use of the learnt grammatical items.
5.2.2. The Quasi-experimental Study Results

This section presents the results of the quasi-experiment on integrating the deep-end strategy, the task-based, and the scenario-based pattern in vocabulary teaching in order to examine their role in promoting RVS and PVS, and the results of the pre-experiment on integrating the PPP, the focus on form, and the ESA patterns in grammar teaching in order to investigate their role in enhancing GA at written sentence level. The results are displayed following the stated research hypotheses. Hence, the results of the quasi-experiment integrating various PAS in vocabulary teaching test the first and second research hypotheses. The results of the pre-experiment on integrating various PAS in grammar teaching test the third research hypothesis. Further, the results of the correlation of the obtained data from the used research instruments to test RVS, PVS, and GA level examine the fourth research hypothesis.

5.2.2.1. Hypothesis 1.

Since the RVLT proved to be reliable as indicated by the .94 reliability index, the RVLT was used in this study as a main RVS testing tool. The current section presents the results of the current study in its part that examined the role of integrating various PAS in promoting RVS. The reliability of the RVLT with the main study participants was .78 (Cronbach alpha= .78) which is a significant reliability index over .70 reliability levels. Hence, the data gathered by means of the RVLT were highly reliable justifying the research into the first research hypothesis.

5.2.2.1.1. Paired samples t-test control group results.

The role of the PPP pattern in promoting RVS is presented through the results of the CG before and after the quasi-experiment. The scores of the CG subjects were collected before and after the quasi-experiment to examine any significant differences on the RVLT. Insistently, the results of the CG were requisite as a statistical interference to determine the
reliability and significance of the quasi-experiment results. This section presents and discusses the ensued results of the CG at the beginning and end of the quasi-experiment in order to test the first research hypothesis.

_Before the quasi-experiment._ It was necessary to analyse the scores of the CG subjects before the quasi-experiment in order to measure their RVS. The mean scores of the subjects on the pretest indicate their RVS and will be compared with the posttest scores. The results are stated in table 23 below:

Table 23

Mean Scores* on the Receptive Levels Test of the Control Group before the Quasi-experiment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
<th>sum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>829</td>
<td>20.21</td>
<td>6.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3000</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>623</td>
<td>15.19</td>
<td>4.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5000</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>469</td>
<td>17.12</td>
<td>6.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10000</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>11.43</td>
<td>4.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWL</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>00</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>702</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>2.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>2748</td>
<td>72.26</td>
<td>16.59</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Out of 150 items.

As shown in table 23 above, the scores of the CG subjects differed from a level to another. At the 2000 level, the mean score obtained was (M= 20.21, SD= 6.00) which represent 829 known words out of 1230 words. The number of unknown words was 401 words. Thus, the number of known words at 2000 word level was unsatisfactory because there were many unknown words at this level and in respect to the students’ third year level.

At the 3000 word level, the mean score obtained was (M=15.19, SD= 4.61) which correspond to a sum of 623 words out of 1230 words. The number of unknown words was
Actually, half the words only were known at this level. In view of the number of unknown words, it was assumed that the level of CG subjects was unsatisfactory at the 3000 level.

In the same way, the mean score obtained at the 5000 word level was (M=11.43, SD= 6.04) which correlate with a sum of 469 words out of 1230 words. This number of words was not satisfactory at this level. Besides, the number of unknown words was 761 words which confirmed that the subjects had a small RVS at the 5000 level.

At the 10000 level, the mean score of the CG students before the quasi-experiment was M= 3.04, SD= 4.46) which represent 125 words only out of 1230. Therefore, the number of unknown words was 1105 which was a very high number to pick up in order to reach a satisfactory level at this high frequency word level. Thus, the CG subjects had a very unsatisfactory word number indicating a small RVS at the 10000 level.

At the UWL, the mean score obtained was (M= 17.12, SD= 2.29). This mean score was consistent with 702 words out of 1230 words. The number of unknown words at this level was 528 which is a significant number of words to pick up at this level since the AWL words fall between the 5000 and 10000 ranges (Laufer, 2002). Thus, the CG subjects had an unsatisfactory number of words at the AWL.

Over the entire test, the mean score of the students was (M= 72.26, SD= 16.59). This mean score stood for 2748 words only out of 6150. The total number of unknown words was 3187. This number of known and unknown words confirmed that the CG subjects had a small RVS before the quasi-experiment.
After the quasi-experiment. After the quasi-experiment, the RVS of the CG subjects was re-tested to examine the role of the PPP pattern in vocabulary teaching in promoting the RVS of the subjects. The results are shown in table 24 below:

Table 24

Mean Scores* of the Control Group on the Receptive Vocabulary Levels Test after the Quasi-experiment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
<th>Sum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>914</td>
<td>22.29</td>
<td>6.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3000</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>663</td>
<td>16.17</td>
<td>4.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5000</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>512</td>
<td>12.48</td>
<td>4.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10000</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>5.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWL</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>00</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>784</td>
<td>19.12</td>
<td>2.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>3013</td>
<td>73.48</td>
<td>15.63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Out of 150 items.

The mean scores of the CG subjects on the RVLT suggest a growth in the RVS at each level and over the entire test. At the 2000 word level, the mean score was (M= 22.29) which corresponded to 914 words out of 1230. The number of unknown words was 316 words. The number of known words was unsatisfactory at this frequency level. Thus, the subjects had a small RVS at the 2000 level after the quasi-experiment. Notably, the number of known words had grown with 85 words at the end of the quasi-experiment.

At the 3000 word level, the mean score obtained was (M=16.17). This mean score corresponded to 663 words out of 1230. The number of unknown words was 567 which is a significant number at this high frequency level. In fact, there was a growth of 40 words in the number of known words at this level. Yet, the growth in the number of known words was still unsatisfactory to state that the subjects had enough vocabulary at the 3000 level.
At the 5000 level, the mean score (M= 12.48) indicated a sum of 512 words. The number of unknown words was 718 words which represent a high number to pick up at this high frequency level. It was deduced that the students’ had a small RVS at the 5000 level after the quasi-experiment. Again, there was an increase of 43 known word families at this level.

Similarly, at the 10000 level, the students obtained a mean score of (M= 3.41) which represented 140 words out of 1230. Significantly, the number of unknown words was 1090 which was very large at this high frequency level. In consequence, the students had an unsatisfactory RVS at the 10000 level. In terms of the number of known words, there was a 15 known word difference after the quasi-experiment.

At the UWL, the mean score obtained (M= 19.12) represented 784 words. Thus, the number of unknown words was 466 in comparison to 528 words before the quasi-experiment. This means that the learners have to pick up many words at this high frequency level to achieve a satisfactory vocabulary level. The growth in the number of known words was 82 words difference before and after the quasi-experiment. This development could suggest a significant increase at the UWL.

Throughout the entire test, the mean score achieved by the CG students after the quasi-experiment was (M= 73.48). This mean score was consistent with 3013 known words out of 6150. The number of unknown words was 3137 which is a large number of word families to learn. A sum of 265 word families was the difference in the growth of the number of known words of the students between the different moments of the quasi-experiment. This growth rate at the different levels and through the entire RVLT had to be examined statistically to determine the significance of the reported growth indices per level and all through the test.
Paired samples t-test results. At the end of the quasi-experiment, the CG scores on the RVLT were compared in order to measure any significant growth in the number of known words at the two quasi-experiment phases. The paired samples t-test compared the mean scores of the subjects at a 0.05 (p= 0.05) significance value. The results are shown in table 25 below:

Table 25

Paired Samples T-test Results of the Control Group Students before and after the Quasi-experiment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>2.07</td>
<td>6.66</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>.05*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3000</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>5.65</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>.27*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5000</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>6.51</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>.36*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10000</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>7.32</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>.29*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWL</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>2.21</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>.03*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5.29</td>
<td>18.71</td>
<td>1.81</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>.68*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at p ≤ .05 level.

The results of table 25 above indicate a significant development in the RVS of the CG students between the beginning and end of the quasi-experiment at two levels only. In fact, at the 2000 level, the mean score difference obtained at the pretest and posttest phases was (M= 2.07, SD= 6.66). The significance of this mean difference score was statistically inferred using the paired samples t-test value. The t value t(40) = 1.99 was significant at p= .05. Thus, we concluded that there is a significant growth in the RVS of the CG students at the 2000 level.

However, at the 3000 level, the mean difference score (M= 1.80, SD= 5.65) reported no significance because the t-test value t(40)= 1.11 had a significance value that is bigger
than .05 (p= .27>.05). Hence, we assume that there is no significant development at the 3000 level in the RVS of the CG students.

At the 5000 level, the mean difference score between the beginning and the end of the quasi-experiment was (M= 4.00, SD= 6.51). However, this mean score was not significant as indicated by the t value $t(40)= 3.93$ which was not significant since $p= 0.36 > .05$. Therefore, there is no significant growth in the number of known words at the 5000 level at the end of the quasi-experiment.

In the same way, the mean difference score obtained at the 10000 level was (M= 1.04, SD= 7.31) was not significant since the t-test value $t(40)= 0.91$ had a significance value that was bigger than .05 (p= 0.29> .05). As a result, there is no significant growth in the RVS of the subjects at the 10000 level at the end of the quasi-experiment.

At the UWL, the mean difference score between the quasi-experiment stages was (M= 0.36, SD= 2.21). Emphatically, this mean difference score was significant as confirmed by means of $t(40) = 1.06$ which was significant at $p= .03$ level. This result confirms that there is a significant growth in the RVS of the students at the UWL.

Throughout the entire RVLT, the mean difference score between the scores on the pretest and the pretest was (M= 5.29, SD= 18.71). This mean score reported no significance building on the t value $t(40)= 1.81$ which had a significance value bigger than .05 (p= .68 > .05). Consequently, there is no significant increase in the RVS of the students over the entire test at the end of the quasi-experiment under the use of the PPP pattern in teaching vocabulary.

5.2.2.1.2. Paired samples t-test experimental group results.

In order to test the first research hypothesis, the scores of the EG obtained at the tow moments of the quasi-experiment were compared to deduce any significant growth in the RVS of the subjects as a result of the integration of various PAS in teaching vocabulary.
Further, the scores of the CG and EG were compared before and after the quasi-experiment to examine any differences in the RVS of both groups with reference to the vocabulary teaching patterns used. This section tests the role of integrating the deep-end strategy, the task-based, and the scenario-based patterns in promoting RVS among the EG subjects. The scores on the RVLT were compared using the paired samples t-test to examine any significant growth in RVS at the end of the quasi-experiment.

**Before the quasi-experiment.** The data of the pretest were analysed using mean scores and standard deviations to measure the RVS of the subjects at each level of the test and over the entire test. Table 26 below reports on the results of the RVLT at the beginning of the quasi-experiment:

Table 26

Mean Scores* of the Experimental Group on the Receptive Vocabulary Levels Test before the Quasi-experiment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
<th>Sum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>29.00</td>
<td>631</td>
<td>20.35</td>
<td>5.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3000</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>25.00</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>14.35</td>
<td>4.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5000</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>29.00</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>9.77</td>
<td>4.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10000</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>16.00</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>2.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AWL</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>599</td>
<td>19.32</td>
<td>5.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>24.00</td>
<td>99.00</td>
<td>2085</td>
<td>67.258</td>
<td>17.67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Out of 150 items.

The results stated in table 26 above indicate that overall the students had a small RVS at the beginning of the quasi-experiment. At the 2000 level, the mean score obtained (M=20.35, SD=5.51) was consistent with 631 known words out of 930 words required for the level. This means that there were 299 unknown words. This number of known words at this level was unsatisfactory since knowledge of the words at this level constitutes the level to
access oral communication (Zimmerman, 2004). Besides, the 2000 word families are included in 87% of written texts and about 80% of academic texts (Nation, 1990). Thus, we assumed that the students had a small RVS at the 2000 level.

At the 3000 level, the mean score achieved was (M= 14.35, SD= 4.66) which represented 445 word families out of 930. The number of unknown words was 485. Accordingly, there were many unknown words at this level. We concluded that the students had unsatisfactory word knowledge at the 3000 level.

At the 5000 level, the students’ scores resulted in a mean score (M= 9.77, SD= 5.99). This mean score signified knowledge of 303 word families out of 930. The number of unknown words was 627 which is a large vocabulary to pick up at this level. In consequence, we assumed that the EG students had a small RVS at the high frequency 5000 level.

At the 10000 level, the mean score obtained (M= 3.45, SD= 2.60) was an index for knowledge of 107 word families only out of 930. Significantly, the number of unknown words was very large as 823 words were reported to be unknown at this high frequency level. Assumingly, the students had a small RVS at the 10000 level.

At the UWL, the students’ responses reported a mean score of (M= 19.32, SD= 5.99) which was consistent with knowing 599 word families. The number of unknown words at this level was 331 which is a significant number to be picked up at this high frequency level. Thus, we presumed that the students had a small number of known words at the UWL.

Over the RVLT, the mean score of the EG students before the quasi-experiment was (M= 67.25, SD= 17.67). This mean score represented knowledge of 2085 word families out of 4650. Hence, the number of unknown words was estimated to be 2565 words which is a
considerable number of words to learn. As a result, the students had a small RVS at every level and throughout the entire test before the beginning of the quasi-experiment.

After the quasi-experiment. The RVLT was administered at the end of the quasi-experiment to observe any growth in the number of known words out of the scores of the EG subjects on the RVLT. The data were analysed using descriptive analysis as shown in table 27 below:

Table 27

Mean Scores* of the Experimental Group on the Receptive Vocabulary Levels Test after the Quasi-experiment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
<th>Sum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>30.00</td>
<td>791</td>
<td>25.51</td>
<td>4.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3000</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>27.00</td>
<td>621</td>
<td>20.03</td>
<td>5.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5000</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>30.00</td>
<td>504</td>
<td>16.25</td>
<td>5.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10000</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>29.00</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>5.90</td>
<td>5.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWL</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>22.00</td>
<td>723</td>
<td>23.48</td>
<td>6.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>34.00</td>
<td>138.00</td>
<td>2827</td>
<td>91.19</td>
<td>21.63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Out of 150 items.

As table 27 above indicates, the mean scores of each level and over the entire test suggest a growth in the RVS of the EG students. At the 2000 level, the mean score (M= 25.51, SD= 4.25) was compatible with knowledge of 791 word families out of 930 words. The number of unknown words was 139 words. Emphatically, there was a growth of 160 word families at this level between the beginning and end of the quasi-experiment. We think there was a growth in the RVS of the EG students.

At the 3000 level, the mean score obtained was (M= 20.03, SD= 5.38) which matched knowledge of 621 word families out of 930. The number of unknown words was 903 which is a large vocabulary size to learn at this high frequency level. However, there was a
development of 176 word families at this level at the end of the quasi-experiment. Thus, we think the integration of various patterns of activity sequencing was effective in promoting the RVS at the 3000 level.

At the 5000 level, the students achieved a (M= 16.25, SD= 5.48) mean score which correlated with knowledge of 504 words out of 930. This meant that 426 words were unknown at this level. The RVS of the students at the 5000 level was still unsatisfactory in view of the large vocabulary to pick up at this high frequency level. Emphatically, the RVS of the students had grown with 201 word families at this level at the end of the quasi-experiment. We think the use of integrated patterns had a positive effect on the RVS of the students at this level.

At the 10000 level, the students succeeded to achieve a higher mean score (M= 5.90, SD= 5.07). This obtained mean score was consistent with 183 known words out 930. The number of unknown words was 747 which is a large vocabulary to learn at this high frequency level. Therefore, we deduced that the students still had unsatisfactory RVS after the quasi-experiment. Yet, we noticed a growth of 76 word families at this level which may be the result of the use of integrating various patterns of activity sequencing in teaching vocabulary.

At the UWL, the students reported a mean score of (M= 23.48, SD= 6.80) which represented knowledge of 723 word families out of 930. The number of unknown words was 207 words which is a significant vocabulary to learn at this high frequency level. Thus, the students’ RVS at the UWL was still unsatisfactory after the quasi-experiment. Meanwhile, there was an increase of 124 word families known at this level before and after the quasi-experiment. We think the pattern integration methodology was behind this growth.
Over the entire test, the students obtained a mean score (M= 91.19, SD= 21.63) which corresponded to knowledge of 2827 words out of 4650. Thus, the number of unknown words throughout the whole test was 1823 words. This number of unknown words is significantly a large vocabulary to learn stating that the students still had unsatisfactory RVS after the quasi-experiment. There is to emphasize that the students’ number of known words had grown with a sum of 724 word families between the quasi-experiment stages.

**Paired samples t-test results.** The mean scores of the pre- and post-RVLT were compared using the paired samples t-test in order to infer any significant statistical differences in the RVS of the students before and after the quasi-experiment. The results are stated in table 28 below:

Table 28

Paired Samples T-test Results of the experimental Group Students before and after the Quasi-experiment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>5.16</td>
<td>6.11</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3000</td>
<td>5.67</td>
<td>5.85</td>
<td>5.39</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5000</td>
<td>6.48</td>
<td>6.99</td>
<td>5.15</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10000</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>5.76</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>.02*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWL</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>7.95</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>23.93</td>
<td>24.47</td>
<td>5.44</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>.00*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at the p = .05 level.

The results of table 28 above indicate the mean difference scores of the RVLT between the beginning and end of the quasi-experiment. As could be assumed from the
results displayed, there was a highly significant growth in the RVS of the EG subjects at each word level and over the entire test.

At the 2000 level, the obtained mean difference score (M= 5.16, SD= 6.11) indicated a growth of 160 words knowledge at this level. The significance of this growth was confirmed statistically since the t-test value t(33)= 4.69 was highly significant as indicated by p=.00 < .05. Thus, we deduced that the integration of the deep-end strategy pattern, the task-based pattern, and the scenario-based pattern was effective in promoting RVS at the 2000 level.

At the 3000 level, the calculated mean difference score was (M= 5.67, SD= 5.85). This mean difference score was consistent with an increase of 176 word families at the end of the quasi-experiment. The significance of this development in the number of known words was confirmed statistically because the t-test value t(33)= 5.39 was highly significant at p=.00 < .05. Thus, the integration of the deep-end strategy pattern, the task-based pattern, and the scenario-based pattern had a positive role in promoting RVS at the 3000 level.

At the 5000 level, the comparison of the mean scores of the EG subjects before and after the quasi-experiment reported a mean difference score of (M= 6.48, SD= 6.99). Overall, an increase of 201 word families was witnessed at this high frequency level at the end of the quasi-experiment. To check the significance of this increase, the paired samples t-test was used. The resulting t value t(33)= 5.15 was highly significant at p=.00 < .05. Thus, we assumed that the integration of the deep-end strategy pattern, the task-based pattern, and the scenario-based pattern had a positive role in promoting RVS at the 5000 level.

At the 10000 level, the mean difference score resulting from comparing the mean scores of the subjects’ responses on the RVLT was (M= 2.45, SD= 5.76). At this level, the number of words increased from 107 to 183 known words with an increase of 76 word
families. The significance of this growth was confirmed statistically through the t-test value \( t(33)= 2.36 \) which was significant at \( p= .02 < .05 \). Accordingly, the integration of the deep-end strategy pattern, the task-based pattern, and the scenario-based pattern was assumed to have a positive role in promoting RVS at the 10000 level.

At the UWL, the mean difference score was \((M= 4.16, SD= 7.95)\) indicating an increase of 124 word families. The significance of this difference was proved statistically via the t-test value \( t(33)= 2.91 \) which was highly significant at \( p=.00 < .05 \). Hence, the integration of the deep-end strategy pattern, the task-based pattern, and the scenario-based pattern was assumed to have a positive role in promoting RVS at the UWL.

Over the entire test, the mean difference score obtained \((M= 23.93, SD= 24.47)\) denoted an increase of 724 word families at the end of the quasi-experiment. The significance of this increase was validated statistically through the resulting paired samples t-test value \( t(33)= 5.44 \) which is highly significant at \( p= .00<.05 \). In consequence, it was deduced that the integration of the deep-end strategy pattern, the task-based pattern, and the scenario-based pattern has a positive role in promoting RVS through the RVLT.

### 5.2.2.1.3. Independent samples t-test results.

The role of integrating various PAS, particularly the deep-end strategy, the task-based pattern, and the scenario-based pattern in promoting RVS was further compared through the scores of the CG and the EG subjects on the RVLT before and after the quasi-experiment in order to test the first research hypothesis. To fulfill this comparison and infer its significance statistically, the independent samples t-test was used in order to compare the scores of both study groups on the RVLT at the beginning and at the end of the quasi-experiment for any significant statistical differences.
Before the quasi-experiment. The scores of the CG and the EG on the RVLT were compared at the beginning of the quasi-experiment because they would ensure that the participants had no differences in their RVS per level and through the entire test. Hence, any significant differences found at the end of the quasi-experiment will test the first research hypothesis towards confirmation or rejection. The obtained results are displayed in table 29 below:

Table 29

Independent Samples T-test Results on the Receptive Vocabulary Levels Test between the Control and the Experimental Groups before the Quasi-experiment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th></th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>.92*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3000</td>
<td>-0.84</td>
<td>-0.76</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>.44*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5000</td>
<td>-1.66</td>
<td>-1.62</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>.10*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10000</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>.48*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWL</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>.12*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>-5.01</td>
<td>-1.23</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>.22*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at the \( p = .05 \) level.

The results obtained after comparing the mean scores of the students from the CG with the mean scores of the EG students on the RVLT revealed that the students had no differences in RVS at the beginning of the quasi-experiment. At the 2000 level, the mean difference (M= 0.13) indicated that there are slight if any differences in the RVS of both groups. In order to confirm whether the mean difference score was stating differences between the CG and the EG subjects in RVS at the 2000 level, the independent samples t-test was used. The obtained t-test value \( t(73)= 0.89 \) was not significant because \( p= .92 >.05 \). This
confirms that the CG and the EG subjects had no differences at their 2000 level at the beginning of the quasi-experiment.

At the 3000 level, the obtained mean difference score was (M= -.84) in favour of the CG subjects. This mean difference was tested statistically through the independent samples t-test in order to examine whether the CG subjects outnumbered the EG subjects in RVS at the 3000 level. The obtained t-test value \( t(73)= -.76 \) was not significant since \( p=.44 > .05 \) confirming that there were no differences in RVS between the CG and the EG subjects at the 3000 level at the beginning of the quasi-experiment.

At the 5000 level, the resulting mean difference score was (M= -1.66) supporting the implication that the CG subjects had a larger RVS at this level than the EG subjects. However, the statistical intervention through the t-test proved that the obtained mean difference score stated no differences between both study groups since the t value \( t(73)= -1.62 \) was not significant given that \( p= .10 > .05 \). Accordingly, it was confirmed that the subjects from the CG and the EG had no differences at their 5000 level at the beginning of the quasi-experiment.

At the 10000 level, the mean difference score (M= .40) further suggested that the subjects from both groups had slight differences in their RVS. However, the obtained t-test value \( t(73)= .69 \) was not significant because \( p= .48 > .05 \) and confirmed that the obtained mean difference score presents no significant differences at the 10000 level between the subjects from both study groups at the beginning of the quasi-experiment.

Similarly, at the UWL, the mean difference score obtained (M= 2.20) hinted towards a difference between the study groups in favour of the EG. However, this difference possibility was refuted statistically through the t-test value \( t(73)= 1.53 \) which was not significant because \( p= .12 > .05 \) significance level. For this reason, it was deduced that there
were no differences between the CG and the EG subjects at the UWL at the beginning of the quasi-experiment.

Through the entire test, the obtained mean score difference (M= -5.01) indicated differences between the study groups was in support of the CG having a larger RVS. Yet, no statistical significance was found because \( t(73)= -1.23 \) was not significant as indicated by \( p= .22 \) > .05 which is beyond .05 significance level. As a consequence, the subjects from both the CG and the EG had no differences at their RVS overall the RVLT at the beginning of the quasi-experiment.

Since the mean scores of the CG and the EG subjects on each level and over the RVLT indicated no differences between the study groups, it was concluded that both groups had started the quasi-experiment at a homogeneous RVS level. This homogeneity of RVS level between both study groups would emphasize that any significant differences in the RVS between the CG and the EG subjects would not be attributed to chance.

*After the quasi-experiment.* The comparison of the mean scores of the CG and the EG subjects at the end of the quasi-experiment was necessary in order to examine any growth in RVS of the EG subjects in response to the role of integrating various PAS in teaching vocabulary. Emphatically, the results obtained after the quasi-experiment would not be ascribed to chance since the extraneous variables effect was statistically reduced by means of the CG intervention and the homogeneity of the subjects’ scores from both study groups at the beginning of the quasi-experiment. The results of the comparison between the CG and the EG scores on the RVLT at the end of the quasi-experiment are introduced in table 30 below:
Table 30
Independent Samples T-test Results on the Receptive Vocabulary Levels Test of the Control and Experimental Groups after the Quasi-experiment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>.01*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3000</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5000</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>.01*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10000</td>
<td>2.48</td>
<td>2.47</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>.01*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWL</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>17.70</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>.00*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at the $p = .05$ level.

As table 30 above indicates, the mean scores of the CG and the EG suggests that the EG subjects have a larger RVS at the end of the quasi-experiment in comparison to the CG subjects. The confirmation of this suggestion would confirm the hypothesis that the integration of various PAS has a positive role in promoting RVS.

At the 2000 level, the obtained mean difference score ($M = 3.22$) supports a development in RVS of the EG subjects at this level. The significance of this mean score difference was confirmed statistically through the value of $t(73) = 2.44$ which was highly significant at ($p = .01) < .05$. This significance proves that the EG subjects had a larger RVS than the CG subjects at the 2000 level at the end of the quasi-experiment.

At the 3000 level, the mean difference score between the mean scores of the CG and the EG subjects ($M = 3.86$) suggested that the EG subjects had a larger RVS. The t-test confirmed the significance of this difference since $t(73) = 3.31$ was highly significant at ($p = .00) < .05$. It was confirmed that the number of known words among the EG subjects and
within their RVS was larger than the CG subjects’ RVS at the 3000 level at the end of the quasi-experiment.

At the 5000 level, the mean difference score obtained (M= 3.77) reported an increase at the 5000 level in favour of the EG subjects. The significance of this increase was proved statistically by means of the t-test value t(73) = 2.65 which was highly significant at (p= .01) < .05. Accordingly, this result confirmed that the EG subjects had a larger RVS at the 5000 level than the CG subjects at the end of the quasi-experiment.

At the 10000 level, the obtained mean difference score (M=2.48) hinted towards the EG subjects having a larger RVS at the end of the quasi-experiment. The significance of this hint was proved statistically through the value of the t-test t(73)= 2.74 which was found to be highly significant at (p= .01) < .05. It was assumed, therefore, that the EG subjects had a larger RVS than the CG subjects at the 10000 level at the end of the quasi-experiment.

At the UWL, the resultant mean difference score (M= 4.36) indicated that the EG subjects had a larger RVS at the end of the quasi-experiment. The significance of this mean score was confirmed through the resultant t-test value t(73)= 3.54 which indicated a high significance at (p= .00) < .05. This result confirmed that there the EG subjects had a larger RVS at the UWL level at the end of the quasi-experiment.

Over the entire test, the mean difference score (M= 17.70) suggested that the EG subjects had a larger RVS than the CG subjects at the end of the quasi-experiment. The significance of this result was confirmed statistically through the t-test value t(73)= 4.03 which was highly significant at (p= .00) < .05. As a result, the EG subjects had a larger RVS over the entire test at the end of the quasi-experiment.

5.2.2.2. Hypothesis 2.

The role of integrating the deep-end strategy, the task-based, and the scenario-based patterns in promoting PVS was measured by means of the PVLT at the beginning and at the
end of the quasi-experiment. The first step was to examine the role of the PPP pattern use in teaching vocabulary through comparing the CG scores on the PVLT before and after the quasi-experiment using the paired samples t-test. Next, the mean scores of the EG subjects on the PVLT before and after the quasi-experiment were compared using the paired samples t-test in order to test the role of integrating various PAS in enhancing PVS. Eventually, the mean scores of the CG and the EG subjects were further compared using the independent samples t-test in order to prove the role of integrating various PAS in promoting PVS. Overall, this section tests the second research hypothesis.

5.2.2.2.1. Paired samples t-test control group results.

In order to diagnose the PVS of the CG subjects, the PVLT was administered before and after the quasi-experiment. The aim was to compare the performance of the CG on the PVLT using the paired samples t-test for any significant growth per level or over the entire test in their PVS. This section accordingly tests the second research hypothesis.

Before the quasi-experiment. The PVLT was used before the quasi-experiment in order to measure the PVS of the CG subjects. Table 31 below presents the obtained pretest results:
Table 31

Mean Scores* of the Control Group on the Productive Vocabulary Levels Test before the Quasi-experiment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
<th>Sum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>517</td>
<td>12.60</td>
<td>2.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3000</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>299</td>
<td>7.29</td>
<td>2.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5000</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>2.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10000</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWL</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>268</td>
<td>6.53</td>
<td>3.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>1250</td>
<td>30.48</td>
<td>10.21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Out of 90 items.

The results of table 31 above reported on the PVS of the CG at the beginning of the quasi-experiment. At the 2000 level, the obtained mean score (M= 12.60, SD= 2.47) corresponded to a sum of 517 out of 738 words required for this level. Emphatically, this mean score is weak because it presented (70.05%) of the required score and it goes below the 83% significance level according to Nation’s (1990) experience of using the PVLT. As the mean score and their corresponding percentages are below the 83% weakness threshold level, it was concluded that the CG subjects had a small PVS at the 2000 word level at the beginning of the quasi-experiment.

At the 3000 level, the obtained mean score (M= 7.29, SD= 2.56) was consistent with 299 (40.51%) of the words known at this level. Since this mean score was below the 83% threshold level according to Nation’s (1990) experience in using the test, it was assumed that the CG subjects had a small PVS at the beginning of the quasi-experiment.

At the 5000 level, the participants obtained a mean score (M= 3.60, SD= 2.68) which corresponded to 148 known words or (20.05%) only out of the 83% significance level. This
result prompted us to claim that the subjects had a small PVS at the 5000 level at the beginning of the quasi-experiment.

Similarly, at the 10000 level, the subjects had a small PVS since the obtained mean score (M= 0.43, SD= 3.10) indicated knowledge of 18 word families only or (2.43%) which was far below the 83% threshold significance level.

At the UWL, the subjects had also achieved a weak mean score (M=6.53, SD= 0.77) which correlated with knowing 268 words indicating a low frequency (36.31%). Because the mean score and its corresponding frequency were below the 83% threshold level, it was concluded that the CG subjects had a small PVS at the UWL at the beginning of the quasi-experiment.

Over the entire test, the mean score (M= 30.48, SD= 10.23) was consistent with 1250 known words. This number of known words presented (33.87%) only out of the 83% threshold level. this result confirms that the CG subjects had a small PVS over the entire test.

Taking into consideration the weak mean scores obtained per level and through the entire test, any growth in the number of known words at the end of the quasi-experiment may prove the role of using the same pattern in teaching vocabulary.

After the quasi-experiment. After the quasi-experiment, the PVLT was re-administered in order to measure the PVS of the students in relation to the PPP pattern use in teaching vocabulary. The results are stated in table 32 below:
Table 32

Mean Scores* of the Control Group Subjects on the Productive Vocabulary Levels Test after the Quasi-experiment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
<th>Sum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>9,00</td>
<td>17,00</td>
<td>555</td>
<td>13,53</td>
<td>2,49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3000</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>4,00</td>
<td>12,00</td>
<td>325</td>
<td>7,92</td>
<td>2,14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5000</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>1,00</td>
<td>10,00</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>4,97</td>
<td>2,31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10000</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>0,00</td>
<td>5,00</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>0,78</td>
<td>1,21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWL</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>2,00</td>
<td>13,00</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>6,73</td>
<td>2,80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>21,00</td>
<td>54,00</td>
<td>1392</td>
<td>33,95</td>
<td>9,34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Out of 90 items.

The results obtained after the quasi-experiment suggested an increase in the PVS of the CG subjects per level and over the entire test. First, the mean score of the respondents at the 2000 level (M= 13.53, SD= 2.49) was consistent with knowledge of 555 word families or (75.20%). An increase of 38 word families was noticed after the quasi-experiment at this level. However, the obtained mean score was weak since it was below the 83% weakness identification level. Thus, the increase in the PVS of the subjects at the 2000 level was not significant confirming that the students still have a small PVS at this level.

Likewise, the mean scores of the respondents at the 3000 (M= 7.92, SD= 2.14) indicated 325 (44.03%) known words at this level. The obtained mean score was below 83% threshold significance level. The increase in the number of known words at this level was 26 word families. This implies that the number of unknown words was still significant and confirms that the subjects still have a small PVS at the 3000 level at the end of the quasi-experiment.

In the same way, the CG subjects reported a weak mean score (M= 4.97, SD= 2.31) at the 5000 level at the end of the quasi-experiment. This score represented 204 or (27.64%)
known word families at this level. An increase of 56 word families was achieved at this level. Yet, the weak score obtained stated that the students still have a small PVS at the 5000 level when the quasi-experiment ended.

At the 10000 level, the growth in the number of known words was 32 with a total increase of 14 words before and after the quasi-experiment. However, the obtained mean score (M= 0.78, SD= 1.21) corresponded to (4.33%) which was far below the 83% score weakness level. Consequently, it was concluded that the PVS of the subjects remained small after the quasi-experiment at the 10000. This further implies that the PVS of the CG subjects is below the 10000 level.

At the UWL, the growth in PVS resulted in a sum of 276 known words at this level. The weak mean score (M= 6.73, SD= 2.80) was consistent with (37.39%) which was significantly below the threshold 83% significance level. In consequence, the growth of PVS at the UWL after the quasi-experiment was insignificant stating that the subjects still have a small PVS at this level.

Over the entire test, the results stated that the subjects’ mean scores had developed with 142 known words. The mean score (M= 33.95, SD= 9.34) corresponded to (37.72%) out of 83% as the threshold significance level. Accordingly, the overall PVS of the CG subjects remained small at the end of the quasi-experiment. The increase in the number of known words suggests that the use of the PPP pattern was effective. For this reason, a statistical intervention was needed to measure the significance of the growth in the CG subjects’ scores on the PVLT.

*Paired samples t-test results.* The mean scores of the CG subjects obtained before and after the quasi-experiment were compared using the paired samples t-test in order to infer any
significant statistical differences. This comparison aimed at testing the role of the PPP pattern in promoting the PVS of the subjects. The results are displayed in table 33 below:

Table 33

Paired Samples T-test Results of the Control Group before and after the Quasi-experiment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>.09*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3000</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>.22*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5000</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10000</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>.06*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWL</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>.73*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>12.19</td>
<td>1.81</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>.07*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at the $p = .05$ level.

The results of table 33 above indicated that overall there were no significant increase in the PVS of the CG participants before and after the quasi-experiment except at the 5000 level. Although the mean scores had all stated that the development appeared at the post PVLT phase, the $t$ values disproved the significance of this development.

At the 2000 level, the mean difference score ($M= 0.92$, $SD= 3.41$) reported no significant growth in the PVS of the subjects. This result was confirmed statistically through the obtained $t$ value $t(40)= 1.73$ which was not significant because ($p= .09 > .05$). As a result, there was no significant increase in the PVS of the CG subject at the end of the quasi-experiment.

Similarly, there was no significant growth in the PVS of the CG subjects at the 3000 level. The mean score ($M= .36$, $SD= 3.27$) was not significant as proved through the resultant
t value \( t(40) = 1.23 \) which reported no statistical significance since \( p = .22 \) > .05. This result confirms that the increase in the subjects’ PVS at the 3000 level at the end of the quasi-experiment was not significant.

Opposite to this insignificant growth at the 2000 and 3000 levels, there were significant differences in the PVS of the CG subjects at the 5000 level at the end of the quasi-experiment. The mean difference score \( (M= 1.36, SD= 3.00) \) was highly significant statistically as confirmed through the obtained t value \( t(40) = 2.90 \) which was highly significant at \( p = .00 \) < .05.

At the 10000 level, the results indicated no significant growth at this level after the quasi-experiment in the PVS of the CG subjects. In fact, the mean score \( (M= .34, SD= 1.08) \) was not significant because the t-test value \( t(40) = 2.01 \) was not significant as \( p = .06 \) > .05 confirms. Thus, the development of PVS at this level was not significant.

In the same way, the mean difference score at the UWL reported no significant growth in the PVS of the subjects at the end of the quasi-experiment. The mean score \( (M= .19, SD= 3.64) \) was not significant as proved statistically through the obtained t value \( t(40) = .34 \) which had no significant value \( p = .73 \) > .05.

Throughout the entire test, the comparison between the mean scores of the students before and after the quasi-experiment stated a mean difference score \( (M= 3.46, SD= 12.19) \) suggesting a growth in PVS after the quasi-experiment. Nevertheless, this growth was of no statistical significance because the obtained t value \( t(40) = 1.81 \) was not significant as \( p = .07 \) > .05 confirms. Therefore, it was concluded that there was no significant growth in the PVS of the CG subjects at the end of the quasi-experiment.
5.2.2.2.1. Paired samples t-test experimental group results.

In order to examine the role of integrating the deep-end strategy pattern, the task-based pattern, and the scenario-based pattern in promoting PVS, the PVLT was administered before and after the quasi-experiment to the EG subjects. It was necessary to measure the PVS of the subjects to prove the significance of any development after the quasi-experiment at the level of the EG subjects in respect to the testing phases, and between the EG and the CG subjects through comparing the scores of both groups for any significant differences. In consequence, any growth in PVS would not be the result of chance at the level of the EG subjects alone or between the study groups.

Before the quasi-experiment. The responses of the EG subjects on the PVLT at the beginning of the quasi-experiment were scored and analysed to calculate the sum of words known at each level and over the entire test, the mean scores, and their standard deviations. The results are introduced in table 34 below:

Table 34

Mean Scores* of the Experimental Group on the Productive Vocabulary Levels Test before the Quasi-experiment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
<th>Sum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>6,00</td>
<td>17,00</td>
<td>407</td>
<td>13,12</td>
<td>3,26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3000</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>2,00</td>
<td>13,00</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>7,00</td>
<td>3,43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5000</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>1,00</td>
<td>8,00</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>5,19</td>
<td>2,24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10000</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>0,00</td>
<td>3,00</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWL</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>14,00</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>7,41</td>
<td>3,30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>15,00</td>
<td>53,00</td>
<td>1025</td>
<td>33,06</td>
<td>11,15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Out of 90 items.

The mean scores of the EG subjects on the PVLT at the beginning of the quasi-experiment revealed that the subjects had a small PVS. At the 2000 level, the mean score
(M=13.12, SD= 3.26) was consistent with 407 know words indicating (72.93%) out of the 83% threshold significance level. Hence, the EG subjects did not have a satisfactory PVS at the 2000 level at the beginning of the quasi-experiment.

Equally, the obtained mean score at the 3000 level (M= 7.00, SD= 3.43) reported a sum of 217 known words at this level. As this mean score represented (38.88%) which was below the 83% threshold significance level, this score was weak and confirmed that the students had a small PVS at the 3000 level at the quasi-experiment.

The EG subjects had also obtained a weak score at the 5000 level. Actually, the mean score (M= 5.19, SD= 2.24) asserted knowledge of 161 word families which stood for (28.85%) and which was below the 83% threshold significance level according to the experience of Nation (1990) in using the test. It could be stated that the EG subjects had a small PVS at the 5000 at the beginning of the quasi-experiment.

In a similar way, the EG subjects reported a weak score on the UWL since the sum of known words was 230. The obtained mean score (M= 7.41, SD= 3.30) embodied a weak score (41.21%) which was below the 83% threshold significance level. accordingly, the EG had a small PVS at the UWL at the beginning of the quasi-experiment.

Throughout the entire test, the EG subjects obtained a mean score (M= 33.06, SD= 11.15) which corresponded to a total of 1025 known words. Because this mean score matched (36.37%) which was below 83% threshold significance level, it was concluded that the EG subjects had a small PVS on the entire test at the beginning of the quasi-experiment.

All in all, the EG subjects had a small PVS per level and throughout the entire test at the beginning of the quasi-experiment. The obtained mean scores at the beginning of the quasi-experiment would provide the comparative platform to justify any growth at the PVS of the EG subjects at the end of the quasi-experiment.
After the quasi-experiment. At the end of the quasi-experiment, the PVLT was administered in order to measure the PVS of the EG subjects. This step was necessary to mark any development in the PVS of the subjects. The results are displayed in table 35 below:

Table 35

Mean Scores* of the Experimental Group Subjects on the Productive Vocabulary Levels Test after the Quasi-experiment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
<th>Sum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>18.00</td>
<td>481</td>
<td>15.51</td>
<td>2.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3000</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>15.00</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>10.32</td>
<td>2.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5000</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>13.00</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>7.58</td>
<td>1.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10000</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>1.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWL</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>16.00</td>
<td>319</td>
<td>10.29</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>24.00</td>
<td>70.00</td>
<td>1401</td>
<td>45.19</td>
<td>9.71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Out of 90 items.

The mean scores of the EG subjects after the quasi-experiment suggested that there was a development in their PVS. At the 2000 level, the mean score (M= 15.51, SD= 2.07) represented a sum of 481 known words. Significantly, this score was consistent with (86.20%) which was beyond the 83% weakness threshold level. Consequently, the subjects had a significant increase in the number of known words (74 words) at the 2000 level after the quasi-experiment.

At the 3000 level, the obtained mean score (M= 10.32, SD= 2.56) represented knowledge of 320 word families. This score was the equivalent of (57.34) out of the 83% threshold significance level. Although the obtained mean score was still weak, there was an increase of 103 known words at this level at the end of the end of the quasi-experiment.
At the 5000 level, the subjects reported a sum of 235 known words with an increase of 74 word families at the end of the quasi-experiment. The mean score (M= 7.58, SD= 1.82) indicated that the subjects have knowledge of (42.11%) of the words at the 5000 level which is below the 83% threshold significance level. Despite the small PVS at the 5000 level, the scores of the EG subjects on the PVLT have increased at the end of the quasi-experiment.

In the same way, the mean scores at the 10000 level (M= 1.48, SD= 1.92) revealed knowledge of a sum of 46 words. This number of known words indicated a very weak score of (0.82%) known words which is below the 83% threshold significance level. Yet, there was an increase of 36 words at this level after the quasi-experiment.

At the UWL, the students reported a mean score (M= 10.29, SD= 3.00) that stated a sum of 319 (57.16%) known words. This score was weak as it went below the 83% threshold level. Therefore, it was concluded that the subjects still had a small PVS at this level despite the growth in the number of known words with 89 more words at the end of the quasi-experiment.

The overall performance of the EG subjects on the posttest reported a mean score (M= 45.19, SD= 9.71) that matched a sum of 1401 known words. This number of known words presented (50.21%) of the total number of the words on the PVLT. Since the sum of known words is below the 83% threshold significance level, it was assumed that the subjects still have a small PVS at the end of the quasi-experiment. However, the subjects increased their overall PVS with 376 more known words through the entire test.

*Paired samples t-test results.* The mean scores of the EG subjects reported at the beginning and at end of the quasi-experiment were compared using the paired samples t-test. The aim behind the comparison is to identify any significant difference in the scores of the subjects on the pretest and the posttest. The results are demonstrated in table 36 below:
As shown in table 36 above, the comparison reports a significant growth in the PVS of the EG subjects at the end of the quasi-experiment. The mean difference scores state that there was an increase per level and over all the levels of the PVLQ after the quasi-experiment.

At the 2000 level, the participants reported significantly a larger number of known words at the end of the quasi-experiment. The obtained mean score difference (M= 2.38, SD= 3.74) was significant statistically because the value of t(33)= 3.54 indicated a high significance at p= .00 < .05. The high significant value of the t-test confirmed that there was a significant growth in the PVS of the subjects at the 2000 level at the end of the quasi-experiment.

At the 3000 level, the mean difference score (M= 3.32, SD= 4.25) indicated an increase in the PVS of the subjects at this level. The significance of this increase was proved statistically through the obtained t-test value t(33)= 4.34 which was highly significant at p= .00 < .05. These results confirmed that a high significant growth in PVS was achieved at the 3000 level at the end of the quasi-experiment.
At the 5000 level, the results also hinted for an increase in the number of known words at the end of the quasi-experiment. The mean difference score (M= 3.28, SD= 2.66) supported a growth in PVS at the 5000 level. This growth was proved to be highly significant as confirmed by means of the t value t(33)= 4.98 which was highly significant at p= 00 < .05 levels. Accordingly, the PVS of the EG subjects at the 5000 level had increased at the end of the quasi-experiment.

At the 10000 level, the mean difference score (M= 1.16, SD= 1.88) stated a development in the PVS of the EG subjects at this level. The significance of this development was confirmed statistically given that the obtained t-test value t(33)= 3.43 was highly significant at p= .00 < .05. So, the PVS of the EG subjects improved significantly at the end of the quasi-experiment.

At the UWL, the resultant mean difference score (M= 2.87, SD= 3.80) supports a growth in the PVS of the EG subjects at this level. This growth was significant statistically as confirmed by means of the high significant t-test value t(33)= 4.20 at p=.00 < .05. Hence, the PVS of the EG subjects at the UWL have developed significantly at the end of the quasi-experiment.

Through the entire test, the mean difference score obtained (M= 12.12, SD= 13.48) indicates an increase in the PVS of the EG subjects after the quasi-experiment. Statistically, the significance of this increase through the entire test was confirmed statistically through the t-test value t(33)= 5.00 which was highly significant at p= .00 < .05. Accordingly, it was concluded that the overall PVS of the EG subjects had grown at the end of the quasi-experiment.
5.2.2.2.3. Independent samples t-test results.

This section presents the results of the comparison between the mean scores of the CG and the EG subjects at the beginning and at the end of the quasi-experiment. It was necessary to compare the mean scores at the beginning of the quasi-experiment in order to stand on the PVS of both groups and to ensure that no significant differences exist in the PVS between the study groups. Then, the comparison of the mean scores at the end of the quasi-experiment was essential to sort out any significant differences between the subjects from both groups in their PVS per level and through all the PVL{T.

Before the quasi-experiment. The mean scores of the CG and the EG were compared at the beginning of the quasi-experiment in order to know the PVS of both groups. This step was requisite to exclude the intervention of chance and bias in the interpretation of any significant growth in the PVS of the study groups at the end of the quasi-experiment. The results are reported in table 37 below:

Table 37
Independent Samples T-test Results on the Productive Vocabulary Levels Test between the Control and the Experimental Groups before the Quasi-experiment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>.44*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3000</td>
<td>-.29</td>
<td>-.41</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>.68*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5000</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>.51*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10000</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td>-.64</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>.52*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWL</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>1,16</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>.24*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>.19*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at the p = .05 level.
The results emerging from comparing the mean scores of the CG and the EG at the beginning of the quasi-experiment revealed that there were no significant difference in the PVS of the subjects. The obtained mean difference scores support the presence of small differences between the study groups at the each test level and over the entire test. The use of the independent samples test was meant to verify the significance of these differences.

At the 2000 level, the results stated no difference in the PVS of the CG and the EG subjects because the mean difference score \( M = 0.56 \) was not significant statistically. The result was not significant because the t-test value \( t(73) = 0.76 \) was not significant as confirmed through \( p = 0.44 > 0.05 \). This implies that no differences exist at the 2000 level between the CG and the EG subjects at the beginning of the quasi-experiment.

In the same way, the mean difference score obtained at the 3000 level \( M = -0.29 \) indicated that the EG subjects have a larger PVS at this level. However, this mean score was not significant as confirms the obtained the t-test value \( t(73) = -0.41 \) which reported no statistical significance since \( p = 0.68 > 0.05 \) was beyond the .05 significance level. This result means that there were no differences at the 3000 level between the CG and the EG subjects at the beginning of the quasi-experiment.

At the 5000 level, the comparison of the mean scores of the study groups resulted in a mean difference score \( M = 0.41 \) which supports slight differences between the subjects from both groups in favour of the EG subjects. Nevertheless, this mean was not significant because the resultant t-test value \( t(73) = 0.65 \) indicated no statistical significance as \( p = 0.51 > 0.05 \). So, it was assumed that there were no significant differences between the CG and the EG at this level at the beginning of the quasi-experiment.

Likewise, at the 10000 level, the mean difference score \( M = -0.11 \) states that there are differences between the subjects in favour of the CG subjects. Yet, this mean difference score
was found insignificant since the t-test value $t(73) = -.64$ indicated no statistical significance as confirms the significance value ($p = .52$) > .05. Assumingly, the subjects from both groups had no significant difference before the quasi-experiment at the 10000 level.

The same result was obtained at the UWL confirming no difference in the PVS of the subjects from both groups. Though the mean difference score ($M = .88$) indicated that there are differences between the subjects in support of the EG subjects having a larger PVS at the UWL, this mean score was not significant. This was statistically verified by the resulting t-test value $t(73) = 1.16$ which was not significant because $p = .24 > .05$. This result confirms that there were differences at the UWL between the subjects from both groups at the beginning of the quasi-experiment.

Through the whole test, the mean difference score ($M = 3.25$) suggested possible differences between the CG and the EG in support of the EG subjects. This possibility was discarded statistically because the obtained t-test value $t(73) = 1.31$ was not significant since $p = .19 > .05$ was beyond the significance level.

These results confirmed that the subjects from both study groups had no significant differences in their PVS at each level before the quasi-experiment. They also proved that there were no differences over the entire test between the CG and the EG at the beginning of the quasi-experiment. As a matter of fact, the subjects from the CG and the EG had a homogeneous level of PVS at the beginning of the quasi-experiment.

After the quasi-experiment. The mean scores of the CG and the EG were compared at the end of the quasi-experiment to detect any significant differences in the PVS per level and over the entire test. The results are exposed in table 38 below:
Table 38
Independent Samples T-test Results on the Productive Vocabulary Levels Test between the Control and the Experimental Groups after the Quasi-experiment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>.01*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3000</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5000</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>.01*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10000</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>.06*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWL</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>4.49</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>11.24</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>.00*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at the $p = .05$ level.

As could be understood from the results of table 38 above, the mean score differences suggest an increase in the PVS of the EG subjects. Firstly, the mean difference score at the 2000 level (M= 1.97) suggested that the EG subjects had a larger PVS at the end of the quasi-experiment. This suggestion was confirmed statistically since the t-test value t(73)= 3.59 was highly significant at $p= .01 < .05$. As a result, the EG subjects had a larger PVS on the PVLT at the 2000 level at the end of the quasi-experiment.

A similar result was achieved at the 3000 level indicating that the EG subjects had a larger PVS after the quasi-experiment. This was confirmed because the obtained mean difference score (M= 2.39) was highly significant in view of the resultant $t(73)= 4.31$ which was highly significant at $p= .00 < .05$. This confirms that the EG subjects had a larger PVS at the 3000 level at the end of the quasi-experiment.

A high significant difference was reported at the 5000 level as well in support of the EG subjects having a larger PVS at the end of the quasi-experiment. The obtained mean
difference score ($M = 1.60$) was highly significant seeing that the t-test value $t(73) = 3.49$ was highly significant at $p = .01 < .05$. In consequence, the EG subject had a larger PVS than the CG subjects at the end of the quasi-experiment at the 5000 level.

Opposite to these significant differences at the three first levels, there were no significant differences at the 10000 level because of the weak mean scores of both groups at the end of the quasi-experiment. The mean difference score ($M = 1.14$) suggested that the EG subjects have a larger PVS. However, this mean difference score was of no significance as confirmed through the obtained $t(73) = 2.84$ which was not significant statistically since $p = .06 > .05$.

At the UWL, the mean difference score ($M = 3.09$) hinted for differences between the CG and the EG subjects in support of the EG subjects having a larger PVS. The significance of mean score was confirmed statistically through the obtained t-test value $t(73) = 4.49$ which was highly significant at $p = .00 < .05$. This result confirms that the EG subjects had a larger PVS at the UWL at the end of the quasi-experiment.

Throughout the entire test, the reported mean difference score ($M = 11.24$) indicated differences between the study groups in support of the EG subjects having a larger PVS. In order to identify the significance of these differences, the independent t-test value was calculated $t(73) = 4.90$ to confirm a high significant result because $p = .00 < .05$. This proved that the EG subjects had a larger score on the PVLT and within a larger PVS at the end of the quasi-experiment.

5.2.2.3. Hypothesis 3.

This section presents the results of the findings of the pre-experiment on GA with thorough discussions. The findings of the SSKT of the 34 subjects before and after the pre-experiment are presented and discussed in order to investigate the third research hypothesis. The SSKT was administered to the 34 subjects before and after the pre-experiment in order to
examine any significant differences in their reported scores on the SSKT at the end of the
pre-experiment in response to the provided treatment of integrated PAS in grammar teaching.
The comparison between the scores was statistically accomplished using the paired samples t-
test since the comparison was done at the level of the same group.

In order to investigate the GA at written sentence level in response to the integration
of various PAS (the PPP, the focus on form, and the ESA patterns) in teaching grammar, the
SSKT was administered to the 34 subjects at the beginning and at the end of the pre-
experiment. Hence, any significant differences in the scores of the subjects at the end of the
pre-experiment on the SSKT would confirm the role of the integrated patterns in enhancing
GA at written sentence level. The scores obtained before and after the quasi-experiment were
compared using the paired samples t-test in order to examine any statistical differences
between the scores on the SSKT per section and through the entire test. Overall, this section
investigates the third research hypothesis.

Before the Pre-experiment. At the beginning of the pre-experiment, the SSKT scores
were analysed in order to measure the subjects’ level of recognizing grammatical errors in
sentences, recall of grammar rules for accurate sentence writing, and composition of
grammatically accurate sentences in respect to the provided test instructions and following
the three sections of the test. The results are stated in table 39 below:
Table 39

Mean scores* of the Subjects on the Sentence Structure Knowledge Test before the Quasi-experiment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
<th>Total Score</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Recognition</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>1.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recall</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>1.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Composition</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>1.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>421</td>
<td>13.57</td>
<td>4.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Out of 23 items.

As shown in table 39 above, the scores of the subjects on the SSKT differed between the three levels of the test. At the recognition level, the students achieved a mean score (M= 9.24, SD= 1.57) indicating a total number of 133 correct answers out of 248. This score is weak because a significant 115 score was missing and confirms that the students had difficulties to recognize the stated problems in the sentences on the test.

At the recall level, the obtained mean score was (M = 4.54, SD = 1.58) which represented 141 correct answers out of 248. Accordingly, a significant number of scores (107) was missing. This weak score proves that the subjects had difficulties at recalling the rules for accurate sentence writing in order to rewrite the sentences in the second section of the test.

At the composition level, the mean score (M= 4.74, SD= 1.67) was consistent with 147 correct answers out of 248. The subjects missed 101 score at this stage which implies that they had difficulties at writing grammatically accurate sentences. Emphatically, most of the scores at the composition level were obtained at the level of simple sentence and compound sentences. The subjects had main difficulties in writing complex and compound-complex sentences.
Throughout the entire test, the mean score (M= 13.57, SD= 4.82) signified 421 correct answers out of 744. Overall, 323 scores were missing which is a significant score to achieve. This result confirms that overall the students have difficulties in recognizing, recalling, and composing grammatically accurate sentences.

After the Pre-experiment. At the end of the pre-experiment, the scores of the subjects on the SSKT were gathered in order to examine any significant differences in their GA at written sentence structure level based on the test sections. The results are displayed in table 40 below:

Table 40
Mean scores* of the Subjects on the Sentence Structure Knowledge Test after the Quasi-experiment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
<th>Sum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Recognition</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>6.32</td>
<td>1.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recall</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>6.83</td>
<td>1.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Composition</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>5.48</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>578</td>
<td>18.63</td>
<td>4.47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Out of 23 items.

The mean scores on the SSKT after the quasi-experiment suggest significant differences in the GA of the subjects at the recognition, recall, composition, and through the entire test. At the recognition level, the resultant mean score (M= 6.32, SD= 1.37) indicates that there was an increase in the number of recognized sentence structure problems. There was a difference of 63 correct answers on the recognition section of the test at the end of the quasi-experiment.

At the recall level, the subjects reported a mean score (M= 6.83, SD= 1.95) which was consistent with 212 correct answers. The increase in the correct answers was estimated to be 71 correct answers after the quasi-experiment. This implies that the subjects have improved at
the recall level through being able to use grammar rules to re-write the sentences on the SSKT accurately.

At the composition stage, the obtained mean score (M= 5.51, SD= 2.06) correlated with 170 accurate structured sentences. An increase of 23 accurately written sentences was obtained after the quasi-experiment.

Throughout the entire test, the subjects had reported a mean score (M= 15.16, SD= 3.11) which was related to 578 recognized, recalled, and composed sentences. Overall, a growth of 157 correct answers was the difference in the scores between the beginning and the end of the quasi-experiment. This indicates that there was a growth in the overall GA in the structure of the subjects’ written sentences.

*Paired samples t-test results.* The scores on the SSKT obtained before and after the pre-experiment were compared in order to examine any significant differences statistically. The paired samples t-test was used to achieve this end in practice. The results of the comparison are demonstrated in table 41 below:

Table 41

Paired Samples T-test Results of the Subjects on the SSKT before and after the Quasi-experiment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Recognition</td>
<td>2.03</td>
<td>1.81</td>
<td>6.23</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recall</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>4.64</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Composition</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>2.10</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>.05*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>7.66</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>.00*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at .05 level.
As could be drawn from table 41 above, there were significant differences statistically between the scores of the subjects on the SSKT before and after the quasi-experiment. At the recognition level, the mean difference score was (M = 2.03, SD = 1.81) was found to be highly significant as proved by the t-test value \( t(33)= 6.23 \) which was highly significant at \( p= .00 < .05 \). As a result, it was confirmed that there was an increase in the difficulties of recognizing grammatically accurate sentences among the subjects after the quasi-experiment.

At the recall level, the mean difference score between the scores obtained at the beginning and at the end of the quasi-experiment was (M = 2.29, SD = 2.74). Statistically, this mean score was highly significant as confirmed through the t-test value \( t(33)= 2.10 \) which was highly significant at \( p= .00< .05 \). Consequently, it was proved that there was an increase in the subjects’ ability to recall GA rules for guided sentence writing.

Similar to the development at the recognition and recall levels, the subjects reported a significant growth at the composition level. In fact, the mean difference score (M = .77, SD = 2.70) was significant as confirmed through the t-test value \( t(33)= 1.96 \) which was significance at \( p= .05 \). Thus, composing grammatically accurate sentences improved although in less significant tones in comparison to the recognition and recall levels.

Over the entire test, the resultant mean difference score (M = 4.67, SD = 3.39) was highly significant given that the obtained t-test value \( t(33)= 7.66 \) was highly significant at \( p= .00< .05 \). It was confirmed that the GA level of the subjects had increased at the end of the quasi-experiment.

5.2.2.4. Hypothesis 4.

The scores of the EG subjects on the RVLT, the PVLT, and the SSKT were further correlated to examine any significant correlation between VS and GA. This section
investigates the fourth research hypothesis which stated that there is a relationship between the VS scores as measured by the RVLT and the PVL{T} and the GA scores on the SSKT. In order to examine this relationship, the Pearson Correlation Coefficient was used because the data are continuous. The one tailed correlation was used because the main focus of the current study was on observing the effect of RVS growth on the growth of GA. The correlation significance was set at .01. The variance overlap ($r^2$) obtained through squaring the correlation is the indicator of the correlation strength. Particularly, it indicates the degree to which scores on the RVLT and the PVL{T} correlate with the scores on the SSKT. The results are stated in table 42 below:

Table 42

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscale-</th>
<th>GA Pearson r</th>
<th>$r^2$</th>
<th>Sig. (1-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Receptive Vocabulary Size</td>
<td>.303**</td>
<td>.091</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Productive Vocabulary Size</td>
<td>.358**</td>
<td>.057</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed). $r^2$ is the variance overlap. N=72.

Results of the correlation analysis between RVS and GA were highly significant as confirmed by the correlation coefficient ($r^2 = .091$) which is highly significant at $p=.00 < .01$. The scores on the RVLT correlated highly with the scores on the SSKT. This sounds logical since both tests are written tests in which the students read and decide on the correct answer. Further, the results of the correlation analysis between PVS and GA were significant since the correlation coefficient ($r^2 = .057$) was significant at $p= .01$. 

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5.3. Discussions

The results of research questions 1 and 2 elicited the use of the PPP pattern in the OE and the grammar classrooms. In the OE classroom, the teaching of vocabulary was explicit and deliberate through presentation of the theme, then practice or otherwise no practice depending on the teacher’s perception, and few opportunities for production. The three observed classrooms ranged from zero vocabulary practice activities use as in the case of the first teacher, to limited use of these activities as in the classrooms of the second and third teachers. The sequencing of lesson stages excluded main stages being practice, production, or both, which affected the overall vocabulary teaching method used. Likewise, the three observed grammar teachers followed the same deductive grammar teaching method using the traditional PPP pattern. The main advantage of this pattern is providing both teachers and students with enough time to handle the target grammar structure; teachers are offered a simple and quick way to present the rule, and students do a lot of practice (Ellis, 1993, Larsen-Freeman, 2003). Although the teachers used the same format of activities in which the students used grammatical items with justification, the focus differed among the classrooms. While the first observed teacher focused on form, the second and third teachers focused on meaning all in the aim of promoting the GK of their learners. The use of the PPP pattern is not surprising if an analysis of its advantages (Hedge, 2000; Lewis, 1993; Skehan, 1996; Newby, 2006) and domination in language teaching materials (Harmer, 2001; Littlejohn, 1992, 1998; Sanchez, 2008, 2013; Tomlinson, 1998; Tomlinson et.al, 2001) are taken into consideration.

The results of question 3 worked towards confirming or rejecting the first research hypothesis. Hypothesis 1 states that the integration of the deep-end strategy pattern, the task-based pattern, and the scenario-based pattern in teaching vocabulary may promote RVS. The hypothesis was researched through comparing the scores of the CG subjects and the EG
subjects on the RVLT at the beginning and at the end of the quasi-experiment, and through comparing the scores on the RVLT of both groups for any significant statistical differences at the end of the quasi-experiment.

The scores of the CG subjects on the RVLT obtained at the beginning of the quasi-experiment revealed that they had a small RVS over each test level and through the entire test. Significantly, the number of unknown words exceeded the number of known words in significant rates at the 3000, 5000, 10000 levels and through the entire test. At the 2000 and UWL levels, the number of known words was also not satisfactory. It was further found that the students were not proficient at the first 2000 most frequent word families since they reported knowledge of 829 words only out of 1230. In the same way, the number of known words at the 10000 level (125 word families) implies that the RVS had not grown to reach that level and falls below it.

The analysis of the scores of the CG subjects at the end of the quasi-experiment reported a significant growth in their RVS at two levels only (the 2000 level and at the UWL). This increase was estimated to be 85 word families at the 2000 level and 82 word families at the UWL. This significance means that the use of the PPP pattern was effective in developing RVS at the 2000 and the UWL levels. However, no increase was achieved at the 3000, 5000, 10000 levels and through the entire test. Nation (1990) emphasized that the word families of the 2000 level constitute 87% of written texts and 80% of standard academic texts. The AWL includes 808 general academic words falling under the 5000 and 10000 word level (Beglar & Hunt, 1999; Laufer, 2010). Since the subjects had a small RVS at the 2000 level at the beginning of the quasi-experiment, the increase at this level justifies the increase at the UWL as well.

Accordingly, these results confirm that the use of the PPP pattern created the same route to vocabulary learning and affected the growth of RVS. Besides, the limited or no use
of activities under the use of the same PAS to create opportunities for repetition of the presented vocabulary justifies the small increase at RVS of the subjects at the end of the quasi-experiment. This increase was not important given that the scores on the high frequency levels (3000, 5000, and 10000) as well as the total score on the RVLT were not significant statistically.

The scores of the EG subjects on the RVLT at the beginning of the quasi-experiment indicated a small RVS at each level and through the entire test. Significantly, the number of known words was small suggesting a high number of unknown words at each level and all over the RVLT. At the end of the quasi-experiment, the increase in the scores of the subjects was remarkable at each level and through the entire test. The comparison of the obtained scores at the two stages of the quasi-experiment revealed significant growth in RVS at each level and through the entire test at the end of the quasi-experiment.

At the end of the quasi-experiment, there were significant differences in the scores of the EG on the RVLT at each level and through the entire test. A growth of 724 word families was achieved overall the test with an average of (23.35%) per student. Notably, the highest development rate was attained at the 5000 level (201 word families), followed by the UWL (436) and the 5000 level (373 word families). Statistically, the increase in RVS was highly significant as confirmed by the p= .00 obtained significance values of the independent samples t-test per level and over the RVLT. The growth per level on the RVLT was reported at different yet close degrees except for the 10000 level. The development was estimated to range between 2% and 6% over each level and (23.93%) through the entire test. Research (Anderson & Freebody, 1981; Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001; Nation, 1990) claimed that high frequency words are generally learned first. The findings of this study imply that the growth of low frequent and high frequent words happen in a parallel way.
The obtained results proved that there were high significant differences between the scores of the CG and the EG subjects at the end of the quasi-experiment. Significantly, there was an increase in the number of known words among the EG subjects at each level and through the entire test at the end of the quasi-experiment. The increase was estimated to be a total of 265 known words throughout the entire test among the CG subjects in comparison to 724 known words among the EG participants. Because the dichotomy of known vs. unknown words is complementary, it supports the conclusion that there are significant differences between the CG and the EG in the number of known words.

This increase in the number of known words was confirmed statistically through high significant values at each level and through the entire test. Thus, since all the comparison values were highly significant at .05 significance level, it was assumed that the EG subjects had a larger RVS than the CG at the end of the quasi-experiment. However, the increase in the mean scores of the CG subjects was not significant statistically when compared to the mean scores of the EG subjects. The growth in the number of known words among the EG subjects as a result of the integration of various PAS in vocabulary teaching was highly significant statistically.

Before the quasi-experiment, the EG subjects had a sum of 2085 known words which means that their RVS falls between the range of 4000-5000 word families. This range as Sutarsyah, Nation, and Kennedy (1994) pointed out is necessary for successful comprehension of an academic text. At the end of the quasi-experiment, the students reported a sum of 2827 on the RVLT which indicated that their RVS ranges between 6000-7000 word families. This further confirmed the role of integrating various PAS in promoting RVS. Taking into consideration that a native speaker’s vocabulary at the same study level is estimated to range between 18000-20000 word families, which is almost three times the reported level of the EG subjects, it is worth stating that the subjects still have a small RVS at
the end of the quasi-experiment. The number of unknown words (1823) at the end of the experiment is a significant number of word families to pick up at the third year undergraduate level. Based on the significant differences in the scores of the EG subjects, and between the scores of the CG and the EG at the end of the quasi-experiment, the null hypothesis which states that the integration of the deep-end strategy pattern, the task-based pattern, and the scenario-based pattern in teaching vocabulary does not promote RVS was rejected.

The results of question 4 worked towards confirming or rejecting the second research hypothesis through comparing the scores of each study group on the PVLT at the beginning and at the end of the quasi-experiment, and through comparing the results of both groups at the end of the quasi-experiment. Hypothesis 2 states that the integration of the deep-end strategy pattern, the task-based pattern, and the scenario-based pattern in teaching vocabulary may promote PVS.

The scores of the CG subjects on the PVLT before the beginning of the quasi-experiment suggested that the subjects had weak scores on each level and through the entire test. The number of known words per level and all through the test was below the 83% threshold significance level. At the end of the quasi-experiment, the scores of the subjects on the PVLT were also weak although an increase in the number of known words per level and over the whole test was attained. To verify the significance of this growth, the statistical analysis by means of t-values reported that overall the increase in the scores of the subjects was not significant except at the 5000 level. This growth at the 5000 level suggests that the use of the PPP pattern was efficient in increasing the PVS at this level. However, this pattern was found ineffective in increasing the PVS at the other levels and through the entire test.

The comparison between the scores of the EG subjects on the PVLT before and after the quasi-experiment proved that there were highly significant differences in the obtained
scores per level and through the entire test. The growth in the number of known words at
each level and through the entire test was statistically significant as the obtained \( t \) values
confirmed. The scores of the EG subjects before the quasi-experiment had increased
significantly at each level of the PVLT and all through the test after the quasi-experiment in
comparison to the CG subjects. Testing the significance of the scores statistically confirmed
that the difference in the scores of the study groups was highly significant at the EG subjects
level. Exceptionally, the groups had no significant differences at the 10000 level (\( t(70) =
2.84, p=.06 > .05 \)) which could be attributed to the very weak scores of the subjects from
both groups at both stages of the quasi-experiment. This result implies that the PVS of the
subjects have not yet reached the 10000 level. Consequently, the PVS of the CG and the EG
students at the 10000 level needs more emphasis under vocabulary instruction since the RVS
grows more rapidly than the PVS (Laufer, 1998; Read, 2000, Schmitt, 2014). On the other
levels and through the entire test, the results were highly significant in support of the EG
subjects.

At the beginning of the quasi-experiment, the obtained scores on the PVLT among the
CG and the EG subjects were weak and confirmed a small PVS. These scores had also
confirmed the homogeneity of the study groups in terms of having no differences in their
overall PVS. All the scores per level were below the 83% significance level according to
Nation’s (1990) experience of using the test. Notably, the maximum scores obtained at each
level were also below the 15 words knowledge required for significance except at the 2000
level. Through the five levels, the number of known words was unsatisfactory at the 2000,
3000, and UWL, and highly unsatisfactory at the 5000 and 10000 levels. Markedly, the
number of known words at the 2000 level composed (38.67%) of the sum of known words at
the productive level. This implies that a significant part of the PVS of the subjects from both
study groups comprises words less frequent than the first 2000 word families. Emphatically,
the weak scores at the 10000 level confirmed that the PVS of the subjects falls below this level.

At the end of the quasi-experiment, the scores on the PVLT conveyed a significant growth in the PVS of the EG subjects. This growth was realized per level - at the exception of the 10000 level, and through the whole test proving the positive role of integrating the deep-end strategy pattern, the task-based pattern, and the scenario-based pattern in teaching vocabulary. Considerably, the maximum obtained per level scores were beyond the 15 words significance indicator at the 2000 level, the 3000 level, and the UWL. The highest number of known words was achieved at the 2000, 3000, and 5000 levels. However, in comparison to the rate of growth at receptive vocabulary level, the subjects reported less increase in vocabulary size at the productive level. This confirms the findings of research (Laufer & Nation, 1999; Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 2010) that receptive vocabulary is easier for attainment than productive vocabulary. Schmitt (1997) also confirmed that a students’ receptive vocabulary is 19 to 25% higher than his/her productive vocabulary.

The increase in PVS among the EG subjects at the end of the quasi-experiment was statistically significant as confirmed by the obtained mean difference scores on the pretest and posttest at the level of the EG subjects alone, and through comparative measures between the scores of the CG and the EG subjects at the end of the quasi-experiment. This statistical significance was confirmed via the paired samples t-test and the independent samples t-test values which were all highly significant at p = .00 level. The aforesaid results support rejecting the null hypothesis which states that the integration of the deep-end strategy pattern, the task-based pattern, and the scenario-based pattern in teaching vocabulary does not promote PVS.
The increase in PVS per level differed significantly between the less frequent and high frequent word levels. The highest increase was achieved at the 3000 level with a sum of 103 more known words. Hence, a large portion (57.17%) of the EG subjects’ known words at the productive vocabulary level consisted of words from the less frequent first 2000 and 3000 words at the end of the quasi-experiment. The increase in the number of known words at the first 2000 low frequency word level (34.33%) and the high frequency levels including the 3000 level (22.84%), 5000 level (16.77%), the 10000 level (3.28%), and UWL (22.76%) indicated significant differences in the rate of development at each level. Yet, the development at the 2000 level which is a low frequency level was significantly higher than the development at high frequency levels on the PVLT. This is consistent with the findings of Zimmerman (2004) on assessing PVS and questions the claim of research that high frequency words grow prior to low frequency words at productive vocabulary level (Anderson and Freebody, 1981; Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001; Nation, 1990).

The reported number of known words on the PVLT among the EG subjects at the beginning of the quasi-experiment (1025 word families) increased to 1401 word families at the end of the quasi-experiment. A sum of 376 word families marked the increase over the whole second semester spread differently over the five levels. This growth pace does not imply that the average student learns 376 word families per semester. Based on the sum of known word families at the end of the quasi-experiment and the reported degrees of development per level, the average student learns 116 word families per semester. This means that the average student learns roughly 1044 words per year. In Zimmerman (2004) and Laufer (1998), the findings indicated the learners learned 1592 and 850 word families per year respectively. As could be noticed, the average of the known words per year in the current study was closer to the finding of Zimmerman’s (2004) on assessing PVS among learners with different spoken first languages.
The estimated average of PVS significance per level was 465 which is to reach 2325 at level 5. Yet, except at the 2000 level, the scores on the PVLT were below the estimated average at the other four levels. Through the entire test, the sum of 1401 known words was significantly below the estimated overall average. In view of these results, it was assumed that the subjects still had a small PVS per level and through the entire PVLT at the end of the quasi-experiment. However, the integration of various PAS in teaching proved to have a positive role in promoting the PVS of the subjects at the end of the quasi-experiment.

Research question 5 worked towards confirming or disconfirming the third research hypothesis through comparing the scores of the group on the SSKT at the beginning and at the end of the pre-experiment. Hypothesis 3 states that the integration of the PPP pattern, the focus on form pattern, and the ESA pattern in teaching grammar may promote GA at the written sentence structure level.

The comparison of the scores of the subjects on the SSKT to examine any statistical significant differences at the beginning and end of the quasi-experiment revealed that overall there was a development at the GA level. Following the three levels of the SSKT, the students reported high significant results at the recognition and recall levels. This high significance proved that the subjects improved at the level of identifying the problems of accuracy in sentence structure after the quasi-experiment. Similarly, the high significant scores on the second level of recall confirmed that the participants progressed at using the grammatical rules to structure grammatically accurate sentences. The subjects had also reported a significant progress at the composition level. Throughout the entire test, the students had reported a high significant mean difference score all over the test confirming that there was an increase in the GA reported at sentence writing level. In view of these results, the null hypothesis which states that the integration of the PPP pattern, the focus on
form pattern, and the ESA pattern in teaching grammar does not promote GA at written sentence level is rejected.

Several studies have analysed the effect of grammar instruction on writing quality (Morrow, 1984; Hartwell, 1985; Hillocks, 1986: Williamson, 1986). Likewise, the development of GA in writing has been investigated in different studies (Byrd & Reid, 1998; Hinkel, 2002a, 2003; Zhou, 2009). The results of these studies support the importance of GA and the role of grammar instruction in promoting GA. In two studies conducted on the effect of grammar teaching on GK, Schulz (1996, 2001) concluded that learners perceive grammatical instruction as a main factor affecting GK. Bade (2008) confirmed also from the point of view of the learners that grammar should be given importance without being prioritized over other language aspects. In the same direction, the study of Farjami (2011) reported on the importance assigned to grammar and the high interest in learning grammar to enhance language proficiency among the students.

Research (Hinkel, 2009) has further concluded that different topics for writing can generate different forms and structures. The results of a study conducted on the effect of grammar teaching on GA (Andrews, Torgerson, Beverton, Freemana, Lockec, Low, Robinson, and Zhu, 2006) concluded, “the teaching of syntax (as part of a traditional or transformational/generative approach to teaching grammar) appears to have no influence on either the accuracy or quality of written language development for 5–16-year-olds” (p. 51). This implies that traditional grammar teaching in which the use of the PPP pattern is inherent does not support the development of GA in writing. Celce-Murcia (1991) confirms that “the importance of a reasonable degree of grammatical accuracy in academic or professional writing cannot be overstated” (p. 465). Although it cannot be overemphasized at the expense of other language components, Celce-Murcia (1991) emphasizes that grammar instruction is requisite to help the learners achieve their goals.
Research question 6 worked towards confirming or rejecting the fourth research hypothesis. Hypothesis 4 states that there may be a significant correlation between RVS, PVS, and GA. The resultant Spearman correlation coefficient between the scores on the RVLT and SSKT revealed a high significant correlation between RVS and GA, and a significant correlation between PVS and GA. These significant correlations are probably better explained by the nature of each of the used tests. Because the three tests are written context-dependent and discrete tests in which the students use reading and writing to provide answers, a significant correlation was found statistically. While the students have to complete the word parts in the PVLT, they have to write parts of sentences and complete sentences in the SSKT. A significant correlation should be ranging between the high .80s or the low .90s (Zimmerman, 2004) in order to provide confident results. Thus, the correlation between RVS and GA provides a confident result since the significant correlation coefficient \( r^2 = .091 \) falls within the low .90s. However, the results of the significant correlation between PVS and GA are less confident since \( r^2 = .057 \) goes below the estimated confidence range. These results support rejecting the null hypothesis which states that there is no significant correlation between RVS, PVS, and GA.

5.4. Conclusion

The main focus of this chapter was on presenting and discussing the findings of the quasi-experiment on testing the role of integrating the deep-end strategy, the task-based, and the scenario-based patterns in promoting RVS, PVS, and the pre-experiment on integrating the PPP, the focus on form, and the ESA patterns in promoting GA. The results were organized according to the research questions and the phases of the study and presented vis-à-vis the research question. The results of the four first questions identified the PAS used in vocabulary and grammar teaching, and revealed the learners’ needs in vocabulary and grammar learning. The results of the four last questions indicated the main study results that
researched into the four stated research hypotheses. The significant results were discussed comprehensively and confirmed all four hypotheses. The next chapter will provide the conclusions and the recommendations of this study in the light of the results of this chapter.
CHAPTER 6: RECOMMENDATIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

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CHAPTER SIX
RECOMMENDATIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS FOR
FURTHER RESEARCH

6.1. Introduction

The main focus of this study was on examining the role of integrating various PAS in promoting RVS, PVS, and GA at sentence structure level. This chapter provides a summary of the main findings and discusses the research hypotheses in the light of the obtained results. The chapter then states a set of implications relevant to the context of the study and the main findings. Further, the chapter highlights the main limitations resultant from the research settings and methodology and suggests directions for future research in the study areas of materials development, VK, and GK.

6.2. Summary of the Main Findings

In the current study, the role of integrating the deep-end strategy, the task-based, and the scenario-based patterns in promoting RVS and PVS, as well as the role of integrating the PPP, the focus on form, and the ESA patterns in developing GA at the written sentence structure level have been explored. The nonrandomized control group pretest-posttest quasi-experimental design was used to investigate the role of the integrated patterns in vocabulary teaching in promoting RVS and PVS among 75 third year undergraduate EFL students. The subjects took the RVLT and the PVLT which estimated their receptive and productive vocabulary sizes at the beginning and at the end of the quasi-experiment. RVS and PVS of the CG and the EG subjects were measured following the stages of the carried quasi-experiment. The role of the integrated patterns was explored through comparative measures
between the performances of the subjects per study group and between both groups on the RVLT and the PVLT before and after the quasi-experiment.

The one-group pretest posttest quasi-experimental design was used to investigate the role of the integrated patterns in grammar teaching in enhancing GA at the sentence structure level. The subjects included 34 students who took the SSKT as a written sentence structure GA measure at the beginning and at the end of the quasi-experiment. The frequency of these problems was statistically analysed for any significant increase in the GA reported at sentence structure level as revealed through a decrease in the reported number of problems in the subjects’ sentences.

The subjects’ vocabulary size scores on the RVLT and the PVLT were correlated with their scores on the SSKT for any significant correlation. The findings of the current research on VS and GA, and how these findings consent with the findings of previous research will be discussed below. In the light of these findings, the study will provide a set of implications, consider the study limitations, and propose suggestions for further research.

The used research instruments were tested for reliability. The high obtained reliability indices of the test during the pilot study encouraged their use for the main study. The reliability of the RVLT in the main study was .78 which was a significant index. This is lower than the reliability index of the revised test version by Schmitt (2001) in which the reliability index on the RVLT per level was over .91. The main reason for this difference in the reliability scores could be the small sample size in the current study, 75 subjects in comparison to 801 participants in Schmitt’s study. The reliability of the PVLT was .81. In comparison to the reliability figures of the test reported in Zimmerman (2004) .94, and in Laufer and Nation (1999) .86, the test reliability index in this study was lower. The reason could be again the number of the participants (173 participants, 80 participants, and 75...
participants in the current study). Further, the reliability of the SSKT was .76 which was a significant reliability score in excess of .70 (Dornyei, 2003).

The first phase of the study identified the PAS used in vocabulary and grammar teaching among OE and grammar teachers at the Department of English Language and Literature. The qualitative data obtained from the observation provided concrete data about vocabulary and grammar teaching in the EFL classroom. The results of the conducted observations in third year OE classes and in first and second year grammar classes confirmed the use of the PPP pattern in both subjects. The three observed OE teachers observed used the same PAS in teaching vocabulary under explicit vocabulary teaching. Likewise, the three observed grammar teachers used the traditional grammar teaching PPP pattern under deductive grammar teaching.

The main study of the current research integrated various PAS in the aim of promoting RVS, PVS, and GA at written sentence level. For hypothesis 1, it was found that the CG subjects instructed under the PPP pattern had no significant differences in their scores on the RVLT at the beginning and end of the quasi-experiment except at the 2000 level and the UWL. The increase at the 2000 level and the UWL indicates that the PPP has a positive role in increasing RVS at these two levels. However, no significant growth was witnessed in their scores on high frequency levels (3000, 5000, and 10000 levels) and through the entire test. These results confirm that the PPP pattern is not effective in promoting the overall RVS of learners.

Further, there were significant differences in the scores of the EG subjects and between the scores of the CG and the EG subjects on the RVLT at the beginning and at the end of the quasi-experiment. These differences marked an increase in the number of known words at different degrees among the five test levels and through the entire test. At the level
of the EG subjects, the increase in RVS at the end of the quasi-experiment was confirmed at all the levels and through the entire test, but the most significant increase was obtained at the 2000, 3000 and 5000 levels. The comparison between the scores of the CG and the EG subjects at the end of the quasi-experiment revealed significant differences in RVS per level and through the entire test in favour of the EG subjects. Statistically, the increase in RVS was highly significant as confirmed by the $p= .00$ obtained significance values of the paired samples and the independent t-tests per level and over the RVLT. This high significance of the obtained results after the quasi-experiment confirmed the alternative hypothesis on the role of integrating the deep-end strategy, the task-based, and the scenario-based patterns in promoting RVS.

For hypothesis 2, there were no significant differences between the scores of the CG subjects on the PVLT at the beginning and end of the quasi-experiment except at the 5000 level. The increase in PVS at the 5000 level implies that the PPP pattern is efficient in promoting PVS at this level. However, there were no significant differences in the scores of the subjects on the PVLT at the end of the quasi-experiment at the 2000, 3000, 10000, UWl, and through the entire test. The differences in the scores on the PVLT at the end of the quasi-experiment were significant per level and through the entire test at the EG subjects level and between the CG and the EG subjects. The high significant growth in PVS among the EG subjects at the beginning and at the end of the quasi-experiment was confirmed statistically through the obtained t-test values ($p= .00$).

The comparison of the scores on the PVLT of CG and the EG subjects at the end of the quasi-experiment revealed a significant development in the PVS of EG subjects as confirmed by the high significant $p= .00$ and $p= .01$ values. However, the comparison of the scores of the CG and the EG subjects at the 10000 level revealed no significant statistical difference ($p= .06$). This result was attributed to the very weak scores obtained at the
beginning and at the end of the quasi-experiment which means that the PVS of the subjects had not grown to reach the 10000 level. The high statistical significant increase in the PVS of the EG subjects at the end of the quasi-experiment, and the high significant differences between the scores of the CG and the EG subjects at the end of the quasi-experiment prompted the confirmation of the alternative hypothesis on the role of integrating the deep-end strategy, the task-based, and the scenario-based patterns in promoting PVS.

For hypothesis 3, the obtained results proved a significant increase in the reported GA on the SSKT and in the corpus of written productions. The comparison of the scores of the 34 subjects at the beginning and at the end of the quasi-experiment revealed a high significant increase in GA at written sentence structure level as confirmed through the high significant paired samples t-test values (p=.00). At the beginning of the quasi-experiment, the obtained mean scores indicated poor mastery of GA at each test level and through the entire test. The significant differences between the scores on the SSKT were confirmed statistically since the obtained results were significant at p=.00 per test level and through the entire test. Significantly, the scores on the composition level of the SSKT indicated that most of the scores were obtained at simple and compound sentence levels. The comparison of the written productions before and after the quasi-experiment revealed a significant decrease in the reported frequency of sentence structure problems at the end of the quasi-experiment. Particularly, this decrease was significant per types of sentence problems and all through the written productions. The significant growth in GA at the end of the quasi-experiment through the SSKT and the corpus of written productions results confirmed the fifth hypothesis on the role of integrating the PPP pattern, the focus on form, and the ESA patterns in promoting GA at sentence structure level.

For hypothesis 4, a significant correlation was found between the scores on the RVLT, the PVLT, and the scores on the SSKT of the EG subjects. The relationship between
RVS and GA was highly significant at $p= .00$ indicating a high correlation. This correlation is probably better understood within the nature of the used tests since both tests are context-independent and discrete tests that focus on testing RVS and GA level. Further, there was a significant correlation between the scores on the PVL T and the scores on the SSKT. The correlation results met the significance indicator ($p= .01$). This significant correlation could be attributed to the nature of the tests being written, discrete, and context-independent. The significant correlation between RVS, PVS, and GA confirmed the sixth research hypothesis.

6.3. Recommendations

Several recommendations arise from the findings of this study for materials designers, administrators, teachers, and learners. These recommendations are classified into three categories in respect to the research areas of materials development and lexical and grammatical knowledge, the research methodology followed, and the research aims. Consequently, this study provides pedagogical recommendations for materials designers, administrators, teachers, and learners, and methodological and research recommendations for researchers in the same research areas.

The findings of this study provide pedagogical recommendations to teachers as main course designers. The process of conducting the research invites materials designers and teachers to examine the sequencing of the activities for consideration in syllabus and course designs. The positive correlation between RVS, PVS, and GA also warrant for the possibility of teaching isolated grammatical and lexical chunks as separate language components. Therefore, the distinction between grammaticalized lexis and lexicalized grammar (Thornbury, 2006; Lewis, 1993, 1997) could be used to support the progress of each language element separately under the integration of various PAS.
Administrators could use the vocabulary tests used in this study for appropriate placement of the students into groups mainly for OE classes in which the focus on vocabulary is significant. This placement would permit teachers to select contents and methodologies that aim at covering the vocabulary needs of the learners. Accordingly, teachers could use these tests to diagnose the receptive and productive vocabulary sizes of their students for fostering specific learning areas or for effective sequencing (how to teach?) of vocabulary learning activities. Similarly, EFL teachers could use the SSKT to diagnose the GA of their students at written sentence level within the subject of written expression in which the sentence constitutes the main unit of paragraph and essay writing. This would be appropriate to help the teachers identify the common sentence structure problems in order to focus their instruction objectives. Therefore, appropriate diagnosis would allow teachers to work effectively towards covering the learners’ needs in terms of GA at the written sentence level.

The main implication for EFL teachers is relevant to the role of integrating various PAS in promoting RVS, PVS, and GA at sentence structure level. Since classroom instruction has an important role in fostering and creating learning opportunities, varied and rich vocabulary and grammar teaching contexts need to be used to meet this end in practice. The findings of this study confirmed that there were significant differences at the beginning and end of the quasi-experiment under the integration of various PAS to teach vocabulary and grammar at the sentence structure level. It is recommended, therefore, that teachers use this method of integrating various PAS in teaching vocabulary and grammar to enhance vocabulary size and GA. Exposing learners to different types of activities through using different sequencing patterns is further recommended since it provides different contexts to use a wide range of lexical items and grammatical structures.

The implication emerging from the findings of this study for EFL learners would be beneficial in many concerns. First, the results on VS and GA would raise the awareness of the
students about the importance of learning vocabulary and grammar. They would relatively raise their awareness on their vocabulary size and GA level in particular and the need to promote their RVS, PVS, and GA levels in general for more language proficiency. The results would also motivate the learners to invest more efforts and time in learning English vocabulary and grammar.

The research literature (Laufer, 1998; Meara, 1992; Schmitt, 1994) suggested that VS tests could be used as placement tests and as VS diagnostic tests. In this respect, the RVLT and the PVLT were used in this study to diagnose the RVS and the PVS of the students at two different moments following the quasi-experimental study. These tests are not implied to replace other language proficiency tests though significant results were found before and after the quasi-experiment. The correlation scores in this study and the studies mentioned in the research literature need to be high enough estimating the high .80s or the low .90s in order to imply confident results for using the tests for placement purposes. Thus, the tests could be used along other language proficiency tests for placement and diagnosis purposes.

The belief that classes in which the language proficiency of learners is relatively equal is beneficial to both teachers and learners has been widely accepted. Yet, given that learners learn the target language at different paces, appropriate placement through testing VS and GA at different moments provides more insights on the development rates of these aspects. It further gives information on the effectiveness of teaching methods and the appropriateness of selected contents. The principle applied in this study is the integration of different PAS in teaching vocabulary and grammar. The significant results obtained in this study in terms of promoting the RVS, the PVS, and the GA of learners under the integration of various PAS in vocabulary and grammar teaching reinforces the claims on the important and efficient role of integration in language teaching.
6.4. Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research

In the context of this study, three main limitations were identified. First, this study was cross-sectional since only one semester was the timeframe for conducting the research. A longitudinal research would have provided in depth insights on clear directions for vocabulary size and GA growth. VK is not subject to full mastery and is a developing and deepening knowledge through a lifespan. According to Henriksen (1999), Nation (2001) and Schmitt (2000), vocabulary acquisition involves the progressive developments of the mental lexicon. Researching the nature of this development requires longitudinal studies to better understand the factors pertaining to the process of vocabulary size growth. Likewise, the development in the GA at sentence structure level needs to be pursued through longitudinal research to cover wider ranges of sentence problems.

The second limitation in the present research is related to the research design of quasi-experimentation. The findings cannot be generalized to the study population since the study sample was not selected randomly because of administrative constraints on the sample selection. Accordingly, the main findings and the resulting correlation apply only to the students who participated in the study. Furthermore, the use of the one-group pretest posttest quasi-experimental design to research GA at written sentence level limits the inference of the cause-effect relationship despite the methodological measures followed. Despite the measures undertaken prior to conducting the quasi-experimental study to control key confounding variables, the absence of random assignment of the groups in the quasi-experiment implies that other variables- being individual or extraneous, may have interfered into the obtained results.

The last limitation is relevant to the focus of the study itself since VK was measured at the level of size excluding depth while GK focused on GA instead of the overall
grammatical competence. Indeed, testing depth of VK along its size, and testing GA along appropriateness through a battery of tests can be more informative. However, testing all these areas requires sitting for many tests which is time consuming and was not feasible in the context of the present study.

In the light of the research process and findings of this study, four ideas for future research evolved. First, researchers should pursue future studies that aim at unveiling the role of PAS in promoting language proficiency or specific areas of language as provided in the context of this study. This could be achieved through replicating the current research with a larger sample of participants in different settings. Therefore, similar research could be carried with participants of different language levels and from various educational settings such as university and high schools.

Second, this future research could investigate the role of each pattern of activity sequencing in enhancing vocabulary and grammatical knowledge instead of the integration principle used in this study. Similarly, it would be very interesting to contrast the role of one pattern of activity sequencing against another via adapted and specifically designed lessons that have the main aim of teaching vocabulary and grammar. Comparative research that sheds light on the role of PAS in promoting language proficiency could also be carried through comparing between skill-based activities and linguistic activities that focus on vocabulary and grammar. This research could guide the decisions on the classroom use of the patterns investigated to maintain their regular use or at specific moments during lessons depending on the objectives of instruction.

Further research could also be carried to investigate the role of various PAS in promoting other aspects of VK such as depth of this knowledge, and GA such as appropriateness and fluency. Since the principle of integrating PAS proved to be effective in
promoting VS and GA, it would be worth investigating whether this integration will have a similar positive role in developing other language elements. Further, since a significant correlation was found in the present study between RVS and GA and between PVS and GA, further research needs to be carried to better understand the possible links between both variables. Besides, future research on the assessment of GA at the written sentence level needs to be conducted in order to cover up the same grammatical errors treated in this study or a larger range of grammatical errors.

Since a multivariate design of various specific PAS was used in this study, other PAS as provided in the literature were not investigated and could make the focus of integration in future research in order to further examine their role in promoting VS and GA or other language elements. Further, the focus in this study was on the investigation of the role of integrating specific PAS as a whole rather than examining the role of each pattern. Consequently, further research could be carried in order to test the efficiency of each pattern of those integrated in this study or from the research literature.

The last direction for further research arises from the necessity to undertake research on materials design in EFL teaching. As an applied filed, materials development in the EFL classroom research could generate new modes of instruction that could be beneficial to the EFL learner. Whether it targets specific areas of instruction or overall language proficiency, research on materials development could enhance the quality of provided instruction and within the language levels of learners.

6.5. Conclusion

This chapter reviewed the main findings obtained in the context of the present study. Reference was made to the research hypotheses stated in order to discuss the main findings of these hypotheses in the light of the main research findings. The chapter then introduced a
number of implications based on the study findings. Next, a set of limitations related to the research design and variables were stated, along some suggestions for further research based on the research principle of integrating various PAS and the investigated areas of VS and GA.
GENERAL CONCLUSION

This study was set out to investigate the role of integrating various PAS in promoting VS at both receptive and productive levels and GA at written sentence level. It has also examined the relationship between RVS, PVS and GA through correlation measures. The present research was conducted through three main phases. The first phase was carried prior to the main study in order to identify the PAS used in vocabulary and grammar teaching in the EFL classroom using observations in the OE and grammar classrooms. The second phase was a pilot study conducted to test the reliability of the used research instruments. The third phase was the quasi-experimental study in which the nonrandomized control group pretest-posttest design was followed to examine the role of integrating the deep-end strategy, the task-based, and the scenario-based patterns in promoting RVS and PVS, and the one-group pretest-posttest design was followed to investigate the role of integrating the PPP, the focus on form, and the ESA patterns in promoting GA at written sentence level. The subjects were 75 third year undergraduate students divided administratively into two groups in the quasi-experiment on VS, and a group of 34 students in the pre-experiment on GA. The RVLT, the PVLT, the SSKT were used to collect data at the beginning and at the end of the quasi-experimental study. The quantitative data analysis took several stages following the research hypotheses, the research designs, and the used instruments. The data obtained from the RVLT, the PVLT, and the SSKT were analyzed quantitatively using the SPSS 22.0 software (2014) to test their reliability and to generate descriptive statistics in the form of means and standard deviations which were further compared using the dependent and independent t-tests with each analysis performed at \( p \leq .05 \) levels. The Pearson correlation coefficient was used to examine the relationship between the scores emerging on the VS tests and the SSKT for any significant correlation at \( p \leq .01 \) levels.
The results of the first phase revealed the use of the PPP pattern in vocabulary and grammar teaching. These results helped to establish a rationale for the present study to investigate the role of integration of various PAS in vocabulary and grammar teaching. The results of the pilot study confirmed the reliability of the research instruments which motivated their use for the main study. The results of the quasi-experimental study revealed significant differences between the scores of the subjects on the RVLT, the PVLT, and the SSKT at the end of the quasi-experiment. Further, the Pearson correlation analysis revealed a significant correlation between, RVS, PVS, and GA level. Based on these results, the current study recommends the integration of PAS as used in this study to teach vocabulary and grammar, and suggests that other PAS could be integrated in future research to further investigate the role of integration in developing VS and GA as well as other language learning aspects.
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Appendix A

Receptive Vocabulary Levels Test

Student instruction sheet for the Levels Test

This is a vocabulary test. You must choose the right word to go with each meaning. Write the number of that word next to its meaning. Here is an example.

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

You answer it in the following way.

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

Some words are in the test to make it more difficult. You do not have to find a meaning for these words. In the example above, these words are business, clock and shoe.

If you have no idea about the meaning of a word, do not guess. But if you think you might know the meaning, then you should try to find the answer.

Appendix 2  The Vocabulary Levels Test: Version 2
(Norbert Schmitt)

The 2000 word level

1  copy  _____ end or highest
2  event  _____ point
3  motor  _____ this moves a
4  pity  _____ car
5  profit  _____ thing made to
6  tip  _____ be like another

1  accident  _____ loud deep
2  debt  _____ sound
3  fortune  _____ something you
4  pride  _____ must pay
5  roar  _____ having a high
6  thread  _____ opinion of yourself
1 coffee ____ money for 1 arrange ____ grow
2 disease work 2 develop ____ put in order
3 justice ____ a piece of 3 lean ____ like more than
4 skirt clothing 4 owe something
5 stage ____ using the law 5 prefer else
6 wage in the right way 6 seize

1 clerk ____ a drink 1 blame ____ make
2 frame ____ office worker 2 elect ____ choose by
3 noise ____ unwanted 3 jump voting
4 respect ____ sound 4 threaten ____ become like
5 theater 5 melt water
6 wine 6 manufacture

1 dozen ____ chance 1 ancient ____ not easy
2 empire ____ twelve 2 curious ____ very old
3 gift ____ money paid 3 difficult ____ related to God
4 tax to the 4 entire
5 relief government 5 holy
6 opportunity 5 social

1 admire ____ make wider or 1 slight ____ beautiful
2 complain longer 2 bitter ____ small
3 fix ____ bring in for 3 lovely ____ liked by many
4 hire the first time 4 merry people
5 introduce ____ have a high 5 popular
6 stretch ____ opinion of someone 6 independent

The 3000 word level

1 bull ____ formal and 1 muscle ____ advice
2 champion serious 2 counsel ____ a place
3 dignity manner 3 factor covered with
4 hell winner of a 4 hen grass
5 museum sporting event 5 lawn female
6 solution ____ building 6 atmosphere chicken
   where valuable objects are shown
      where
      where

| 1 | blanket | _______ holiday | 1 | abandon | _______ live in a place |
| 2 | contest | _______ good quality | 2 | dwell | _______ follow in |
| 3 | generation | _______ wool covering | 3 | oblige | _______ order to catch |
| 4 | merit | used on | 4 | pursue | _______ leave |
| 5 | plot | beds | 5 | quote | _______ something |
| 6 | vacation | | 6 | resolve | _______ permanently |

| 1 | comment | _______ long formal | 1 | assemble | _______ look closely |
| 2 | gown | _______ dress | 2 | attach | _______ stop doing |
| 3 | import | _______ goods from a | 3 | peer | _______ something |
| 4 | nerve | _______ foreign | 4 | quit | _______ cry out loudly |
| 5 | pasture | country | 5 | scream | _______ in fear |
| 6 | tradition | _______ part of the | 6 | toss | |
| | | body which carries feeling | | | |

| 1 | pond | _______ group of | 1 | drift | _______ suffer |
| 2 | angel | animals | 2 | endure | _______ patiently |
| 3 | frost | spirit who | 3 | grasp | _______ join wool |
| 4 | herd | serves God | 4 | knit | _______ threads |
| 5 | fort | _______ managing | 5 | register | _______ together |
| 6 | administration | business and affairs | 6 | tumble | _______ hold firmly with your hands |

| 1 | brilliant | _______ thin | 1 | aware | _______ usual |
| 2 | distinct | _______ steady | 2 | blank | _______ best or most |
| 3 | magic | _______ without | 3 | desperate | _______ important |
| 4 | naked | clothes | 4 | normal | _______ knowing what |
| 5 | slender | | 5 | striking | _______ is happening |
| 6 | stable | | 6 | supreme | |

**Academic Vocabulary**

| 1 | area | _______ written | 1 | adult | _______ end |
| 2 | contract | agreement | 2 | vehicle | _______ machine used |
| 3 | definition | _______ way of doing | 3 | exploitation | _______ to move |
| 4 | evidence | _______ something | 4 | infrastructure | _______ people or |
| 5 | method | reason for | 5 | termination | _______ goods |
| 6 | role | _______ believing | 6 | schedule | _______ list of things to do at |
| | | something is or is not true | | | certain times |

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| 1 | debate | plan  | 1 | alter | change |
| 2 | exposure | choice | 2 | coincide | say something |
| 3 | integration | joining | 3 | deny | is not true |
| 4 | option | something | 4 | devote | describe |
| 5 | scheme | into a | 5 | release | clearly and |
| 6 | stability | whole | 6 | specify | exactly |

| 1 | access | male or | 1 | correspond | keep |
| 2 | gender | female | 2 | diminish | match or be |
| 3 | psychology | study of the | 3 | emerge | in agreement |
| 4 | license | mind | 4 | highlight | with |
| 5 | orientation | entrance or | 5 | invoke | give special |
| 6 | implementation | way in | 6 | retain | attention to something |

| 1 | edition | collecting | 1 | bond | make smaller |
| 2 | accumulation | things over | 2 | channel | guess the |
| 3 | guarantee | time | 3 | estimate | number or |
| 4 | media | promise to | 4 | identify | size of |
| 5 | motivation | repair a | 5 | mediate | something |
| 6 | phenomenon | broken | 6 | minimize | recognizing and naming |
|   |   | product |   |   | a person or |
|   |   | feeling a |   |   | thing |
|   |   | strong reason |   |   |   |
|   |   | or need to do |   |   |   |
|   |   | something |   |   |   |

| 1 | explicit | last | 1 | abstract | next to |
| 2 | final | stiff | 2 | adjacent | added to |
| 3 | negative | meaning | 3 | neutral | concerning |
| 4 | professional | ‘no’ or ‘not’ | 4 | global | the whole |
| 5 | rigid |   | 5 | controversial | world |
| 6 | sole |   | 6 | supplementary |   |

**The 5000 word level**

| 1 | analysis | eagerness | 1 | artillery | a kind of tree |
| 2 | curb | loan to buy a | 2 | creed |   |
| 3 | gravel | house | 3 | hydrogen | system of |
| 4 | mortgage | small | 4 | maple | belief |
| 5 | scar | stones | 5 | pork | large gun |
| 6 | zeal | mixed with sand | 6 | streak | on wheels |
| 1 cavalry | small hill | 1 chart | map |
| 2 eve | day or night | 2 forge | large beautiful |
| 3 ham | before a | 3 mansion | house |
| 4 mound | holiday | 4 outfit | place where |
| 5 steak | soldiers who | 5 sample | metals are |
| 6 switch | fight from horses | 6 volunteer | made and shaped |

| 1 circus | musical | 1 revive | think about |
| 2 jungle | instrument | 2 extract | deeply |
| 3 trumpet | seat without | 3 gamble | bring back to |
| 4 sermon | a back or | 4 launch | health |
| 5 stool | arms | 5 provoke | make |
| 6 nomination | speech | 6 contemplate | someone |

1 shatter | have a rest | 1 decent | weak |
2 embarrass | break | 2 frail | concerning a |
3 heave | suddenly into | 3 harsh | city |
4 obscure | small | 4 incredible | difficult to |
5 demonstrate | pieces | 5 municipal | believe |
6 relax | make | 6 specific |

1 correspond | exchange | 1 adequate | enough |
2 embroider | letters | 2 internal | fully grown |
3 lurk | hide and wait | 3 mature | alone away |
4 penetrate | for someone | 4 profound | from other |
5 prescribe | feel angry | 5 solitary | things |
6 resent | about something | 6 tragic |
### The 10 000 word level

| 1 | alabaster | ____ small barrel | 1 | throttle | ____ kindness |
| 2 | tentacle | ____ soft white | 2 | convoy | ____ set of musical |
| 3 | dogma | ____ stone | 3 | lien | ____ notes |
| 4 | kieg | ____ tool for | 4 | octave | ____ speed control |
| 5 | rasp | ____ shaping wood | 5 | stint | ____ for an |
| 6 | chandelier | | 6 | benevolence | ____ engine |

| 1 | bourgeois | ____ middle class | 1 | scrawl | ____ write |
| 2 | brocade | ____ people | 2 | cringe | ____ carelessly |
| 3 | consonant | ____ row or level | 3 | immerse | ____ move back |
| 4 | prelude | ____ of something | 4 | peek | because of |
| 5 | stupor | ____ cloth with a | 5 | contaminate | ____ fear |
| 6 | tier | ____ pattern or gold | 6 | relay | ____ put something under water |

| 1 | alcove | ____ priest | 1 | blurt | ____ walk in a |
| 2 | impetus | ____ release from | 2 | dabble | ____ proud way |
| 3 | maggot | ____ prison early | 3 | dent | ____ kill by |
| 4 | parole | ____ medicine to | 4 | pacify | ____ squeezing |
| 5 | salve | ____ put on | 5 | strangle | ____ someone’s |
| 6 | vicar | ____ wounds | 6 | swagger | ____ throat |

| 1 | alkali | ____ light joking | 1 | illicit | ____ immense |
| 2 | banter | ____ talk | 2 | lewd | ____ against the |
| 3 | coop | ____ a rank of | 3 | mammoth | ____ law |
| 4 | mosaic | ____ British | 4 | slick | ____ wanting |
| 5 | stealth | ____ nobility | 5 | temporal | ____ revenge |
| 6 | viscount | ____ picture made of small pieces of glass or stone | 6 | vindictive | |

| 1 | dissipate | ____ steal | 1 | indolent | ____ lazy |
| 2 | flaunt | ____ scatter or | 2 | nocturnal | ____ no longer |
| 3 | impede | ____ vanish | 3 | obsolete | ____ used |
| 4 | loot | ____ twist the | 4 | torrid | ____ clever and |
| 5 | squirm | ____ body about | 5 | translucent | ____ tricky |
| 6 | vie | ____ uncomfortably | 6 | translucent | ____ wily |
Appendix B

*Productive Vocabulary Levels Test*

(The test is adapted from the Productive Level Test (version C) created by Nation (2001).

Complete the gapped words. Write the answer (complete word) on your answer sheet.

Here is the example:

1. He was riding a bic…………..

*On your answer sheet, you will write:*

1. bicycle
2. 
3. 

**THE 2,000 WORD LEVEL**

1. I’m glad we had this opp……………. to talk.
2. There are a doz……………. eggs in the basket.
3. Every working person must pay income t……………
4. The pirates buried the trea…………… on a desert island.
5. Her beauty and cha…………… had a powerful effect on men.
6. La…………… of rain led to a shortage of water in the city.
7. He takes cr……………. and sugar in his coffee.
8. The rich man died and left all his we…………… to his son.
9. Pup……………. must hand in their papers by the end of the week.
10. This sweater is too tight. It needs to be stret……………
11. Ann intro……………. her boyfriend to her mother.
12. Teenagers often adm……………. and worship pop singers.
13. If you blow up that balloon any more it will bur……………
14. In order to be accepted into the university, he had to impr……………. his grades.
15. The telegram was delivered two hours after it had been sent.

16. The differences were so slight that they went unnoticed.

17. The dress you’re wearing is lovely.

18. He wasn’t very popular when he was a teenager, but he has many friends now.

**THE 3,000 WORD LEVEL**

1. He has a successful career as a lawyer.

2. The thieves threw acid in his face and made him blind.

3. To improve the country’s economy, the government decided on economic reform.

4. She wore a beautiful green gown to the ball.

5. The government tried to protect the country’s industry by reducing the import of cheap goods.

6. The children’s pranks were funny at first, but finally got on the parents’ nerves.

7. The lawyer gave some wise counsel to his client.

8. Many people in England mow the lawn of their houses on Sunday morning.

9. The farmer sells the eggs that his hens lay.

10. Sudden noises at night scare me a lot.

11. France was proclaimed a republic in the 18th century.

12. Many people are injured in road accidents every year.

13. Suddenly he was thrown into the dark room.

14. He perceived a light at the end of the tunnel.

15. Children are not independent. They are attached to their parents.

16. She showed off her slender figure in a long narrow dress.

17. She has been changing partners often because she cannot have a stable relationship with one person.
18. You must wear a bathing suit on a public beach. You’re not allowed to walk

**THE 5,000 WORD LEVEL**

1. Soldiers usually swear an oath of loyalty to their country.
2. The voter placed the ball in the box.
3. They keep their valuables in a vault at the bank.
4. A bird perched at the window led.
5. The kitten is playing with a ball of yarn.
6. The thieves have forced an entrance to the building.
7. The small hill was really a burial mound.
8. We decided to celebrate New Year’s Eve together.
9. The soldier was asked to choose between infantry and cavalry.
10. This is a complex problem which is difficult to comprehend.
11. The angry crowd shouted the prisoner as he was leaving the court.
12. Don’t pay attention to this ruined remark. Just ignore it.
13. The management held a secret meeting. The issues discussed were not disclosed to the workers.
14. We could hear the sergeant belting commands to the troops.
15. The boss got angry with the secretary and it took a lot of tact to soothe him.
16. We do not have adequate information to make a decision.
17. She is not a child, but a matron woman. She can make her own decisions.
18. The prisoner was put in solitary confinement.

**The 10,000 WORD LEVEL**

1. The baby is wet. Her diaper needs changing.
2. Second year university students in the US are called sophomores.
3. The deacon helped with the care of the poor of the parish.

4. The hurricane whipped along the coast.

5. Some coal was still smoldering among the ashes.

6. She was sitting on a balcony and basking in the sun.

7. Computers have made typewriters old-fashioned and obsolete.

8. Watch out for his wild tricks.

9. If your lips are sore, try lip salve, not medicine.

10. The new vicar was appointed by the bishop.

11. The actors exchanged banter with the reporters.

12. A throttle controls the flow of gas into an engine.

13. Anyone found looting bombed houses and shops will be severely punished.

14. The wounded man squirmed on the floor in agony.

15. The dog crinched when it saw the snake.

16. The approaching storm stampeded the cattle into running wildly.

17. The problem is beginning to assume mammoth proportions.

18. The rescue attempt could not proceed quickly. It was impeded by bad weather.

THE UNIVERSITY WORD LIST LEVEL

1. There has been a recent trend among prosperous families towards a smaller number of children.

2. The area of his office is 25 square meters.

3. Philosophy examines the meaning of life.

4. According to the communist doctrine, workers should rule the world.
5. Spending many years together deepened their intimate relationship.

6. He usually read the sports section of the newspaper first.

7. Because of the doctors’ strike the clinic is closed today.

8. There are several misprints on each page of this text.

9. The suspect had both opportunity and motive to commit the murder.

10. They inspected all products before sending them out to stores.

11. A considerable amount of evidence was accumulated during the investigation.

12. The victim’s shirt was saturated with blood.

13. He is irresponsible. You cannot rely on him for help.

14. It’s impossible to evaluate these results without knowing about the research methods that were used.

15. He finally attained a position of power in the company.

16. The story tells us about a crime and subsequent punishment.

17. In a homeroom class all students are of a similar proficiency.

18. The urge to survive is inherent in all creatures.
Appendix C

Results of the Receptive and Productive Vocabulary Levels Tests of Third Year Students

Receptive Vocabulary Levels Test Results

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Productive Vocabulary Levels Test Results

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Sentence Structure Knowledge Test

This test is designed to measure your knowledge about writing accurate sentences. It mainly measures your knowledge of identifying grammatical errors in sentences, your knowledge of grammatical rules to correct parts of sentences, and your skill of writing accurate sentences.

The test has three main sections. Be sure to read the instructions carefully for each section.

Section I

Underline the part of the sentence that includes the grammatical error, and name the type of the error.

1. To read, singing, and painting who entertain seventeen year-old Nancy are her favourite hobbies.
   
   Type of error: …………………………………………………………………

2. The plate was about to fall off the waiter’s hand that was moving sideways.
   
   Type of error: …………………………………………………………………

3. The situation of the company was obviously getting worse in the market, the owner did what he could to avoid total loss.
   
   Type of error: …………………………………………………………………

4. I believe the prize going to the student who has presented the best project.
   
   Type of error: …………………………………………………………………

5. Media importance was recognized during the cold war, and it sometimes causes costly damage to people’s lives.
   
   Type of error: …………………………………………………………………

6. Although they got out for a picnic, it was raining.
   
   Type of error: …………………………………………………………………

7. The list of exclusions and removals not yet been distributed making everyone anxious.
   
   Type of error: …………………………………………………………………

8. Lisa told Anne that she did not pay the bill last week.
   
   Type of error: …………………………………………………………………
Section II

Choose the best accurate version of the sentence. Choice (A) is the same as the original given sentence. If you think the original sentence is the accurate choice, choose answer A.

Here is an example:

Those books, which has introduced feminine writing are less available.

a. books, which has introduced feminine writing
b. books of feminine writing which has introduced
c. books which has introduced
d. books which have introduced feminine writing

The correct answer is d. books which have introduced feminine writing

The revised sentence should read

Those books which have introduced feminine writing are less available.

1. The man gave ice cream to the children covered with chocolate.

a. The man gave ice cream to the children covered with chocolate.
b. The man covered with chocolate gave ice cream to the children.
c. Covered with chocolate, the man gave ice cream to the children.
d. The man gave ice cream covered with chocolate to the children.

2. When the children at the library basement found a treasure map in the discarded books.

a. When the children at the library basement found a treasure map in the discarded books.
b. When the children at the library basement, found a treasure map in the discarded books.
c. The children were at the library basement when they found a map in the discarded books.
d. When the children found a treasure map in the discarded books at the library basement.

3. Many companies control their environment reservation expenses, they revise their policies to invest less.

   a. Many companies control their environment reservation expenses, they revise their policies to invest less.
   
   b. Many companies control their reservation expenses they revise their policies to invest less.
   
   c. Many companies revise their policies to invest less because they control their environment reservation expenses.
   
   d. Many companies control their environment reservation expenses because they revise their policies to invest less.

4. Our headmaster, George Green, manages all the professional complications that arise because he is an extremely devoted worker, serious, and a diplomatic expert.

   a. Our headmaster, George Green, manages all the professional complications that arise because he is an extremely devoted worker, serious, and a diplomatic expert.
   
   b. Our headmaster, George Green, manages all professional complications that arise because he is an extremely devoted worker, a very serious manager, and a professionally diplomatic expert.
   
   c. Our headmaster, George Green, manages all the professional complications that arise because he is an extremely devoted worker, very serious, and a diplomatic expert.
   
   d. Our headmaster, George Green, manages all the professional complications that arise because he is extremely devoted, very serious, and professionally diplomatic.

5. Everyone develop professionally in different skills when using his own funds.

   a. Everyone develop professionally in different skills when using his own funds.
   
   b. Everyone using his own funds develop professionally in different skills
c. When using his own funds, everyone develops professionally.

d. Everyone develops professionally in different skills when using his own funds.

6. A Halloween party is a big celebration for many young people, and they may go through a massive shopping experience to find the right costume to wear.

   a. A Halloween party is a big celebration for many young people, and they may go through a massive shopping experience to find the right costume to wear.

   b. A Halloween party is a big celebration for many young people and they may go through a massive shopping experience to find the right costume to wear.

   c. A Halloween party is a big celebration for many young people; therefore, they may go through a massive shopping experience to find the right costume to wear.

   d. A Halloween party is a big celebration for many young people, they may go through a massive shopping experience to find the right costume to wear.

7. Tsunamis are violent waves which follow the striking of earthquakes at the bottom of the seas and look like black mountains as anyone who is familiar with sea life knows.

   a. Tsunamis are violent waves which follow the striking of earthquakes at the bottom of the seas and look like black mountains as anyone who is familiar with sea life knows.

   b. Tsunamis are violent waves which follow the striking of earthquakes at the bottom of the seas and look like black mountains because anyone who is familiar with sea life knows.

   c. Because Tsunamis are violent waves which follow the striking of earthquakes at the bottom of the seas and look like black mountains, anyone who is familiar with sea life knows.

   d. As anyone who is familiar with sea life knows Tsunamis are violent waves which follow the striking of earthquakes at the bottom of the seas and look like black mountains.
8. Governments should always inform the citizens if they discovered potential threats.

a. Governments should always inform the citizens if they discovered potential threats.

b. Governments should always inform the citizens if governments discovered potential threats.

c. Governments should discover potential threats if they always inform the citizens.

d. If they discovered potential threats governments should always inform the citizens.

Section III

Follow the provided instructions to write your own original sentences.

1. Write a Simple sentence

……………………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………………………

2. A compound sentence

a. Using a coordinating conjunction

……………………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………………………

b. using a conjunctive adverb

……………………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………………………

c. using a semicolon

……………………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………………………
3. Complex sentence
   
a. using a subordinating conjunction

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

b. using a relative pronoun

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

4. Compound-complex sentence

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

Answer key

Section I

To read, singing, and painting who entertain seventeen year-old Nancy are her favourite hobbies.

Type of error: faulty parallelism

2. The plate was about to fall off the waiter’s hand that was moving sideways.

Type of error: misplaced modifier

3. The situation of the company was obviously getting worse in the market, the owner did what he could to avoid total loss.

Type of error: Comma splice

4. I believe the prize should go to anyone who have presented the best project.

Type of error: lack of subject-verb agreement

5. Media importance was recognized during the cold war, and it sometimes causes costly damage to people’s lives.
Type of error: faulty coordination

6. Although they got out for a picnic, it was raining.

Type of error: faulty subordination

7. The list of exclusions and removals not yet been distributed making everyone anxious.

Type of error: sentence fragment

8. Lisa told Anne that she did not pay the bill last week.

Type of error: unclear pronoun reference

Section II

1. Correct answer is d. The man gave ice cream covered with chocolate to the children. (Misplaced modifier error)

2. Correct answer is c. The children were at the library basement when they found a map in the discarded books. (Sentence fragment error)

3. Correct answer is d. Many companies control their environment reservation expenses because they revise their policies to invest less. (Comma splice error)

4. Correct answer is b. Our headmaster, George Green, manages all the professional complications that arise because he is extremely devoted, very serious, and professionally diplomatic. (Faulty parallelism)

5. Correct answer is d. Everyone develops professionally in different skills when using his own funds. (lack of subject-verb agreement)

6. Correct answer is c. A Halloween party is a big celebration for many young people; therefore, they may go through a massive shopping experience to find the right costume to wear. (Faulty coordination)

7. Correct answer is a. Tsunamis are violent waves which follow the striking of earthquakes at the bottom of the seas and look like black mountains as anyone who is familiar with sea life knows. (Faulty subordination)

8. Correct answer is b. Governments should always inform the citizens if governments discovered potential threats. (Unclear pronoun reference)
Appendix E

Sample Written Exam Essays
a. What is the nature of the extract (genre)? Illustrate your answer with a quote from the text.

b. Discuss briefly the style of the writer.

Question 3: Write a short piece about ONE of the following topics/genres (8 pts.)
a. A Travel essay about a place you visited that has left a remarkable memory in your brain.

b. A Memoir about a special moment you spent/lived with your family or friend(s).

c. A Personal Essay about a teacher, classmate or lesson that has inspired you.

"Strive to be beyond what others perceive you to be, by striving beyond the limits of yourself."

Debbie Toun Killay
Question Three: WRITE a detailed description of the CHARACTER referred to in the quote. Read the extracts carefully and then choose only ONE extract to write about (circle the one you selected).

A. A character with two sides:
   “I’m awfully scared that everyone who knows me as I always am will discover that I have another side, a finer and better side. I’m afraid they’ll laugh at me, think I am ridiculous and sentimental, not take me seriously.” Anne Frank.

B. Flashbacks may be helpful to create liveliness and credibility in your character:
   “If I had to live my life again, I’d make the same mistakes, only sooner.” Tabitha Bankhead.

C. Describe how the character’s experience has made him/her what he/she is now.
   “I think these difficult times have helped me to understand better than before how infinitely rich and beautiful life is in every way and that so many things that one goes around worrying about are of no importance whatsoever.” Isak Dinesen.

Your piece...

"A mind that is stretched to a new idea never returns to its original dimension" Oliver Wendell Holmes

The description is appropriate to the theme, and the ideas are coherent and interesting, but the style is poor. Revise sentence structure, punctuation, spelling.

04.5/08
a. What is the nature of the extract (genre)? Illustrate your answer with a quote from the text.

...the nature of the extract is a memory. ...I am sitting in an atoll town... I have read over the last years...  

b. Discuss briefly the style of the writer.

...The style is very clean and... 

Question 3: Write a short piece about ONE of the following topics/genres (8 pts.)

a. A Travel essay about a place you visited that has left a remarkable memory in your brain.

Every once in a while, during his life, many traveling and some of it has left a remarkable memory in his brain. Especially the trip he made when he was younger... When I was studying at middle school, our teacher of history... arranged a trip to Olympia City. During the way to this city, our teacher divided us into two groups and made a competition... Between us, this competition was amazing and we got from it... As we got to the Parthenon, our teacher told us that we will go to the Parthenon and we should respect the guide... and ask him any question about Parthenon and we shouldn't claim the wall of the Parthenon and we should always good behavior... After farm, we went to the city...

The trip was very interesting and we asked our teacher to arrange another one and he promised us that he would do...

"Strive to be beyond what others perceive you to be, by striving beyond the limits of yourself."

Debbie Tosun Kilday

P.P.S.?
hating someone or loving him is not a permanent feeling, it's a state of mind, it can be changed according to the person's behavior towards you or others. In my case, I don't think that anything this person will do can change my mind even a brain wave operation or an open heart surgery. This person is a host in a TV show. I can't stand him, his sick jokes, his way of talking, and how he embarrasses the contestants.

Probably you are wondering why can't I stand him, but trust me if you knew him you would've felt the same, he is the silliest person on earth. It is a normal thing to have a sense of humor and make people laugh, but what's hurtful is exaggeration which can hurt the normal. He exaggerates which can hurt the normal people as well especially if you are in a situation and people are making fun of their way of dressing, their accent, and the worst is their weight. I just wish I could punch him on the face and make his teeth fall off this way so that he stops making this sick jokes.

The way of talking reflects the speaker's personality, so it's important to leave a good impression, but this man even though he is a journalist, he seems like an illiterate! He mixes everything, Arabic with French, German with poetry... They really should stop this TV show, he is an embarrassment to Algeria.

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Religious Channels

A lot of factors contribute in people's personality, education, and their way of thinking. Such as family, friends, books, TV channels... especially the latter one due to the fact that most of people spend a lot of time in front of TV having ideas what is being stuffed in their subconscious.

There is an infinite number of TV channels, but when it comes to educating people, religious channels have the lion's share. But these channels raise a lot of questions whether about their credibility of their information, the way of effecting people's way of thinking and who is behind strengthening them.

The credibility of religious channels rely on the sources of it's fatwas. First of all, they rely on the major sources in our religion which are Quran and Sunnah of our Prophet. Secondly, they rely on their own opinion in case that situation is not mentioned in the previous sources such as technology and other topics which can mislead people and guide them to their

People never think twice when it come to watching a religious channel they trust entirely they see and hear even if it's wrong which is similar to volunteering to get brain washed.

Applying this idea in their life will drift them away from their religion.
Women's freedom

Women and freedom. People at the past thought that freedom is not what women should have, but they stay at home doing their duties to their husbands and children just like cooking, cleaning, washing, and so on. They didn't have the right to go out and study or work or participate in the social organizations or even political one. In the contrast, nowadays women developed and they have the right of doing whatever they like. Women have to get and enjoy their freedom for many reasons.

One of the strongest reason is that women form larger number of population more than men, and that means that they have to get their right of freedom in order to participate in taking decisions in their situations. Also, they have not treated as slaves who doing whatever others ask for, but they should be respected by their society. [Since they considered as the heat or source of life]

Women became modern ladies, and if men and women are equal in rights, so why the society judge women in negative way, now they are educated, mindful and they know how to protect themselves, so they use their freedom just because they want to make their dreams come true, and they want the best to themselves and to their family, as well, they want to be a good and beneficial persons to their society. [For example, in teaching children, working in political offices, and even working in companies and factories]

Leadership is considered as something women cannot do, but they can be organized, and that help the countries in all the sides, so they can be the half of the rule of any country if men are the teachers and women are the organizers, and without any doubt, if we look
I explain the effects of religious channels on people's religious education.

Nowadays, life is changing. Everything changes every day; there is something new appears: phones, computers, even channels, every time they become more and more. This lasts has its effect on people's thought. From this channels there are religious one which has it's effect on people religious education.

People in their free time they watch TV, and religious channels have the great impact on people's thought. People are different when they listen to different points of view of different religious men, then they touched by them. So everyone would imitate the religious man who find that it's opinions are the right one. Here we find three categories of people, depending on the impact of this channels on people religious education; it might be good effect or it might be not, because not every religious man is right in his opinions.

The first kind of people are those who were very normal in their life but they study religious education. Those people were apply religious in their daily life, they respect the morals and principles which is in the Holy Qur'an during their study they keep respect them and apply it. So those people are really touched by the religious channel because they have the background religious before.

The second kind of people are very strict when they give their argument or when they judge people because of the impact of these channels in their thought. For example some of them are against the study of girls in the university, and this has a negative impact on girls who have brothers' with study.
Question Three: WRITE a detailed description of the CHARACTER referred to in the quote. Read the extracts carefully and then choose only ONE extract to write about (circle the one you selected).

A. A character with two sides:

"I'm awfully scared that everyone who knows me as I always am will discover that I have another side, a finer and better side. I'm afraid they'll laugh at me, think I am ridiculous and sentimental, not take me seriously." Anne Frank.

B. Flashbacks may be helpful to create liveliness and credibility in your character:

"If I had to live my life again, I'd make the same mistakes, only sooner." Tabullah Dankhead.

C. Describe how the character's experience has made him/her what he/she is now.

"I think these difficult times have helped me to understand better than before how infinitely rich and beautiful life is in every way and that so many things that one goes around worrying about are of no importance whatsoever." Isak Dinesen.

Your piece...

Jasmine Kantchirmarn, a 12-year-old girl born and raised in Chicago. She had a short, blunt face, but a body known as a 'hot' boyish girl. She had long hair, full of curls, and she had a smile that even a cold and painful disease hardly ever expressed any kind of emotion. Jasmine was a strong and loyal girl, and her friends called her 'the strong one.' But Jasmine hid her loneliness and secrecy. Her mother was having a Cameroonian affair that she would never have pictures. Being at any time, so she was often stomach aches. Jasmine was a sensitive, tender person who had no sleep. Almost every night, and a fun, outgoing girl. With family, she preferred to be tough, and understanding in front of friends. She was outside, in general. Jasmine had a soft side, a soft side of her that no one knew. Except her family, she didn't want anyone else to see. This side, her name. Because she was afraid that they would laugh at her, and think that she is ridiculous. Then, never to take her seriously.

"A mind that is stretched to a new idea never returns to its original dimension" Oliver Wendell Holmes.

Detailed description relevant to theme (A): Coherent ideas and average style. Clear tone and average defined characterization.

Revise sentence structure, punctuation and spelling.
a. What is the nature of the extract (genre)? Illustrate your answer with a quote from the text.

b. Discuss briefly the style of the writer.

Question 3: Write a short piece about ONE of the following topics/genres (8 pts.)

a. A Travel essay about a place you visited that has left a remarkable memory in your brain.

b. A Memoir about a special moment you spent/lived with your family or friend(s).

c. A Personal essay about a teacher, classmate or lesson that has inspired you.

"Strive to be beyond what others perceive you to be, by striving beyond the limits of yourself."

Debbie Tosun Kilday
a. What is the nature of the extract (genre)? Illustrate your answer with a quote from the text.

"It is a memoir because it was... when he said..."

b. Discuss briefly the style of the writer.

"The writer's... He... He..."

Question 3: Write a short piece about ONE of the following topics/genres (8 pts.)

a. A Travel essay about a place you visited that has left a remarkable memory in your brain.

b. A Memoir about a special moment you spent/lived with your family or friend(s).

c. A Personal essay about a teacher, classmate or lesson that has inspired you.

"Memories are the only thing that live with people and become..."

"Strive to be beyond what others perceive you to be, by striving beyond the limits of yourself."

Debbie Tson Sun Kilday
a. What is the nature of the extract (genre)? Illustrate your answer with a quote from the text.

...the nature of the extract... on the biographies... quote: 'The lecture was good... Disorder is funny and engaging...'
'I know, Mr. Washington. I can understand what he meant to say...'
Here we didn't find... emotions and feelings of the writer...'

b. Discuss briefly the style of the writer.

The style of the writer... simple... clear... we can understand what he meant to say...'
Here we didn't find... emotions and feelings of the writer...'

Question 3: Write a short piece about ONE of the following topics/genres (8 pts.)

a. A Travel essay about a place you visited that has left a remarkable memory in your brain.

b. A Memoir about a special moment you spent/lived with your family or friend(s).

c. A Personal essay about a teacher, classmate or lesson that has inspired you.

Everyone had got many special moments in his life. One of my happy moments was the day I went to an exam and got my degree with my family and my friends.

From the 1st day in school, my dream was to succeed. In this exam, it was hard but easy, and official. I spent it with my friend especially when we met on the evening. I studied science of nature, and I like very much mathematics and physics. I believed that when I passed the exam, I was happy... Not only I passed, but I understood a lot of things. I succeeded in the exam.

Debbie Tosun Kilday

"Strive to be beyond what others perceive you to be, by striving beyond the limits of yourself."

Mother and Father was very proud of me... May Allah make them live long life."
a. What is the nature of the extract (genre)? Illustrate your answer with a quote from the text.

"The nature of the extract is biographical. I was eight in nineteen... listening... It was part of my university, the lecture was good... True... One of the most fun times of the summer... actually?"

b. Discuss briefly the style of the writer.

His style is clean and simple... he uses a strong word... the way of speaking is... focuses on the discipline... also... the convince and persuade the reader and... have a formidable idea.

Question 3: Write a short piece about ONE of the following topics/genres (8 pts.)

a. A Travel essay about a place you visited that has left a remarkable memory in your brain.

In 2011, I get the best chance to visit with my family... we celebrated this success with my family... my friend... we start to party... all my family... came to my home... they gave me a nice gift... specially... when I saw... my favorite friend... in my house... they sang, smiled... in addition... my sister... cooked... a big piece of cake... and... my father... brought... drinks... as lemon juice... we eat and... enjoy... really it's my best thing... that enjoyed me... in all my life.

"Strive to be beyond what others perceive you to be, by striving beyond the limits of yourself."

Debbie Tosun Kiladay

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a. What is the nature of the extract (genre)? Illustrate your answer with a quote from the text.

...when he said, "some of the best creative non-fiction I have read over the last five years." It is a memoir.

b. Discuss briefly the style of the writer.

The writer uses the past tense and personal pronouns, he was narrating about himself.

Question 3: Write a short piece about ONE of the following topics/genres (8 pts.)

a. A Travel essay about a place you visited that has left a remarkable memory in your brain.

b. A Memoir about a special moment you spent/lived with your family or friends.

c. A Personal essay about a teacher, classmate or lesson that has inspired you.

...When we try to remember something we find ourselves forgetting a lot of things. But the best memories in our life we cannot forget. One of my best memories is my first day in school. I was very excited and happy. My father bought me a new dress and a small beautiful bag. It was yellow. I remember it, my mother baked a delicious cake, they were happy because I was her first child. "I think so... I had my breakfast and wore my clothes, my mother helped me, and I went to school with her." I found some pupils happy, but some others were crying. I did not understand why we still went. The thing that surprised me in my classroom is when... I saw my teacher and she was my mother... 

"Strive to be beyond what others perceive you to be, by striving beyond the limits of yourself."

Debbie Tosun Kiladay
a. What is the nature of the extract (genre)? Illustrate your answer with a quote from the text.

"Strive to be beyond what others perceive you to be, by striving beyond the limits of yourself."

b. Discuss briefly the style of the writer.

The writer followed the style of the writer..."The class was..." as a..."

Question 3: Write a short piece about ONE of the following topics/genres (8 pts.)

a. A Travel essay about a place you visited that has left a remarkable memory in your brain.
b. A Memoir about a special moment you spent/lived with your family or friend (s).
c. A Personal essay about a teacher, classmate or lesson that has inspired you.

On this day, I was like different events about the main special moment which we can't imagine. One of them is the day when I left my best friend. I met my best friend in the middle school and her name is Richard. I studied with her first years with Mrs. Brown. You asked me about the final year. I lost her because she decided to change the town with her family. For the first times I saw Richard, I was like..."

Debbie Tosun Kilday
Introducción:

Nowadays, the technological revival swept all over the world, such as social networking, which has a big role in our daily life. It has different meanings for workers, mean to facilitate their work and exchange products without any tiredness or prices. For teachers, mean to improve their skills when they chat and transform knowledge between each other. For adults, mean just chatting and make their time more enjoyable. The majority of people commented social networking good for them, but may become an addiction to them and face a lot of problems. For instance, this addiction (addiction) is the worst one which we find it in social networking.

TS1

Social networking makes people waste their time without any benefit, it should be read books or something beneficial to lead them to success instead of chatting until...

TS2

Social networking prevents those who chat everyday from sleep deprivation, so should be reduced this problem by reject chatting at night.

TS3

Social networking effect people from a lot of illnesses, such as tiredness and we can solve it by doing something good for their health...

All the best!

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Introducción:

En estos días, social networking es una práctica amplia. En muchos países, las personas pasan gran parte de su tiempo en él, porque sienten que se relacionan al ser parte de una comunidad virtual. Muchas personas, especialmente adultos, tienen sus casas. Los medios de comunicación social son una gran oportunidad para conectar con amigos y familiares.

TS1

Primero, las personas deberían concienciarse sobre el tiempo que pasan en networking, y también las autoridades deben atender a su problema. En la próxima semana, tendremos una reunión para discutir este tema.

TS2

Segundo, se deben usar las redes sociales de una manera positiva. En la mejor manera posible, para solucionar este problema

TS3

Tercero, los adultos deben usar social networking para fines útiles, como estudiar en una casa, disfrutar de tiempo libre, y trabajar...

All the best!
Introducción:

I remember during my last summer vacation with my family, we couldn't communicate with him because of my imperfect language. So, I decided to improve my English. Since I am an English student, but unfortunately my English was not ideal. I decided to improve my pronunciation. In order to be fluent in a foreign language, you should follow three strategies: reading about their culture, translating books, and using their language in your daily life. This will help you improve your level.

Opening strategy: In a recent experience from personal story. 

TS1
- Reading about their culture, because it helps you to know how they think and how they express themselves. 

TS2
- Using their language in your daily life, because it facilitates communication and makes it easier.

TS3
- Translation books can help you improve your level.

All the best!
Introducción:

La lengua es un gran weyón. Muchas personas en este mundo enseñan a los niños a aprender correctamente el uso de la lengua y cómo manejarla. Al principio, en la época de la lengua, hay cuatro formas básicas: la lengua común, la lengua de la ciudad, la lengua de la escuela y la lengua de la casa. Al final, un niño que aprende la lengua en la escuela debe saber cómo manejarla correctamente.

**TS1**

El primer importante es el método de enseñanza. El objetivo es enseñar a los niños a hablar correctamente en la lengua. Es importante practicar la lengua en casa y en el escuela. Es imprescindible aprender a hablar correctamente.

**TS2**

El segundo importante es la práctica. Es importante que los niños practiquen la lengua en casa y en el escuela. Es importante que los niños practiquen la lengua en casa y en el escuela.

**TS3**

El tercer importante es la práctica. Es importante que los niños practiquen la lengua en casa y en el escuela. Es importante que los niños practiquen la lengua en casa y en el escuela.

All the best!
Introduccion:

Many students face a lot of problems in their studies, especially in foreign language studies, where they fail to develop their speaking skills. One suggested strategy to help foreign language students is by making them fluent speakers and writers to avoid failing in their studies. Reading books and novels is the most important activity that should be done in their first levels. Practicing the foreign language with native speakers also helps them in a good way.

Finally, listening to music and dialogues in this language can improve their speaking skills. The foreign language student should follow this three-effect strategies to be a fluent speaker.

Opening strategy: Expository paragraph developed by cause and effect.

TS1
First of all, foreign language student need to read much books and novels because reading is the most important way to collect huge information and vocabulary.

TS2
In addition to this, practicing the foreign language with native speakers make the student fluent speaking.

TS3
Finally, listening to music and conversations of this language in an entertainment way benefits a lot on their speaking skills.

All the best!
information received by the senses.

To begin with, behaviourism is a learning theory that is based on the idea that behavior can be controlled or modified based on the antecedents or consequences of a behavior. Psychologists said that psychology is the science of behavior, and not the science of the mind. This means that behavior is to be described without reference to internal psychological processes or mental events. The sources of the behavior come from the environment, i.e., external events, and from the mind. Ivan Pavlov, a famous Russian behaviorist, said that humans learn through a response mechanism. He came to this idea through his experiment about his dog where he gave him food always at the same time and to ring bell to get his attention. Then, whenever he dog hears the ring of bell he comes to the same place. Pavlov proved his claim when he said: We learn through imitation, repetition, and reinforcement.

On the other hand, cognitivism focuses on how the information is retrieved, organized, stored, and retrieved by the mind. Cognitivists said that we learn using our mind and brain. The best example of this view is Jean Piaget’s cognitive development of children. In his study, Piaget shows that children construct a mental model of the world through four universal stages of cognitive development. In other words, psychologists are concerned with cognition, i.e., the active process of knowing. This means that learning happens after many mental processes that occur in the individual’s mind.

Finally, behaviorism and cognitivism were not the only learning theories that focused on how people learn. But there are also other theories that appeared as a reaction to these theories such as the Humanistic Theory and the Social/ Situational Theory. This means that there are different and various opinions about how learning happens. And how we get knowledge? Another topic.

good essay NaHa
In fact, relating to psychologists and based on their doctrine, the progress of knowledge learning is relevant to human behavior. Towards this end, some human behavior reflects human behavior and society, not focusing on the mental matter, which is against their beliefs in the field of study and that define the difference in point of view with cognitive psychologists. So they see that learners are affected by how others behave and may imitate it, that is called modeling.

According to pre-cognitive psychologists, the human mind is the device that receive knowledge and treat it. More explicitly, knowledge is transmitted by human senses. Passed through neurons in the brain where the operation of analytic occurs (Knowledge Treatment). So, meaning does exist in things but cannot be realized without the cognitive device. The knowledge acquisition differs from one brain to another depending on its capacity and maturity which control the development of long-term memory by means of the activity of brain, in different stages of learning.

All in all, the two trends may bring different points of view to complete each other to achieve an effective teaching approach.

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No cohesion in your essay
Superficial ideas
Introducción:

When the social starts to break some rules, and...
The development of technology and speed of internet...
it began some problems that occur in the society...

Among them, the problem is the addiction to social...

networking, people now have several problems in which we are...
control the user of the network, but what should do?

What can be the effect of the one generation after?

TS1

Adolescents to social networking, some young declare...
to the reason.

TS2

The people can adjust their personality.

When they addicted and become addicted

TS3

The problem faced is how to perform this away...
from this addiction.

All the best!
The twenty-first century is known as the mesmerizing century according to what does it bring to us concerning communication technology and instrument with its devices and tools such as Twitter, Facebook, etc., that attract many people and help them for their studies, work, and entertainment. But the problem is when these devices (not) seem just as means of entertainment no more. In this case, many times will be lost and many days will be passed for nothing. Just because these users do not care about this bad habit. For this addiction to social network is a very big problem which needs to be solved by:

- Making a daily plan, organizing time and creating new activities outside the world of the internet.

T.S. 1. First of all, people who are addicted to:

T.S. 2. First of all, people who went to avoid using social websites too much should have a daily plan which guides them to when they can connect and when they can’t.

T.S. 3. Second of all, their times should be organized seriously.

T.S. 3. Last but not least, creating new activities outside the world of internet is the best solution to forget about using social websites for 75%.
Introducción:

El pasado en este medio se vuelve a comunicar con cada uno, en todas las formas posibles. La gente quiere estar en contacto, estar en contacto con amigos, familia, amigos, y en muchas ocasiones, de diferentes países. Esto se debe a que la tecnología nos permite estar en contacto con personas de todo el mundo, independientemente de la distancia que nos separa.

En este sentido, es importante entender que la adicción a la tecnología no es un fenómeno exclusivo de los niños, sino que afecta a todas las generaciones. El uso excesivo de la tecnología puede llevar a problemas de salud mental, como estrés, ansiedad y depresión. Es importante tener en cuenta que la adicción a la tecnología no solo afecta la salud, sino que también puede dañar nuestras relaciones personales.

En conclusión, es fundamental estar conscientes de los riesgos asociados con el uso excesivo de la tecnología y tomar medidas para manejarla de manera saludable. Al hacerlo, podemos proteger nuestra salud mental y preservar nuestras relaciones personales.

TS1

Besos de los padres, mucha suerte, sueños, amor, mucho sobre un horario balanceado, principalmente

TS2

En adición a eso, los padres deben iniciarlos en el camino, enseguida, antes de que se vuelvan adictos a la tecnología.

TS3

El tiempo es como el hilo, si no te cortas, este hilo te cortará.

All the best!
Gestalt psychologists. Gestalt theories turned to individual mental processes and their concern was cognition, the act or the process of knowing. They dealt with human mental processes or "Cognitive Study" by famous fathers of Cognitive Views such as Jean Piaget, Kurt Koffka, and we can take for example Jean Piaget. Cognitive developmental he believed that children go through four universal cognitive developmental stages: Sensorimotor Stage (birth to 2 years), Preoperational Stage (2 years to 7 years), Concrete Operational Stage (7 years to 11 years), Formal Operational Stage (11 years and older) they really focused in the study of human mind. On the other hand behaviorism who believed that psychology is the study of behaviors and not the study of the mind "cognitive", and it created by famous fathers of behaviorism such as Edward Lee Thorndike, John Watson, and Ivan Pavlov, they focused on behaviorism and through experience in the society "human discipline".

All in all both behaviorism and cognitive psychology are very important aspects in the society and in the life of human beings both help people and students in their learning and teaching methods.
What is meant by the reality of learning? And which approach should we follow?

The prominent features of behaviorists are: Edward Lee Thorndike, Ivan Pavlov, Edward Fredrich Skinner, and John Watson. They believe that learning, through stimulus and response, reaction, they emphasized rationalism could replace it by behavioral means. They also believed that humans learn on a white paper and this experiment taught how what the worst Pavlov sickness can experiment. In a dog, give him food and in every time. By sound a bell to make him understand that it is time for food. After days, the dog came to the place of food directly after hearing the bell. But according to them, the animal

rational thought has no real in learning process and they found human beings animals which make psychologists attach their theories and give errors. Why they reject it? Later theories that depend most on observation (practice)

The prominent characteristics of cognitive psychologists are Kurt Koeb, Wolfgang Kohler, Robert Squires, and George Liang.

Their theories depend on the notion of cognition which assumes the act of process of knowing and they became the importance of internal thought and the role of the mind in acquiring knowledge and learning process. In the human being, it happens in the absence of mind and the process of thinking and that the human without mind and reason can't exist. Jean Piaget insist that each child passed through the same stages of learning but he didn't say tell us the exact time and period. But this theories believed most in abstraction thing which could be inferred by eyes so it was a point of weakness.

In summary, we cannot decide if we must follow any one of these approaches because the human are complementary elements and the result depends on one and exclude the other. The mind is very important aspect of human beings and the scientific method can give an exact result than the abstract thinking. At the same time, we can't imagine a human being without mind because everything should be logical in our behavior.

Avoid Subjectivity

Capitalization

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Cognitive Psychology as a reaction to behaviorism, Gestalt-Theory turned to the individuals' mental process.

On the one hand, the behaviorist deals with psychology as the science of behavior. People learn their way of thinking through experiences and the way they behave from their environment. Learning is a process where people perform behaviors and are strongly against the idea that people learn them to behave from their environment. People need to have and know how other people do and that was the environment of the child of the child. Not knowing will then be behavior as good or bad is the job of his parents to make bad differentiate from the good one.

On the other hand, we take the theory of Piaget's of cognitive development of children. He believe that children must go through 4 stages to have a better cognitive development. At the stage of sensomotor it included children from birth to 2 years. It deal with object permanence which means that the object still exist even if it is hidden and to require the ability of the mental representation. Then, we have stage two, preoperational from 2 to 7 years. It deal with children start to think about things symbolically and to use proper symbolic and dynamism to express all concepts and the origin of imagination and intuition are strong but the abstract thought still difficult. After that, we have concrete operational from 7 to 11 years. It deals with concepts attached to real concrete situations. Euclidean space and quantitative are understood and can be applied but not in independent concept. Finally, we have the last stage within the formal operational it includes children from 11 to adulthood. It deals with people having the ability to think about abstract concepts and logically test hypotheses.

But, views on how and how cognitive have it own view how he see psychology toward both are unique and so there tendency of discovery new way of how people thought and how people learn.
Learning is small word in it's form but it has huge meaning deeply. This meaningful concept makes debate between researchers who make a lot of tests and studies to know how the people learn and to discover more about it. Learning that means gain knowledge and skill in such subject in any study, this concept makes debate between the behaviorist and cognitive views. The behaviorist who define behavior as psychology as a science of behavior without grace of mind and that human being is influenced by environment which means external and most from the internal psychological and mental process, the end they behaviorists mean in learning eliminate every concept of mental new and replaced it by behavioral concept and give the behavior the huge concept in their view however, the cognition psychologists share a same trend views and a lot of criticism to behaviorists Gestalt cognitive say that people's cognition is rising their mind and the knowledge is depending on their cognition and their mental response, contrary to the behaviorists such as "Laws".

This is paragraph not an essay very simple but clear ideas you should have given examples
In the first hand, the behaviorists, under the leadership of Ivan Pavlov and John Watson, believed that psychology is the science of behavior, not the science of the mind, meaning that the source of behavior is the environment (external) and it is not in the mind (internal), i.e., it has no relation with the mind. However, a person's psychology is a result of his environment interaction. In addition, this person may develop his psychology up to his environment, not his mental development. So, the behaviorists have insisted on excluding any mental term and replacing it by a behavioral term.

In the second hand, the cognitivists, under the leadership of Jean Piaget, who believe that psychology is the mental process of the person. Cognition that is based on knowing. Whereas the psychology is existence in each individual mind and it is different from one person to another, i.e., it has no relation with external world (environment). As a reaction to the behaviorists, however, the cognitivist (Piaget) creates the stages of cognitive development to reinforce his ideas and to criticize the behaviorists.

To sum up, the differences between the behaviorists and cognitivists are typically, in a conflicting way. Each of them try to justify his ideas and beliefs about the psychology as a science, using it in teaching as a best approach.
The behaviorist psychologists, such as Edward Thorndike, John Watson, and Ivan Pavlov, said that learning deals with psychology and the environment. The emphasis was on the behavior and not the mind of the animal. Besides, they emphasized that many mental terms were employed to describe the behavior, and these should be eliminated and replaced with behavioral terms. In contrast, the cognitive psychologists, such as Jean Piaget, Kurt Koffka, and Robert Gagne, criticized the behaviorist view. They emphasized that human beings use their brains to construct knowledge from the information they receive through the senses.

Unorganized ideas

In all, both the behaviorist and the cognitive views have their different points of views about learning and how people learn. But, in reference to the information and the details, that was given of them, it says the cognitive view of the best choice and the most applicable view in dealing with the learning field.

Superficial essay
The terrific dreams journey in Japan.

My dreams journey that I spent on visiting the most famous place in Japan was really terrible still now I couldn’t forget that memorable feeling of calmness and quietness that was dubbed the Peace Memorial Park. Here every single angle told me a marvellous story about the location beside the precious historical book which requires to forget about past a white Egypt castle; Shirahige is its called by the citizen. Even it was built since the 14th century, but its charm remained shining beside the great Bending movement that reflects the religious traditional culture for Japanese.

The Peace Memorial Park in Hiroshma is the quite and calm place. It was built in 1920, surrounded by a shadowy green trees dancing smoothly in a musical melody produced by the slight wind and the fair current of the lake that was fully red in several days on 1945 because of the atomic bomb that wiped out many innocent civilians. However, the place witnessed a pitiful event every corner still recalls it, a great smolder on a golden kindle holder in the center of the lake refuses to submerge under the wonderful memory and it highlights the hole park with hope and much serenity to forgive and forget.

What makes the place more poetic was the shining bride with her peaceful white cloth surrounded with colorful roses placed the extant horizon with its soft breeze. It is the white Egypt castle, a historical castle belonging to the Westerner style of the 14th century; the roof was well elaborated with tiles, and wood well designed into windows with a different shapes, and doors well garnished with a brown and golden wood, the walls were
Appendix F

Consent Form

Dear participants,

You are invited to participate in a study entitled: The Role of Integrating Various Patterns of Activity Sequencing in Promoting Vocabulary and Grammar Knowledge. I am a PhD candidate and will carry out the study as part of the requirements for obtaining the PhD degree at The Department of English Language and Literature at Sétif 2 University. The purpose of my study is to investigate the role of integrating various patterns of activity sequencing in enhancing receptive and productive vocabulary sizes and grammatical accuracy at written sentence structure level.

I need to collect your class performance at different study stages as research data. Moreover, you will have to take tests (pre and post) and training activities in respect to the study needs. All information obtained for this study will remain confidential, and your personal data will not be revealed in any place or occasion.

Participation in this study will provide you with an opportunity to improve your vocabulary and grammar knowledge essential for university studies. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Ahlam BOUIRANE

Applied Linguistics PhD student

Participants’ Informed Consent Statement

I have read the above description of this research and I understand the conditions under which I will participate in this study. I voluntarily accept to participate in this study.

Date: .............................................

Name: .........................................

Signature: ....................................
Appendix G

Observation Checklist

Evaluation Scale

0 = this constituent is not observed
1 = this constituent needs improvements
2 = this constituent is observed
3 = this constituent is shown very well

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning Activities</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The activities are level-appropriate.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. The activities afford opportunities for learners to showcase their knowledge and skill in using the target language.</td>
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<td>3. The activities support the interests of learners.</td>
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<td>4. The activities are constructed using accurate, current and authentic language.</td>
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<td>5. The activities enable learners to provide and use their own answers, structures, forms and meanings.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. The listening activities are appropriate to improve the learner’s listening skills.</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. The speaking activities are appropriate to improve the learner’s speaking skills.</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. The reading activities are appropriate to improve the learner’s reading skills.</td>
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<tr>
<td>9. The writing activities are appropriate to improve the learner’s writing skills.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. The activities are communicative reflecting real-world situations through the use of authentic materials.</td>
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<td>11. The activities balance between the four skills and appeal to learners’ individual, paired and cooperative learning.</td>
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<tr>
<td>12. The activities encourage learners to participate in the lesson.</td>
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<td>13. The activities motivate learners to learn the language.</td>
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<td>14. The activities afford opportunities for learners to evaluate what they have learnt.</td>
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<tr>
<td>15. The timing of classroom activities considers the attention span of students.</td>
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<td>16. The teacher involves the students in deciding about the issues to discuss.</td>
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<td>17. The students have enough time to finish tasks.</td>
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<tr>
<td>18. The teacher employs non-lecture learning activities (small group discussion, student-led activities).</td>
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<tr>
<td>19. The learning activities directly address the objectives set for the lesson.</td>
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<td>20. The activities are extended to meet the needs of diverse and</td>
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</table>
exceptional students.

21. Students are actively engaged in meaningful learning activities when working in groups or individually.

22. The activities introduce cultural knowledge and stress on the links between language and culture.

### Instructional Methods

1. The lesson opening gained the class attention and established rapport.

2. The lesson opening outlined the theme and the purpose of the lecture.

3. The teacher maintains the flow of instruction through appropriately sequenced learning activities and smooth transitions.

4. The various parts of the lesson connect in a coherent way, building toward increased ability to understand or express meaning on a given topic.

5. The information delivery is paced to the needs of students.

6. The lesson key points are emphasized.

7. The teacher checks the understanding of students frequently.

8. The teacher explanations are clear to students.

9. The teacher encourages student participation and class discussion.

10. The examples, metaphors, and analogies are appropriate.

11. The teacher repeats challenging and unfamiliar information.

12. The teacher explains difficult content in more than one way.

13. The teacher provides clear and explicit instructions for activities.

14. The teacher demonstrates clearly transition from one activity to another.

15. The teacher uses informal assessment activities that assess student progress toward achieving the lesson objectives.

16. The teacher engages students through effective questioning techniques and verbal feedback.

17. The teacher periodically summarizes material addressed during class session.

### Vocabulary

1. Vocabulary is provided in accurate functional and/or cultural contexts.

2. Vocabulary load is appropriate for the intended learners.

3. The presented vocabulary is functional, thematic, authentic and practical.

4. There is continuity in the provision of concepts that facilitate continuous review of vocabulary.

5. Vocabulary activities facilitate vocabulary learning and revision.

6. The vocabulary items are highlighted through motivating and realistic situations.

7. The teacher uses visuals, concrete objects, hands-on experiences, and context to present and practice new vocabulary.

8. Teacher selects vocabulary items thoughtfully to be used beyond the lesson and generalized to other situations.

9. The teacher provides accessible synonyms and explanations.

10. Teacher checks for understanding of vocabulary concepts and items.
11. Teacher uses cumulative review of words learnt with new provided vocabulary items.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grammar</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Grammar forms and structures are presented and practiced through sufficient oral and written materials.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Grammatical sentence structure is clear and easy to understand.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Grammatical concepts are provided in a meaningful way.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Essential grammatical structures are presented to learners.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Grammar activities facilitate sentence structure learning and revision.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. The sentence structure points are highlighted through motivating and realistic situations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. The teacher explains the meaning of unfamiliar or new grammatical items</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. The teacher uses the unfamiliar or new grammatical items multiple times and in different contexts.</td>
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<tr>
<td>9. The teacher asks the students to predict correct grammatical sentence structure usage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. The students practice their new knowledge of grammar forms and sentence structure.</td>
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<tr>
<td>11. Grammar is taught as a tool for communication. It is not the focus or the goal of the course, unit, or lesson</td>
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</table>
Appendix H

Observation Transcript

Third Year Oral Expression Lesson Sample

Teacher: to start with, with me welcome our guest who is certainly one of your teachers, she is conducting a study. So last time we met we talked about some reading instruments and I suggested recommended that you read some of these instruments? it is better to prevent oppress and punish trafficking in persons especially women and children. This is one of the United Nations instruments combating forms of international crime and that was in the videos you saw about the beggars the beggars in the streets of London. Now the floor is yours, anyone to volunteer, Abdnacer the same faces again and again, Abdnacer ok. Short please!

Student: recently we saw in video begging in the streets of Britain and there were gipsy women begging in Britain and those gipsy women are considered criminals because they abuse Islam.

Teacher: your friend is saying these ladies and children are criminals, would you agree with him?

Would you say that these ladies are criminals?

Student: no I will tell you first of all they are abusing Islam as religion and Muslims as people.

Teacher: how can they abuse the Islam?

Student: because they were in Muslims clothes and the foreigner maybe thought that they are Muslims but they are not.

Teacher: the word used was disguising as Muslims.

Student: yes.

Teacher: it does not mean they are abusing Islam as you are saying and may call them criminals

Student: but it’s how to say? Imitating of the identity so as a Muslim’s speaking I think it is a crime, in addition to this they used they exploited
Teacher: I would like you to learn a little word, we do not say imitating identity, we say usurpation of identity, to take one’s and use another identity.

Student: sir recast

Teacher: sorry!

Student: recast.

Teacher: recast.

Student: yes.

Teacher: what does it mean recast?

Student: it’s how to say? It is انتحال in Arabic

Teacher: yes usurpation of identity.

Student: how to say?

Teacher: to mislead people, to use identity that is not yours, ok?

Student: yes, spell it please!

Teacher: usurpation of identity.

Student: in addition to this exploiting the children, I had some convention that USA provide that such crimes, it is not ethical to use this.

Teacher: it is not USA but UN, brilliant!

Student: yes they are considered as illegal acts and what makes me having for this video is that are also exploited by criminals those women.

Teacher: ah! Now I agree with you, the poor children and women are victims of criminals, it is an international crime and child exploitation, it is a kind of a crime, all this come under one fact, it is international criminality.

Student: there was a person who is from the right side, right wing.
Teacher: not side.

Student: can you say what is the right wing?

Student: pronationalist and nationalist?

Teacher: it means no political stands where you stand politically you are either rightist or leftist, in the right, or the left, or in the middle.

Teacher: you said that these acts does not create any problem in UK?

Student: but as for these persons we can say it can create many issues in Britain because first of all they are victims considered them as being victims and another point is that they make people do not know those real women what they are doing so they have a mercy on them and the money that they get they are not returning for themselves as a source of living but they are supporting criminal acts so this is why it is not logical to do this and I totally disagree with him because he does not analyze it as the real aim motivation for doing such things in Britain.

Teacher: thank you very much, thank you Abdenacer, ok. To check vocabulary, place for the new vocabulary, the new terms.

Teacher: Lematar?

Student: sir we didn’t listen to the video neither the first time neither this day because of the snow.

Teacher: because of the snow?

Student: yes because of the bad weather.

Teacher: you are blaming the bad weather, ok. Nouar.

Student: last time we have seen…

Teacher: new words new words or expressions.

Student: ah new words, United Nations conventions.
Teacher: you understand what is a convention? Agreement, understanding, protocol, it is a convention, UN convention on …. 

Student: on begging 

Teacher: there is no UN convention on begging by the way, it is child exploitation, child exploitation, human trafficking on begging , in fact all confess make begging as an unlawful act but begging in Algeria is unlawful yet people beg in our streets, it is unlawful, the police the authority turns a blind eye for social reasons, political reasons, we don’t know, yes what do we need to know is that the act of begging is against the law, it is punished by the law and if you exploit the child, it becomes a crime.

Student: sir please, can I ask you a question? 

Teacher: new words? 

Student: sir can we use the word convention to express the assembly or the meeting 

Teacher: ah yes, you are thinking of the convention in the US for example they use a convention the congress or a meeting.

Student: sir another new word, panoramic. 

Teacher: what does panoramic mean? 

Student: panoramic it means something that is up to day. 

Teacher: yes, it has another meaning in fact. 

Student: can I add ? it is an unbroken view of something. 

Teacher: it is having a total complete view of something, panoramic meaning you can see everything, it is different from a birds view, you only see a part. Something panoramic or panorama, this is the meaning of panorama and panorama it is a BBC program, OK.

Student: it has another meaning.
Teacher: another meaning which is?

Student: a meaning of a picture or series of pictures representing a continuous seen.

Teacher: yes yes, this is panorama. What is a minder then? Yes.

Student: I think that the person who have intelligence.

Teacher: a person who has intelligence, intelligent person...a minder is someone who is supervising someone else the lady for example shown on the program was supervising the children Alice’s mother was a minder, she was keeping close eye on them.

Student: observing.

Teacher: yes, minder m i n d e r.

Student: protect them.

Teacher: in a way yes to protect. He talked about crimes, begging is a crime and then he said petty crime, what is a petty, what is a petty crime.

Student: it is a small not important.

Student: little, secondary crime.

Teacher: like...can you name a petty crime?

Student: it means not causing ...not causing the death of someone.

Student: it is not very dangerous.

Student: law punish you when you.

Teacher: very good! it has something to do with the punishment you get. Petty crime for example when you steal the bag of someone of a person this is a petty crime because the punishment you will get is less than for example killing someone, shoplifting when you go to a shop and steal something it is a shoplifting it is a petty crime, it is an offence, the crime for example killing
someone is a crime threatening … No using a gun oh yes if you verbally threaten someone it is not a crime it is an offence, you will be punished but the punishment you get is not severe.

Student: is not?

Teacher: is not severe.

Student: sir the person who commits this little crime may be fined.

Teacher: yes it is a fine, usually you get a fine. Do all understand the meaning of a fine? Fine f i n e what is a fine? It is the money you pay yes when you have found guilty. You are charged with an offence, you stand before a judge, if you are convicted of that thing you will pay a fine you may be sent to prison, and if you are not found guilty, you will be acquitted means that the judge frees you there are no more charges against you and we call it an acquittal.

Student: how to write it?

Teacher: the spelling is a c q u i t t a l, you may be fined we say you are fined 3000 Algerian dinars because of that offence or you are sent to prison, you are jailed.

Student: sir

Teacher: yes

Student: what about misbehavior to be conducted when they do not obey the law

Teacher: ah, this is an offence, it is also called a fractionation to the law violation of the law, it is an offence meaning you do not respect the regulation for example the traffic regulation, it is an offence it is not a crime, it becomes a crime if you do not respect, if you violate the traffic regulation and kill someone then it is a crime. There is another word it is misdemeanor I’m not sure about its spelling it is a legal word, would you please check it up misdemeanor means an offence, it is also known as a delict the spelling is m i s e m e a n o r, this is a legal word meaning an offence, it is not serious as a crime misdemeanor, so it is a delict. The more
distinguishing between violation of the law, offence which is petty crime and offence an offence
we do not respect the traffic regulation. If you falsify a document this is a delict, this is less
important than a crime, in distinguishing between an offence misdemeanor and crime المخالفه
الجريمة و الجنحة falsifying a document is a delict, you may go to prison, but the sentence we talk
about the sentence, it has nothing to do with the grammatical sentence, the sentence is two years
and a fine, in a case of a crime, it may be life imprisonment, if you kill someone you be
sentenced to life imprisonment or to death penalty. You’re sent to the court the judge maybe the
jury in the case of a crime decide what punishment. First of all, they have to make sure that there
is evidence, and evidence is a proof in a legal home we do not talk about proof we talk about
evidence, if there is enough evidence against you then you are convicted of a crime and you will
be punished accordingly. You stand before a judge, first you are investigated by the police, the
police arrest you and say we believe that you are charged with child trafficking they send you
yes, they investigate you first then they sent you to a court you stand before a judge and they
read charges against you, you will have to defend yourself, in the case of the three gentlemen
they were acquitted yes because the judge was convinced that these people were they said we
are here just because we are gipsy we traffic no children, the judge was completely convinced
were free on bail it means you have to pay money for your freedom, you pay to get your freedom
they were free on bail. Now, the judge may find you guilty, you are convicted of that crime but
the judge will say I order that you go to prison you stay in prison for the period of three months,
but if you will have a suspended sentence you will be free but if you commit another crime
during that period I will send you to jail, in Arabic غير نافذ meaning you are convicted of that
crime and the punishment is three months of jail but it is a suspended sentence you will not go to
jail, during that period if you commit a crime you will be send to jail.
Student: what we call it in English?

Teacher: suspended sentence s u s p e n d e d……yes, your friend is asking about the word used when the police want to investigate to search your home, they need what we call search warrant w a r r a n t , who gives the search warrant?

Student: judge?

Teacher: no, not the judge but it is the public prosecutes, they give a search warrant a permission to enter to someone’s’ home and investigate it and make a search. A warrant is an order the judge for example may give an arrest warrant, an order to arrest. Public prosecutor they represent society. You wanted to ask a question?

Student: yes I just wanna ask you whether the children, the one from Romania belongs to those women or not, I mean they are their own children?

Teacher: some are some are not, some are some are not, yes this is the answer by the police he said: in some cases yes those women are moms, and in some other cases they are not, it is not always easy, they know how. Child exploitation children may be exploited by those gangs, yes gang a gang g a n g.

Student: sir, misdemeanor I found it.

Teacher: what is American and what is British? So misdemeanor is m i s d e m e a n o r, what does it mean?

Student: it is punishment.

Teacher: it is a delict. Misdemeanor has an Anglo Saxon origin and delict of a Latin origin, d e l i c t, Anglo Saxon equivalent misdemeanor. Ok, now commuter what is a commuter? The spelling c o m m u t e r.

Student: who commits?
Teacher: I know, a commuter not a committer, it is a commuter.

Student: it is a person who regularly travels from place to another typically to work.

Teacher: yes, you commute for example from El Eulma to Sétif if you live in El Eulma and you work in Sétif, I am I commuter, I commute everyday yes, I come from my home which is in El Eulma to Sétif where my job is, you are a commuter. You live in Boumerdes and work in Algiers so you commute, they use buses, coaches in order to go home, you commute it has nothing to do with commit, so commit the commission of a crime in legal language, the commission of a crime in legal language means to penetrate a crime, and it has nothing to do with commitment, I am committed you say I commit myself to do something meaning I oblige myself to do something. So commuters again are people who travel from place to another.

Student: for work.

Teacher: anther word it is the shuttler meaning to go from one place to another and doing this many times to shuttle s h u t t l e. Ticket in England when you buy a ticket in England you ask for a return ticket to travel from London to Glasgow to London but yet single ticket will be from London to Glasgow. Other words.

Student: day in day out.

Teacher: what does it mean?

Student: everyday.

Teacher: very good, everyday, daily without interruption. So we were talking about commuter. I wanted to make difference between the bus and the coach I mentioned, now what is important to know is that the bus is usually used for services in the town and the coach is used for long distances, if you are travelling from Sétif to Ghardaia you will take the coach, in London for example there is the bus station and there is the coach station, the bus station is where you take
an urban service, if you take from this university to the city center it is a bus, now if you are travelling from Sétif to Ghadaia it is a coach, it is good to know the difference between them, yes the coach station for long distances and the bus station for short distances and mainly for city service and where the taxi stops it is known as the taxi stand s t a n d. Ok they were denied of their childhood, what does it mean deny d e n y ? they were.

Student: prevented from their childhood?

Teacher: yes they were excluded, they were bereft, when something you no longer have you lose. Now childhood is the generic the general word, now for each meaning there is a name. You start as a fetus when you are born you are a new born, the journalist was talking about the lady holding her new born. The word I want you to learn I check up what is an infant in English? It is not like French enfant.

Student: child

Teacher: it is a person from two to five that is an infant, yes talking about the legal age minor is the person who has not reached the legal age in Algeria who has sixteen to eighteen. In the video then the journalist talked about the toddler, what is the toddler?

Student: a small child?

Teacher: a child who is making his first step.

Student: to walk

Teacher: when you start making your first steps you are a toddler, you grow up you become a teenager, what is a teenager, what is a teenager? Persons in their teens that’s your adolescence, then you grow up.

Student: mature.

Teacher: you are a grown up man, your mummy tells you: don’t be childish you are a grown up.
Student: childish it is an adjective.

Teacher: adjective yes. Ok, toddler, a teenager, a grown up and so on and so on until you reach seniority means you are old, it has nothing to do with senior. The psychologists talked about traumatic experience, what is the traumatic experience? What is the trauma t r a u m a? to start with it is another word used in medicine you will find it in legal language.

Student: sir, it’s an injury.

Teacher: it is an injury very good, you get a shock, they experience these poor children experience traumatic…eh it is a traumatic experience meaning they go through something they will not forget, it is ingrained in their minds, something they will not forget. Sorry!

Student: traumatic experience.

Teacher: the fact of begging, doing things they would not like an d so on and so forth this is very traumatic.

Student: especially for children.

Student: they never forget.

Student: it can be physical or emotional.

Teacher: yes, of course, physical, emotional psychological. What is a bread winner?

Student: it is the one who gets the money for his family.

Teacher: it is the person who brings the bread home, yes usually it is the father or the mother but in the case of those poor children, the children become the bread winner b r e a d winner. In English, you don’t take a photo of your bread but you win your bread by the sweat. So it is the bread winner, it is father or mother. Talking about the bread we say this is my bread and butter, they always go together it is a song. So in English you say this is my bread and butter this is my bread and butter. What do you do? Do not say what is your profession? Ask people for their
occupation and not for their profession. A lawyer talks about his or her profession, an accountant talks about his or her profession, but a teacher we do not say this is my profession, in English it is not a profession, ask them for their occupation and not for their profession ok? To find a way around the rules, what is a rule to start with? A rule is a regulation, the law is the generic term, ordinance you have the order, regulations that are ordered on me by minister or president, in the case of president it would be an ordinance, it can be an executive decree. You have to learn how to use precise words.

Student: traffic law?
Teacher: this is a regulation; the case of traffic law we say traffic regulation, it may be traffic code. So to find a way round the rules, in every law they know law, they know the regulations so they know the clues, so they always find a way to get around the rules to escape.

Student: but they know that begging is against the rules so how?
Teacher: when they stand before the judge they know how to defend themselves, how to get out of that situation, yes in judgment and that’s why so many times and again yes they are free and lawyers help them how to defend themselves, and they know how to get out of these rules, they know how to find way getting around the regulation. Alcapoly was charged with tax invasion it is in the video. Alcapoly was not charged with murder but he was charged with tax invasion, incidentally, money laundering was made under Alcapoly because he was the criminal, he made great money, in order to use that money he had to find a way of using that money. Money laundering is a crime, they clear dirty money using investing it in legal things to get money through corruption, invest it in legal business and that’s a way for you to clean your money as money laundering laundering. It is again another crime. He talked about a joint operation, what is a joint police operation? What does it mean? For example, right in English joint means
two people working together. Talking about business, a joint venture a joint venture meaning two companies working together, two companies working together. Joint means two, yes in our specific case, they cooperated, it is a joint cooperation. Sometimes the customs and the police and the gendarmerie work together to arrest criminals, this is a joint cooperation, two or more than two. In Algeria, our police depend on the ministry of the interior, in English it is not the interior but it is the home office, the equivalent it is the home office means the minister of the interior, in England it is the home office and the foreign office, office in English does not mean the office you know, it may also refer to a minister department the home office and the foreign office the exact translation of our المكتبية الداخلية ووزارة, in English, the ministry of the interior and local government, what is a local government? It has something to do with the affairs of the pros and cons, they have authority in Britain, they create their local government. So the home office and the foreign office, when they say home office they refer to this ministry of the interior or domestic affairs, only internal affairs.

Student: sir, how do we call the police who watch the frontier?

Teacher: yes, we call them they are also known as air and land frontier police because every country has its spaces, land space and air space, it can be sea board, land board, air board. Ok what else? Yes they were living in dire poverty, what is dire poverty?

Student: extreme.

Teacher: extreme yes when poverty is extreme, dire poverty you have a satellite dish but to have no roof but you have no roof, this is dire poverty, you have nothing to eat no roof over your head and so and so, this is dire poverty? What else? He talked about those people in the middle ages, yes you all understand the middle ages? Yes no? What is the adjective used for middle ages?
Medieval meaning it has something to do with the Middle Ages, medieval is the adjectival form for the Middle Ages.

Student: sir, you said modern slaving, it refers to begging?

Teacher: no, it has taken a new form, modern slaving has taken a new form, that’s to say talking about the same exploitation, man exploiting man but in a different way, man exploiting man but in a different way. He said: “proceeds of crime” proceeds what do proceeds mean? P r o c e e d s? it is the money, you collect money or charity, the proceeds will go to help the poor, it is the money you collect from begging or from charity, that money is known as the proceeds.

Teacher: he said I am trying pidgin Romania, what does it mean?

Student: again.

Teacher: I am trying pidgin Romania, what does it mean?

Student: means he does not know Romania and he is acquainting new words.

Teacher: no the spelling is: P i d g i n, what is pidgin in English? Pidgin is a mixture of words, Pidgin English and when it is high bookish English. I’m sure no one will understand you when you use English you use here. And we talk about porch language very prestigious.

Teacher: what time is it?

Student: it’s time.

Teacher: it’s time, you have not done your work by the way, I have done most of the job. Next time.

First Year Grammar Lesson Sample

Teacher: and what else? With better we use with better, those are the constructions.

Student: yes
Teacher: ok, thank you so much! We start with you? Ok. Hurry up. Your names, quiet please! So what is it?
Student: a dialogue between two friends talking about birthday celebration.
Teacher: two friends ok you start. Pay attention to the constructions, yes and try to speak up ok?
And be quiet be quiet.
Student: hi! How are you?
Student: I’m fine thank you, what about you?
Student: I’m ok.
Student: tell me Assia did you go to Rana birthday celebration?
Student: no, I didn’t
Student: why? What’s wrong with you?
Student: well, I had a terrible headache.
Student: you were not with us we spend amazing moments together, but you know what? Rana was so beautiful.
Student: I didn’t ask you how did you get there?
Student: well I wore a beautiful red robe then I had my hair cut, I had all the guests dancing.
Student: that’s amazing, I wish I were with you once you have repaired your car we go there.
Student: never mind whenever you want we go there.
Student: ok, so it’s time to say goodbye, see you later, I’ll do my best to come with you
Student: thank you
Teacher: thank you so much, that was nice, it was interesting. Ok, yes a dialogue. That was good concerning the constructions.
Student: I had
Teacher: raise your hands raise your hands.

Student: I had all the guests dancing.

Teacher: I had all the guests dancing, who said it? Besma, yes Besma? What does it mean?

Student: it means I encouraged the guests to dance.

Teacher: very good, very good. I had all the guests dancing it means I encouraged the guests to dance, or I persuaded them to dance. OK? I suppose this is the first use of have plus object plus present participle, when I said I have them talking to each other it means encourage them I persuade them to talk to each other, I had the guests dancing it means I encouraged I persuaded, as a result of my efforts they danced. Nice! Yes the other constructions? Yes Lilia

Student: I had my hair cut.

Teacher: I had my hair cut, the same thing, you had your hair cut ok it means you didn’t cut it yourself but you go to? Where do you go to cut your hair or to have your hair cut? The place Yes.

Student: hairdresser.

Teacher: hairdresser, thank you. What are the other constructions?

Student: once you have your car repaired.

Teacher: once you have your car repaired, it means someone who repairs the car because if you have repaired the car it means you did it yourself. Yes, thank you so much, that was great that was interesting, just asking you about I had my hair cut, and also with the other groups saying that I have my hair cut, what does it mean I have my hair cut, of course I know it’s not you someone else no no talking about the time, I’m talking about the time, what is the time? What is the time to say I have my car repaired I have my hair cut, what is the difference between I have
cut my hair and I have my hair cut, can you say what is the difference between those two sentences, yes Lilja

Student: I have my hair cut they didn’t cut them yet

Teacher: no no you have your hair cut it means

Student: I didn’t cut them yet

Teacher: not yet?

Student: yes

Teacher: and I have cut my hair it means, yes. I have cut my hair and I have my hair cut, now what’s the difference between them? We studied them. Ok, yes I have cut my hair it means it’s you doing the action, I have my hair cut it means someone to cut your hair, this is in general, comparing the sentences at the level of the tense, talking about the tense, is it the same tense? I have my hair cut and I have cut my hair.

Student: the same yes.

Teacher: yes, the same?

Student: I have cut my hair past

Teacher: and I have my hair cut it means?

Student: present

Teacher: what do you mean by present? It is not at the moment of speaking?

Student: yes.

Student: I have my hair cut it is not the present, I have cut my hair just now

Teacher: if you say I have my hair cut this is the past? And if you say I had my hair cut this is what? Ok, I have cut my hair it means happened recently it means short time, present perfect, I
have cut my hair, the results are in the present, now I have my hair cut, what does it mean? The
tense does it means the past? I have my hair cut.

Students: present

Teacher: present? What does it mean present? At the moment of speaking? Now? It means now?
If it is now we’re going to say I am having my hair cut. Yes

Student: is it the future?
Teacher: if it is the future I am going to say I will have my hair cut.

Student: near
Teacher: Near future? I use it with the present continuous, I’m having my hair cut or I’m going
to have my hair cut or I will have my hair cut.

Teacher: very good, so here you have negative obligation to talk about speed limits so here
mustn’t, this is your obligation you will not drive fast. Number six candidates to bring text books
into the examination rooms, yes Asma.

Student: candidates mustn’t bring text books into the examination rooms, this is a negative
obligation.

Teacher: very good here it’s a negative obligation; here it’s a rule a written order. Imagine that
the sentence or the exercise is insert the right auxiliary not just mustn’t or needn’t what can you
say also candidates not bring text books into the examination room.

Student: shouldn’t

Teacher: shouldn’t? ok, shouldn’t, what else? What are the other auxiliaries? Within this
example, someone someone what does it mean here candidates not bring text books into the
examination room? It means

Student: they are not allowed
Teacher: very good! they are not allowed, it means they

Student: may not.

Teacher: may not, very good! Candidates may not bring text books into the examination rooms.

We did examples like this with the exercise of may, candidates may not bring, it means they are not allowed, since I am talking formally formally which needs may not, of course I can use they cannot in the informal context but this is like an order. Seven, yes you bring an umbrella, it is not going to rain yes Amina.

Student: you needn’t bring an umbrella; it is not going to rain, absence of obligation, it is not necessary.

Teacher: very good absence of obligation, it is not necessary? And here we understand what? Did he bring or he didn’t bring?

Students: he didn’t bring.

Teacher: he didn’t bring, not yet he hasn’t brought, I say you needn’t bring, if he brought how to say it? you needn’t have brought. Ten: you do all the exercise, tense sentences will be enough, yes Salim.

Student: you needn’t do all the exercise; ten sentences will be enough, absence of obligation.

Teacher: very good! Means it is not necessary, why won’t be not necessary Salim?

Student: ten sentences will be enough.

Teacher: very good! Ten sentences will be enough so it won’t be necessary. And eleven: you hit the pie we can eat it cold. Yes Silia

Student: you needn’t hit the pie we can eat it cold. It’s Absence of obligation, it’s not necessary because we can eat it cold.
Teacher: yes it’s absence of obligation, very good! Yes twelve: a mother to child: “you tell lies” yes

Student: you must not tell lies, negative obligation.

Teacher: yes, negative obligation and you see here a mother to child, we’re talking about telling lies, this is not acceptable, so you mustn’t tell lies. Number thirteen: you turn on the light, I can see well

Student: you needn’t turn on the light, I can see quite well, absence of obligation.

Teacher: very good! Absence of obligation, it’s not necessary yes. You talk to other candidates during the exam yes.

Student: you mustn’t talk to other candidates during the exam, negative obligation.

Teacher: yes, negative obligation, during the exams you mustn’t talk but unfortunately you talk, you confess that you talk, good! Ok is it clear. Yes negative obligation it’s a negative obligation I have said that negative obligation is only one form we don’t have two forms, with speaker’s authority and external authority obligation has two forms: you have to you must, but with negative obligation use you mustn’t. So here it is mustn’t, for the justification you tell me it is a negative obligation, it necessary not to do something. Now, I hope that you differentiate between needn’t and mustn’t, mustn’t which is obligation and needn’t which is absence of obligation.

Now, let’s do the exercise of needn’t and don’t have to, and in this exercise, you are going to make difference between forms of absence of obligation, so this exercise is not just about absence of obligation, it’s absence of obligation and it’s also asking for obligation, it means it’s about the lecture of today or the lesson of today, so read the sentence and you tell me whether we put needn’t or we put don’t have to or doesn’t have to, ok? The first example, I asked you to do one, two and four, one, three and four ok let’s start with the first one, yes someone.
Student: he doesn’t have to go.

Teacher: yes, very good! What is it?

Student: external factor;

Teacher: first of all what is it? What does it express?

Student: absence of obligation.

Teacher: yes, very good! First of all you have to say absence of obligation, I told you that this exercise either you insert needn’t or don’t have to, but always remember that in this exercise you insert the right auxiliary. Now, are we talking about possibility? Are we talking about ability of can? Are we talking about permission with may and can? What is it exact? Are we talking about obligation? It is not necessary what does it mean it is not necessary? It means absence of obligation, it means I should analyze the sentence following some steps, it is not necessary, what does it mean it is not necessary? It means there is no obligation, there is no obligation it means absence of obligation. So this is the first step, you decide what is it exactly, is it permission? Is it ability? Obligation? Absence of obligation? What is it exactly? Just the subject duty? Advice? So here, it is not necessary it means I’m talking about absence of obligation, for the second step, you decide since I’m talking about absence of obligation I have two forms: I have needn’t for the speakers authority on one hand and I have don’t need to or don’t have to, it means I come back to read the sentence again and decide whether it is not necessary because the speaker who has authority because it was imposed by the speaker himself or it is not necessary because I have some external factors, I have some external obligation or authority that make it unnecessary for me to do something, that’s I am not obliged to do something, why I’m not obliged? It means always ask the question: why he is not obliged to go to work, why he is not obliged since it is not necessary, why he is not obliged to go on working? Is it because of the speaker authority? Is it
because of someone he told him” it’s not necessary for you to go” or do we have some external factors, authority that obliges him or makes it unnecessary to go, what is the external factor?

Students: the retiring age.

Teacher: very good! The retiring age, it means the retiring age will not oblige him to go on working, it means the retiring is the external factor, I’m not talking about the speaker’s authority. Is it clear? So when you justify you say: present absence of obligation or absence of obligation in the present. Look here, you have to analyze this is the most important, this is the starting point, the starting point is to decide: is it permission? What is the objective behind this sentence? Why I am saying this sentence? To express what? Is it permission? Is it ability? Is it possibility perhaps? Or is it possibility with can? What is it exactly? It is not necessary; absence of obligation, now it it speakers authority or external authority? It is external authority, now the last step is to give the form and of course if I give the form I have to find the tense, is it future? Is it present? Is it past? Now, if it is not necessary it means the present, it is the present it means he doesn’t have to, he doesn’t need to, you have the choice both are correct and when you justify you say: absence of obligation in the present, but this is not enough you have to say with external authority, what is this external authority?

Students: the retiring age.

Teacher: the retiring age. Is it clear for the first example? If it is not clear say it. Ok, the second one: was it necessary to wait a long time for your bus? Yes Roufaida

Student: did you have to wait a long time for your bus? It’s absence of obligation external factor

Teacher: present or the past?

Student: it depends
Teacher: very good! I said in the past, the distinction disappears, it’s like obligation, if you remember obligation, I said if you have obligation, I said if you have past obligation, we don’t state speaker’s authority nor external authority, the same thing absence of obligation, if you find it in the past you just write absence of obligation in the past, no it is not absence of obligation, wasn’t necessary for you what is it Roufaida

Student: asking for obligation

Teacher: this is asking for obligation, here it’s not absence of obligation because I thought the example it wasn’t necessary, was it necessary for you? It means I am asking whether there was obligation in the past or there wasn’t, whether it was obligatory for you or it wasn’t, I am asking about obligation in the past, and here we don’t say external authority, we say asking for obligation in the past and here you have choice to say did you have to or did you need to.

Number three: it is not necessary for me to water my tomato plants every day, Houda.

Student: I don’t have to water my tomato plants every day. It is absence of obligation external factor.

Teacher: what is the external factor?

Student: tomato plants don’t need water every day.

Teacher: ok. You remember obligation, what did I say about obligation, in obligation I have must and have to. I needn’t I don’t have to it means it’s not clear someone who said it is not necessary or you think that it is not necessary, but when you find that the action or there is a f habit you go for have to because here there is every day we use every day, I don’t have to water absence of obligation plus habit, here you needn’t say speaker’s authority or external authority, it’s not necessary ok? You just say because we have habit and with the pronoun I, with the other pronouns, it will be in the context whether speaker’s authority or external authority, with I was it
your decision or external, it was not necessary like she said tomato doesn’t need to be watered every day, you see. Ok, number four: it will be necessary for them to get up early to go out to work every day, yes Salim.

Student: they will have to get up early to go out to work every day.

Teacher: what is it?

Student: future obligation.

Teacher: ok, others have you got another answer or thinking?

Student: they must to get up early to go out to work every day?

Teacher: they must? First of all, what is it exactly here? It is

Students: obligation.

Teacher very good! This is obligation, this is not absence of obligation, look it will be necessary for them, what does it mean it will be necessary? It means an obligation, it will be necessary it means future obligation, now the question is to express future obligation I have two forms I have must and I have to, yes Salim you chose have to, why? Why we say they have to get up early and not they must yes Salim.

Student: there is no speaker’s authority

Teacher: there is no speaker’s authority, so what do we have? Yes, there is no speaker’s authority.

Student: external authority

Teacher: what is the external authority?

Student: we go out to work every day, we must go to work
Teacher: get up get up, the obligation is getting up early, I taught you to analyze, the question is it will be necessary, yes it’s obligation we ask the question why? Why are they obliged to get up early? Why they are daily obliged? Why?

Student: to work

Teacher: what oblige them, this is the speaker’s authority?

Student: condition

Teacher: very good, condition of work, the nature of work, work, it means the work which obliges them to get up early, it’s the work the nature of their work, it means the nature of their work obliges them to get up early, this type of work requires workers to get up early, you see it is not like they are obliged to get up early because a speaker’s authority obliges them because it was my obligation, they must get up early, they will be obliged this is the meaning they will be obliged to get up early, why they will be obliged to get up early? Because of work, the nature of their work obliges them to get up early it means they will have to, the justification is future external obligation and between brackets the external obligation is the work the nature of their work. Number five, number six sorry: it wasn’t necessary to walk, he took us in his car, yes hurry up hurry up, it wasn’t necessary what does it mean? If you find out the meaning of it wasn’t necessary then the other steps, yes Salim.

Student: we didn’t need to walk; he took us in his car.

Teacher: yes Salim what is it?

Student: absence of obligation in the past.

Teacher: very good! Absence of obligation in the past, it wasn’t necessary what does it mean it wasn’t necessary? It means there was no obligation, absence of obligation, now what is the tense?
Students: the past.

Teacher: I told you about the past, if you have the past we don’t think about speaker’s authority or external authority, I said the distinction disappears, it means we just say past obligation or past absence of obligation or asking for obligation in the past, if it is in the present or in the future here we have to distinguish. Number seven, is it clear so far? Yes Amina.

Student: we didn’t have walked

Teacher: we didn’t have walked? I said we didn’t have walked? Unfortunately, I don’t have the marker with me, we didn’t have walked, what is this? which tense? We didn’t have to walk, yes Amina this is not English we didn’t have walked what is this?

Student: I thought about the action, it was not necessary.

Teacher: yes we didn’t have walked. Either you say we needn’t have walked or we didn’t have to walk, either this one or this one, this is not English, tell me tell me.

Student: it was not necessary.

Teacher: we needn’t have to walk, I asked you in lecture, I told you what’s the difference between didn’t have to, didn’t need to and needn’t have done something, didn’t have to it means absence of obligation in the past it wasn’t necessary and didn’t have walked it means also action which is not necessary. I’m talking about the action it wasn’t necessary in the past then what’s the difference between needn’t have walked and didn’t have to walk, it means it wasn’t necessary it means absence of obligation, I told you about those two forms I said the difference is what is the difference? Very good! I needn’t have walked, it means I walked the action was performed and it was not necessary that was unnecessary, it means I wasted my time this is the meaning I walked and that wasn’t necessary but we didn’t have to walk it means we didn’t walk we wanted to walk but we didn’t walk, why? Because in the example he took us in his car, it
 means yesterday, we didn’t have to walk, what does it mean didn’t have to walk it means we didn’t walk, the action wasn’t performed but if I say we needn’t have walked actually the action was performed. We didn’t have done this is not English, it has nothing to do with English, which tense? It has no meaning, so here I come back to the sentence, it wasn’t necessary to walk; he took us in his car. As it wasn’t necessary it means absence of obligation and since it is absence of obligation which tense? The past so there is no speaker’s authority or external authority. This is absence of obligation in the past and we didn’t have to walk it means they didn’t walk they were not obliged to walk and the action wasn’t performed why? Because he took them in the car.

Number seven: my employer said “I shan’t require you tomorrow “ yes what’s the problem? You don’t understand the sentence, yes someone, I’ll try to explain your answer. Yes, Samia.

Student: you needn’t come tomorrow? Absence of obligation, speaker’s authority

Teacher: what is the tense?

Student: future

Teacher: future you should mention all those, ok do you agree with her? She said you needn’t come tomorrow, others what do you think? I shan’t what does it mean I shan’t?

Students: shall not

Teacher: very good! I shall not I shan’t require need you I shan’t require you it means I will not need you, so here this is what? Absence of obligation, I shan’t require it means I won’t need you, it means absence of obligation, it won’t be necessary for you to come tomorrow this is the meaning, now the second step: this is the future

Student: yes
Teacher: now for the future, I have two forms: I have needn’t and I have won’t have to or won’t need to, what is the correct one? Is it speaker’s authority? Is it imposed by the speaker himself? Or are we talking about external authority?

Students: speaker’s authority.

Teacher: my employer said, there are inverted commas or direct speech, here we have direct speech, we have quotation, my employer said “I shan’t require you tomorrow” it means you needn’t come tomorrow, very good! And for the justification you say: absence of obligation in the future plus speaker’s authority because if it is absence of obligation in the future this is not enough, it doesn’t justify the use of needn’t because I can ask you the question: why you use needn’t and not won’t have to? Why needn’t? Because I have speaker’s authority. Ok, number eight, is it clear? Number eight: it is never necessary for me to work on Saturdays, yes.

Student: I didn’t have to work on Saturdays.

Teacher: I didn’t? Why? Here, the first step you decide that it is absence of obligation, or you decide that it is obligation, the second step is the tense, then think of speaker’s authority because I observe that you jump directly to decide is it speaker’s authority? Is it external authority? You say I didn’t have, why you say I didn’t? I’m talking about the tense, why you use the past.

Student: because on Saturdays

Teacher: because on Saturdays? Does it mean the past? Am I talking about previous Saturdays? Look here, it is written it is not it was, it is it is what?

Student: present

Teacher: present so what do I say if it is the present?

Student: I don’t have to
Teacher: I don’t have to very good! Because we have Saturdays it is not like he decided not to work himself Saturdays because this is the weekend.

Student: external factor

Teacher: no no there is no need to say, there is on Saturdays so absence of obligation plus habit because I have all Saturdays. Number nine: when I am eighteen, it won’t be necessary to live at home if I don’t want to. Yes someone for number nine. Yes Silia.

Student: when I am eighteen, it won’t have to live at home if I don’t want to, absence of obligation in the future plus external authority.

Teacher: yes very good! Very good! Yes I won’t have I won’t be obliged, it won’t be necessary why? Because of age eighteen which is an external authority? Here we have future absence of obligation plus external authority which is the age of eighteen. Number ten: new teacher to his class: “it isn’t necessary for you to call me sir, call me Bill”. Yes

Student: new teacher to his class: “you don’t need to call me sir, call me Bill absences of obligation present speaker’s authority

Teacher: repeat the answer, I didn’t hear

Student: absence of obligation

Teacher: no no repeat the form

Student: “you needn’t call me”

Teacher: “you needn’t call me”

Student: yes

Teacher: what did you say at first?

Student: “you don’t need to”
Teacher: you see? You needn’t, that’s why I asked you to analyze to start analyzing: is it the present? Then it is speaker’s authority, speaker’s authority I have to move my answer you needn’t, very good! Very good! Because here I have teacher to class, so you have here speaker’s authority because the teacher who has the authority over his class, “you needn’t call me sir, call me Bill” Present absence of obligation plus speaker’s authority. Eleven: will it be necessary for us to report this accident to the police? We did it in the lecture, so let’s repeat it again, yes Roufaida.

Student: will we have to report this accident to the police, asking for obligation in the future, external factor the police

Teacher: external factor why external repeat what’s the answer.

Student: will we have to report this accident to the police? It’s asking for obligation in the future and it’s external factors.

Teacher: yes, very good! As I said here it won’t be necessary, why? Because this question is not addressing the speaker’s authority because if it was addressing the speaker’s authority it would be addressed to the police and here in the sentence to the police I understand that we are not addressing the sentence to the speaker’s authority but we are talking about external authority, are you obliged to report or will we be obliged to by whom by the police. Ok, twelve, yes someone others, Amira.

Student: you needn’t to pay the whole price at once.

Teacher: not you needn’t to, you needn’t verb, you needn’t pay not you needn’t to pay, yes Amira why you needn’t pay?

Student: because there is no obligation.

Teacher: no obligation you mean.
Student: it is not necessary.

Teacher: yes, it is not necessary absence of obligation you’re not required to it means it’s not necessary yes. Why you say you needn’t and not don’t need? Just like this? Yes other.

Student: you don’t require to pay all the price at once.

Teacher: you don’t need

Student: you don’t have to pay it’s absence of obligation in the present external factor.

Teacher: why external factor?

Student: because the system

Teacher: yes very good! It’s external factor, it wasn’t his decision it’s not you needn’t you see Amira, don’t tell me I say needn’t because like this, you tell me you needn’t because it is the speaker’s authority, it means you are not following, if you tell me there is no authority they will not say needn’t because needn’t I use it with the speaker’s authority. Ok, thirteen yes.

Student: it wasn’t necessary

Teacher: it wasn’t necessary so what do I say? Yes, I didn’t need it means absence of obligation in the past. Number fourteen: it isn’t necessary to buy a license for a bicycle in England yes.

Student: we needn’t to buy

Teacher: you needn’t? I said be careful with the ‘to’, it means I am repeating over and over again, you said you needn’t to buy.

Student: we needn't buy a license for a bicycle in England

Teacher: we needn’t buy, yes why we needn’t buy?

Student: absence of obligation

Teacher: yes what is it? Yes Roufaida.
Student: we don’t need or we don’t have to buy a license for a bicycle in England. Absence of obligation in the present external factor because the bicycle in England don’t need the license.
Teacher: yes, say it.
Student: we don’t have to buy a license for the bicycle in England, absence of obligation in the present external factor.
Teacher: what is the external factor? Yes, the key word is England, to buy a license for a bicycle in England, it means because we are in England so that makes it unnecessary it was not like we needn’t because we decided that we saw that it wasn’t necessary, no we don’t have to because we are in England, you see? It means the English law or system. What time is it? Is it time? Is it clear absence of obligation? Speaker’s authority
Student: sentence five.
Teacher: yes the sentence five: we were not required to open, we were not required it means we didn’t need because we talk about need as an ordinary verb and need as an auxiliary verb it means to require for example you say I need a pen or it may be used with the infinitive I need you to tell me something, yes.
Student: sentence number sixteen
Teacher: sixteen? Yes the example number sixteen: is it necessary for people to go everywhere by boat in Venus? Yes, someone you want this example
Student: I don’t understand I will try
Teacher: yes you try of course.
Student: do people have to go everywhere by boat in Venus? Asking for obligation in the present because of external authority.
Teacher: what is the external authority?
Student: the nature of this place.

Teacher: very good! It means the nature of this place requires using boat so this is why it is external authority, it is not like must people go everywhere by boat it means someone says, no do they have to? are they obliged? Why are they obliged? Because we are talking about Venus the nature of this place requires that, your answer is correct ok? So let’s stop it here, this is absence of obligation, you may do the rest of the examples they are the same thing. Now for next time you do cant and needn’t with the perfect infinitive you try with forty six, we haven’t studied must, I’m going to teach it next week but I spoke about needn’t and can’t, needn’t it is unnecessary action and can’t when talking about negative deduction, what does it mean negative deduction? It is impossible that something happened in the past, I am sure that something didn’t happen in the past this is can’t plus perfect infinitive, if you didn’t understand can’t I am going to explain it next week must and can’t with deduction at least you try with the examples that use needn’t plus perfect infinitive. OK, thank you so much and see you next week.

**Second Year Grammar Lesson Sample**

Teacher: quiet, so simple present right? to past simple.

Student: why past simple?

Teacher: Why? It is a rule.

Student: you said that he is happy.

Teacher: here we said if the reporting verb is in the present or the future we don’t make any changes in the tense, here I am happy he says that he is happy in the present he says in the present now if you have the reporting verb in the past we may make changes.

Student: you said from the present simple to the past simple.
Teacher: the present when we are reporting we report it in the past, here it was in the present and when we report it it was in the past. Present continuous to past continuous, the present perfect simple past perfect simple, present perfect continuous past perfect continuous, past simple.

Student: past simple.

Teacher: no past simple, past continuous?

Student: past perfect continuous.

Teacher: What about past perfect?

Student: Past perfect continuous.

Teacher: Now if you have the form going to?

Students: Conditional?

Teacher: Now you have future with going to in the past was going to. Now the future shall or will it will be?

Students: would?

Teacher: yes it go to conditional.

Student: shall?

Teacher: in offers like we say shall we go? shall we start?

Student: lets? It is the same?

Student: would?

Teacher: No

Student: for example?

Teacher: for example he said “shall we go?” when we report he said that.

Student: if we should go.

Teacher: now must must in the past.
Student: had to.
Teacher: had to and can?
Student: could.
Teacher: good! Remember that you apply that changes only when you have the reporting verb in the past. Here past simple and past continuous most of the time they said alright, we said we move to past perfect past perfect continuous past simple past simple but most of the time they said past simple past simple past simple past continuous. Alright! we have three sentences with different modals.
Student: you said that we don’t.
Teacher: sorry! Two and three.
Student: he said that he could drive the car.
Teacher: can becomes could.
Student: she said that he might.
Teacher: so we change may with might. What’s wrong?
Student: he said that he had to work hard.
Teacher: what are the modals that change in the reported speech?
Student: could.
Student: have to.
Teacher: alright. The first sentence, they said that.
Student: they said.
Teacher: they said that they they said they would apply.
Student: he said that he could.
Teacher: he said that we change are with were.
Student: she said that it might rain.

Student: he said to me but I want to eat.

Student: she said that she might.

Teacher: come in. Now change in the pronouns. It becomes either he or she depending on the reporting verb, with she we use she, she says it means her.

Student: if the reporting verb is the present?

Teacher: yes, it’s a rule. We move to something else, right? We try to report three sentences with if.

Student: if he

Teacher: he

Student: he said that

Student: he said to me to have it

Teacher: yes yes or no? He asked me to help him. Imperative sentences we have to introduce new verbs to ask, he asked me, we give other verbs for the first sentence: Order is possible, we said asked is possible too

Student: to request?

Teacher: Ordered him.

Student: He said to him not to help me.

Student: He ordered me not to.

Teacher: Yes it’s an order here next; easy one, try.

Student: The teacher said the student not to waste their time.

Teacher: Yes oh here, what is this?

Student: Advice.
Teacher: So we can use.

Student: To advice.

Teacher: He advised his student not. Next one.

Student: The doctor advised me.

Student: Not advised ordered.

Teacher: Advised his student, or ordered me we don’t have choice.

Student: The teacher said to him to go out.

Teacher: The teacher ordered him to go out. So in imperative sentences we have to add other verbs. We still have time? Alright, have we done the time changes? Now to then? Ok. We write this part then we go to, Alright! Stop laughing. Which one?

Student: The first one.

Teacher: “We are going to make white few cat box” the manager the director said.
Appendix I

Instructions of Tests Administration to Teachers

These are two vocabulary size tests and a grammar accuracy test to be administered in three sessions. Please administer each test in a different session. The students will need 50-60 minutes to answer each test, but give them as much time as they need. Please make sure that the students are not using dictionaries or helping each other. Do not help them or explain the instructions to them.

You are not going to score the tests. The researcher will score the tests and you will be given the results.

Thank you!
Appendix J

*Learners' Technical Cards*

Gender:
- Male  □
- Female □

High school study stream:
- Literary □
- Scientific □

Learning preference:
- a. Vocabulary learning □
- b. Grammar learning □

My vocabulary level is:
- Excellent □
- b. good □
- c. below average □
- d. average □
- e. poor □

Average number of hours spent in learning vocabulary outside the classroom weekly:
- a. 1-5 hours □
- b. 5-10 hours □
- c. More than 10 hours □

My grammar level is:
- Excellent □
- b. good □
- c. below average □
- average □
- d. poor □

Average number of hours spent in learning grammar outside the classroom:
- a. 1-5 hours □
- b. 5-10 hours □
- c. More than 10 hours □
Appendix K

Teachers’ Technical Cards

Gender:

Male  ☐

Female  ☐

Qualification Held

PhD degree ☐  Magister degree ☐  Bachelor degree ☐

Number of years spent in English teaching

1-5 ☐  6-10 ☐  11-15 ☐  16-20 ☐  21-25 ☐  26-30 ☐  31-35 ☐

Numbers of years spent in teaching English at university

1-5 ☐  6-10 ☐  11-15 ☐  16-20 ☐  21-25 ☐  26-30 ☐  31-35 ☐

Numbers of years spent in teaching English outside university

1-5 ☐  6-10 ☐  11-15 ☐  16-20 ☐  21-25 ☐  26-30 ☐  31-35 ☐

Subject(s) covered along your teaching career

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

Present Subject(s) taught

......................................................................................................................................................
Appendix L

Vocabulary Syllabus

Unit One: Medicine

Lesson One: Medical Equipments

PAS: The Deep end strategy pattern

Objectives

1. The students will be able to practice vocabulary of medical equipments.
2. The students will be able to describe medical treatment.

Stage one: Production

Activity One: tell of a personal experience where you were very sick; state the illness, describe the symptoms, your visit to the doctor (name his specialty) and his/her counseling, and what medications you took.

Activity two: with your partner, choose one of the following situations to prepare a conversation between the participants in the first situation, and to describe the place and people in the second situation.

   Situation One: At the doctor’s
   Situation Two: In the hospital

Stage Two: Presentation

The students watch a video “The doctor and the patient” (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=YKvAaiGnldY), and discuss the following questions:

1. What was your impression on the first time you visited a doctor? Why?
2. How would you describe a doctor-patient relationship?
3. Do you think that doctors can learn from their patients? How? Give examples.
4. What is the best advice you got from a doctor?
Stage three: Practice

Activity One: Look at the drawings below and write the correct numbers 1-20 next to the following words. (Adopted from Watcyn-Jones, 1995, p. 22)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>adhesive tape</th>
<th>ointment</th>
<th>thermometer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bandage</td>
<td>pill/tablet</td>
<td>Tweezers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capsule</td>
<td>plaster cast</td>
<td>walking frame</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cotton wool</td>
<td>safety pin</td>
<td>walking stick</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crutch</td>
<td>sling</td>
<td>Wheelchair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hearing aid</td>
<td>stethoscope</td>
<td>X-ray</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(hypodermic) needle</td>
<td>stretcher</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Activity two: Use the words in the previous activity in sentences which state the use of the listed medical equipments. *(Designed)*

Activity three: (adopted from Watcyn-Jones, 1995, p. 29)

*Fill in the missing words in the passage below. Choose from the following:*
At the doctor's

Last week I phoned my (1) ............... to make an (2) ............ to see her, as I had been feeling a bit under the weather recently. When I arrived at her ............... (3), there were only two other people in the ............... (4). I gave my name to the ............... (5) and sat down to await my turn. Fortunately, I didn’t have to wait long. The doctor asked me what was wrong, so I told her my ............... (6), namely that I had been feeling very tired and often had difficulty in breathing. She told me to lie down on the ............... (7) and gave me an ............... (8). First, she felt my ............... (9), then she took ............... (10), which was a bit high. Next she took my ............... (11). It was 37.9°C. finally, she listened to my breathing through her ............... (12).

She didn't think there was anything seriously wrong with me- I was just a bit run down. So, she wrote out a ............... (13) for some ............... (14) which she said would make me feel better. She also advised me, as she always did, to stop smoking and reminded me that if I didn’t, then one day I might get ............... (15). As usual, I promised to try.

Lesson Two: Medical professions

PAS: Task-based pattern

Objectives

1. The students will be able to describe the anatomy of the human body
2. The students will be able to distinguish between the different medical professions.
3. The students will be able to practice vocabulary of medical professions.
Stage one: Pre-task

Which first aid techniques will you use in the situations stated below? (Situations adopted from Watcyn-Jones, 1995, p. 31)

- had fainted
- had hiccups
- had a hangover
- had swallowed a coin or a paper clip
- had frostbite

During task

The class is divided into two main groups. Each group is divided into sub-groups of 5-6 students to read the text on medical professions, and write a summary about it.

Text 1: (adopted from www.who.int/hrh/statistics/workforce_statistics and www.aamc.org)

Medicine offers a vast variety of career choices. Most physicians treat patients full time, while others also teach, conduct research, manage hospitals and clinics, and develop health care policy. There is no single road to becoming a doctor, but most medical career paths share key characteristics. Doctors are often considered in two main groups: primary care physicians (sometimes referred to as generalists) and specialists.

The term primary care refers to medical fields—usually family medicine, general internal medicine, and general pediatrics—that cover the most common health problems.

**Generalist medical doctors** (including family and primary care doctors) diagnose, treat and prevent illness, disease, injury, and other physical and mental impairments and maintain general health in humans through application of the principles and procedures of modern medicine. They plan, supervise and evaluate the implementation of care and treatment plans by other health care providers. They do not limit their practice to certain disease categories or methods of treatment, and may assume responsibility for the provision of continuing and comprehensive medical care to individuals, families and communities.
Specialists (or subspecialists) concentrate on particular types of illnesses or problems that affect specific tissues or organ systems in the body. These doctors may treat patients with complicated illnesses who are referred to them by primary care physicians or by other specialists. Specialist medical doctors diagnose, treat and prevent illness, disease, injury and other physical and mental impairments using specialized testing, diagnostic, medical, surgical, physical and psychiatric techniques, through application of the principles and procedures of modern medicine. They plan, supervise and evaluate the implementation of care and treatment plans by other health care providers. They specialize in certain disease categories, types of patient or methods of treatment, and may conduct medical education and research activities in their chosen areas of specialization.

Text 2: (adopted from http://blog.udemy.com/different-types-of-doctors/)

When you think of a doctor, what image comes to mind? For most of us, the connotation of “doctor” brings forth the visual of a man or woman in a white lab coat, chart in hand, smiling as he or she enters the room to complete your annual check-up. However, that particular doctor, the family physician, represents only one of the countless areas in which medical professionals work. In fact, there is a specific type of doctor for almost every major system located in the human body. Listed below are just ten of the dozens of examples:

1. Audiologist
   Audiologists specialize in ear related issues, particularly with regard to hearing loss in children. These doctors work with deaf and mute children to assist in their learning to communicate. They typically work in hospitals, physicians’ offices, audiology clinics, and occasionally in schools.

2. Anesthesiologist
Anesthesiologists study the effects and reactions to anesthetic medicines and administer them to a variety of patients with pain-killing needs. They assess illnesses that require this type of treatment and the dosages appropriate for each specific situation.

3. Endocrinologist

Endocrinologists specify in illnesses and issues related to the endocrine system and its glands. They study hormone levels in this area to determine and predict whether or not a patient will encounter an endocrine system issue in the future.

4. Epidemiologist

Epidemiologists search for potential diseases that may crop up and cause a great deal of problems for a population and look for vaccinations for current terminal diseases, such as cancer and HIV/AIDS.

5. Neonatologist

Neonatologists care for newborn infants to ensure their successful entry into a healthy and fulfilling life. The focal point of their examinations is on premature and critically ill infants who require immediate treatment at the risk of fatal consequences.

6. Obstetrician

Obstetricians work in a particular area of gynecology that focuses on neonatal care and childbirth. They also perform other operations related to the female reproductive system including c-sections, hysterectomies, and surgical removal of ovarian tumors.

7. Oncologist

Oncologists focus on the treatment and prevention of cancer in terminal and at-risk patients. They offer such treatments as examination and diagnosis of cancerous illnesses, chemotherapy and radiotherapy to destroy cancer cells in the body, and follow-up with survivors after treatment successes.

9. Podiatrist
Podiatrists work on and study ailments that afflict the feet and ankles of patients. They are often referred to a “foot doctors” and treat such afflictions as athlete’s foot, calluses, nail disorders, and other foot injuries and infections.

10. Rheumatologist

Rheumatologists, similar to Allergists, diagnose and treat allergies, as well as autoimmune disorders. However, unlike their Allergy-focused neighbors, these doctors also treat joint and tissue problems and diseases that afflict the immune system.

These health care professionals put a lot of time and effort into getting degrees in these specialized areas. So, the next time a kid tells you they want to be a doctor, make sure to ask, “Which kind?”

Discussion

After reading the texts, the students from each group discuss their ideas and prepare their summaries for presentation to the entire class.

Post-discussion

The two groups select their spokespersons who present their summaries to the entire class.

The rest of the class listens to add missing information or correct mistakes. The spokespersons also simulate the medical professions they selected and let the groups guess what it was.

Follow up

Activity one: Work in pairs to match each of the following definitions with the right medical profession. (Adopted from Watcyn-Jones, 1995, p. 23)
1 A casualty a) is a person, usually a woman, who has been trained to advise pregnant women and to help them when they are giving birth.

2 A chiropodist b) is a person who treats illness and physical problems by moving and pressing muscles and bones.

3 A chiropractor c) is a person who is trained to treat patients by giving them exercise or massage, often to help them walk again after an accident or operation.

4 A consultant d) is a doctor whose job is to perform operations.

5 A district nurse e) is a person who has been injured or killed in an accident, a fire or a war.

6 A general practitioner (GP) f) is a person who tests people's eyesight and provides glasses and contact lenses.

7 A home help g) is a doctor who examines a dead body to find out how the person died.

8 A matron h) is a doctor who treats people suffering from mental illnesses.

9 A midwife i) is a person who is trained to treat and care for people's feet.

10 A nurse j) is a doctor trained in general medicine who treats people in a certain local area for all kinds of illnesses. He or she is usually the first doctor people go to when they are ill.

11 An optician k) is a doctor who specializes in one area of medical treatment

12 An osteopath l) is a person who is employed by the medical and social services to help people who are old or ill with their cleaning, cooking, shopping, etc.

13 An out-patient m) is a person who treats diseases by feeling and pressing the bones, especially those of the back and neck.

14 A pathologist n) is a person who is qualified to prepare and sell medicines.

15 A paediatrician o) is the woman in charge of the nurses in a hospital. Nowadays she is officially called a senior nursing officer.

16 A pharmacist p) is a high-ranking and very experienced hospital doctor who gives specialist advice in one particular area of medicine.

17 A physiotherapist q) is a person who has to visit a hospital regularly for treatment while still living at home.

18 A psychiatrist r) is a person who looks after patients in hospital.

19 A specialist s) is a nurse, employed by the local authority, who visits and treats people in their own homes.

20 A surgeon t) is a doctor who specializes in treating sick children.

Activity two: Write the phonetic transcription of the words to the left in the previous activity.

Activity three: Choose two professions from the previous activity and discuss their roles and duties towards the patients.
Lesson Three: Diseases and Illnesses

PAS: Scenario-based pattern

Objective: the students will be able to practice vocabulary of diseases and illnesses.

Stage One: Rehearsal

The class is divided into groups of 3-4 students. Half the class was assigned role A while the other half was given role B.

Role A: you are a first year student of medicine and you are attending training in the hospital for the first time. During your training, numerous victims of a terrible accident were brought into the hospital and you were asked to give help. You do not really know how to do things because of stress.

Role B: The training in the hospital is under the supervision of one of your college teachers. He asked you to give help when the accident casualties were brought in. The instructions of the teacher were quick and calling for speedy actions.

Stage Two: Performance

The teacher provides the frame of the scenario stating the conflict between the student and the instructions of the teacher during the stressful moments on helping the wounded accident victims.

The groups perform the roles after selecting their performers. The rest of the class listens to the created scenarios to select the most appropriate solution to the students’ conflict. At the same time, the teacher takes notes to debrief the scenarios.

Stage Three: Debriefing

This stage builds on the comments of the teachers. The scenarios of the students as well as their provided solutions are assessed. The students participate in selecting the best scenario and the best solution and combine them to state a model scenario.

Follow up
The focus on vocabulary is highlighted in the activity below in order to supply the necessary vocabulary on wounds and injuries.

**Activity One:** (Adopted from Watcyn-Jones, 1995, p. 27)

*a.* What illnesses, diseases or conditions are the following drawings illustrating?

*b.* Look at the drawings below and write the correct numbers 1-10 next to the following words. (adopted from Watcyn-Jones, 1995, p. 28)

- a blister
- a boil
- a braise
- a bump
- a corn
- a mole
- pimples
- a cut
- varicose veins
- awart
Activity Two: write the phonetic transcription of the words presenting the diseases and illnesses below. Then, match the words 1-16 below with the correct definitions a-p. (Adopted from Watcyn-Jones, 1995, p. 26)

1. Amnesia  
a is an illness similar to a cold, in which you sneeze a lot. People often get it in the summer because they are allergy to pollen from various plants.

2. Anorexia  
b is losing a baby because it is born too early for it to live. It is usually because of illness, shock, etc.

3. Cancer  
c is a deep, unnatural sleep-like state, usually caused by illness or an injury, especially to the brain.

4. Catarrhe  
d is a problem with reading caused by difficulty in seeing the difference between the shapes of letters. It is also known as 'word-blindness'.

5. A cold  
e is a serious disease which may cause death, in which the cells in your body increase rapidly and uncontrollably, producing abnormal growths.

6. A coma  
f is a serious disease which affects your lungs and makes it difficult for you to breathe.

7. Cramp  
g is a mild, very common illness which makes you sneeze a lot and gives you a sore throat or a cough.

8. Diabetes  
h is a painful swelling and soreness of part of the body, which is often red and hot to the touch.

9. Dyslexia  
i is the medical condition of not being able to remember anything. It is usually caused by damage to the brain after an accident, disease, etc.

10. Epilepsy  
j is a common disease in hot countries. It is spread by mosquitoes and causes attacks of fever and shivering.

11. Hay Fever  
k is a strong pain caused by the sudden tightening of a muscle. You often get it during or after violent exercise.

12. An inflammation  
l is a serious illness common mostly in young women. They lose the desire to eat because they feel they are unattractive because they are too fat, even when they are not.

13. Malaria  
m is an illness of the brain which causes you to suddenly lose consciousness or to have fits.

14. Malnutrition  
n is a disease in which there is too much sugar in the blood. If you suffer from it, you may have to inject insulin into your body every day. Without insulin, you may go into a coma and die.

15. Miscarriage  
o is an inflammation of the nose and throat which, like having a cold, makes your nose feel blocked up.

16. Pneumonia  
p is poor health caused by not eating enough food or by not eating enough of the right kinds of food.
**Activity three:** explain the meaning of the following phrasal verbs and use them to write your own sentences.

Feel a bit under the weather, be over the worst, fight off, be on the mend, be back on one’s feet again, be over, come down with.

**Unit Two: Law and Judiciary System**

**Lesson One: Law and Order**

**PAS:** Deep end strategy

**Objective:** the students will be able to practice vocabulary of law and order.

**Stage one: Production**

The students are led into a discussion about the dangers of crimes on society and the need for the law through answering the following questions:

1. Which crimes do you think are a serious danger on the stability of societies?
2. How does the law treat these crimes?
3. How do you rate the level of crimes in the Algerian society? And what are the reasons for your rating?
4. Does the society need death penalties to stop serious crimes? Why or why not?

**Stage two: Presentation**

For each of the following situations, state what would happen if you (adopted from Watcyn-Jones, 1995, p. 42)

- were caught speeding?
- accidentally killed someone?
- were caught smoking marijuana?
- attacked and injured someone?
- were caught writing graffiti on a public building?
- were caught shoplifting?
- murdered someone?

**Stage three: Practice**

**Activity one:** Look at the drawings below and write the correct numbers 1-13 next to the following words. (Adopted from Watcyn-Jones, 1995, p. 40)

Bullet-proof vest fingerprint handcuffs helmet magnifying glass notebook uniform visor
walkie talkie police officers riot shield torch truncheon

**Activity Two:** fill in the missing words in the passage below. Choose from the following and note that two of the words are used twice. (Adopted from Watcyn-Jones, 1995, p. 41)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>accused</th>
<th>guilty</th>
<th>put on probation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>acquitted</td>
<td>imprisonment</td>
<td>Sentence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hamsters</td>
<td>judge</td>
<td>testimony</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crown Court</td>
<td>jury</td>
<td>Trial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>defence</td>
<td>Justice of the Peace</td>
<td>Verdict</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dock</td>
<td>Magistrates Court</td>
<td>witness box</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>evidence</td>
<td>oath</td>
<td>witnesses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fine</td>
<td>prosecution</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

367
There are two main courts of law in Britain - the (1) ................ for minor offences, such as speeding, shoplifting, etc. and the (2) ....................... for more serious offences such as fraud and murder. The magistrate or (3) ........................... who tries cases in the lower court does not have special education or training in law and does not get a salary. (The job is voluntary and part-time.).

At a (4) ...................... at a Crown Court, the (5) ....................... or defendant stands in the (6) ....................... while lawyers question (7) .............................. who have to say what they have seen or know and who stand in the (8) ......................... They have to swear an (9) .............................. to 'tell the truth, the whole truth and nothing but the truth.' What they say is known as their ........................... (10). There are usually two lawyers or (11) ............................... in the courtroom. One is known as Counsel for the (12) .........................., who speaks for the defendant, and the other as Counsel for the (13) .........................This person has to try to prove that the person accused of the crime really committed it.

The (14) ......................... sits in a large seat facing the defendant decide. During the trial they sit in silence, listening carefully to all the (16) ............................ Then, they are locked away until they can decide whether the person is (17) .............................. or not (18) ..............................This decision is called the (19) ............................

The (20) ......................... now decides the punishment or (21) ............................... as it is called. If the person is innocent, he or she is (22) ............................, which means that he or she is released immediately and is free to go home. If the person is guilty and the crime is serious, he or she could be given several years (23) .............................. However, if it is a first offence, the person might
be given a (24) ……………… instead, for example £1,000, or ……………………………… (25).

Lesson Two: Crimes and Offenses

PAS: Task-based pattern

Objective: the students will be able to practice vocabulary of crimes and offenses.

Stage one: pre-task

The students are asked to work in pairs in order to report on a crime they heard or read about in their social surroundings, following the questions below:

1. What is the crime? (describe the crime scene and plan)
2. Who were the victims and the criminals/wrongdoers?
3. How did the law react to this crime? Is it fair as a verdict against this crime?

Stage two: During the task

The students watch a video on “Human Trafficking, Australia’s Modern-Day Slave Trade” (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=mKchNSUNVhw)

They are also asked to take notes in order to discuss the cases of slavery mentioned in the video. Accordingly, each student is asked to prepare a question on the contents of the video.

Discussion

The students select their partners and ask their questions on the video to each other. The teacher further confirms the correct answers and raises further questions to the entire class about the modern types of slavery and the religious and social morality in the video.

Post discussion

The teacher selects five students and asks them to present a summary of the video as well as their overall impression on the video.

Controlled Practice: Useful vocabulary on crimes and offences
Activity One: Match the crimes and offences 1-16 with the correct definitions a-p. Write your answers in the boxes on the next page. (Adopted from Watcyn-Jones, 1995, p. 34)

1 Arson  a is taking a person away by force and keeping them prisoner, usually in order to demand money for their safe return.
2 Assault  b is the serious crime of stealing large amounts of money from a bank, a shop or a vehicle, often using force or threats of violence.
3 Blackmail  c is the crime of copying things such as banknotes, letters, official documents, etc. in order to deceive people.
4 Burglary  d is killing a person by accident or negligence.
5 Embezzlement  e is forcing someone to have sex with you.
6 Forgery  f is the crime of deliberately setting fire to a building.
7 Fraud  g is taking control of an aeroplane, train, etc. by force, usually in order to make political demands.
8 Hijacking  h is killing a person deliberately.
9 Kidnapping  i is demanding money or favours from someone by threatening to reveal a secret about them which, if made public, could cause the person embarrassment and harm.
10 Libel  j is deliberately taking goods from a shop without paying for them.
11 Manslaughter  k is stealing money that is placed in your care, often over a period of time.
12 Murder  l is the crime of getting money from someone by tricking or deceiving them.
13 Rape  m is the crime of physically attacking someone.
14 Robbery  n is printing or publishing something which is untrue and damages another person's reputation in some way.
15 Shoplifting  o is the crime of breaking into a house, a flat, etc. in order to steal things.
16 Theft  p is the crime of stealing.

1 Assassination  a is bad or improper behaviour by a person in a position of authority or trust, such as a doctor, dentist, police officer, etc.
2 Bribery and corruption  b is stealing things from people's pockets or handbags, usually in crowds or in public places.
3 Drug trafficking  c is saying something untrue about someone with the intention of damaging his or her reputation.
4 Hit and run  d is deliberately damaging public buildings and other public property, usually just for the fun of it.
5 Looting  e is offering money or gifts to someone in a position of authority, e.g. a government official, in order to persuade them to help you in some way.
6 Misconduct  f is forcing someone to have sex with you.
7 Mugging  g is taking control of an aeroplane, train, etc. by force, usually in order to make political demands.
8 Perjury  h is killing a person deliberately.
9 Pickpocketing  i is demanding money or favours from someone by threatening to reveal a secret about them which, if made public, could cause the person embarrassment and harm.
10 Pilfering  j is deliberately taking goods from a shop without paying for them.
11 Slander  k is stealing money that is placed in your care, often over a period of time.
12 Smuggling  l is the crime of getting money from someone by tricking or deceiving them.
13 Terrorism  m is the crime of physically attacking someone.
14 Treason  n is printing or publishing something which is untrue and damages another person's reputation in some way.
15 Trespassing  o is the crime of breaking into a house, a flat, etc. in order to steal things.
16 vandalism  p is the crime of stealing.
f is the crime of lying in court while giving evidence, when you have promised to tell the truth.
g is the crime of taking things or people illegally into or out of a country.
h is murdering a public figure such as a king, a president, etc.
i is entering privately owned land or property without the permission of the owner.
j is attacking someone, usually in a public place, in order to rob him or her.
k is trading in illegal drugs such as heroin, cannabis, cocaine, LSD, etc.
l is the crime of betraying your own country by helping its enemies.
m is stealing small amounts of goods or things of little value, often over a long period of time.
n is a car accident in which the guilty driver does not stop to help.
o is the use of violence such as murder and bombing in order to obtain political demands or to influence a government.
p is stealing from shops, buildings, etc. left unprotected after a violent event or a natural disaster such as an earthquake.

**Follow up:** fill in the missing crimes and offences in the sentences below. Choose from the words in the previous two exercises. (Adopted from Watcyn-Jones, 1995, p. 36)

1. The chief cashier admitted taking £30,000 of the firm's money during the previous three years and was found guilty of ………………………………………

2. She sued the newspaper for …………………………………….. when it printed her story about her in which it claimed she had once been arrested for taking drugs.

3. The supermarket decided to install closed-circuit television in order to combat the problem of ………………………………………

4. This is the sixth fire in the area in the past month. The police suspect ………………………………………

5. He pleaded not guilty to murder but guilty to …………………………………….., saying that the gun had gone off and killed his wife by accident.

6. There have been so many cases of ………………………………… in the street recently that the police are advising residents to install alarms and to notify neighbours when they go out.
7. The customs officer found nearly £20,000 worth of eight diamonds hidden in the man's guitar case. He was arrested and charged with …………………………….

8. Pop stars and famous people often employ bodyguards for themselves and members of their families as they are constantly worried about ………………….

9. Most people of my generation remember the ………………… of President Kennedy in Dallas in November 1963.

10. It looked like a real £20 note but on closer examination you could see that it was a very clever ………………………………….

Lesson Three: Criminals and Wrongdoers

PAS: Scenario-based pattern

Objective: the students will be able to use vocabulary related to criminals and wrongdoers.

Brainstorming activity: identify the words in the following mixed up letters of each word.

(Designed)

Snasistosaia itngolo gumigng nadle lsginumg sorna rofergy hetft lbile dafur

Stage one: Rehearsal

The students are divided into groups of 3 students each, and the entire class is divided into three parts. Part one is given role “A” who is a judge in a local court. Part two is given role “B” and it stands for an adolescent accused of rape and murder. Part “C” is the community. The groups work alone to prepare their parts of the scenarios.

Role A: a judge in a case that became the concern of all society and media. The verdict is crucial for the entire community.

Role B: a 17 years old adolescent accused of raping a girl of 12 years old. The adolescent does not feel any guilt and ensures that he had a relationship with the victim and her betrayal caused her death.
Role C: an angry community— including parents of the victim, who is asking for the death sentence.

Stage two: Performance

The teacher explains the frame of the scenario and states the conflict clearly. The main conflict is set between the law and the angry community. While the law does not execute adolescents, the pressure of media and the community made the murder a national case. The students select their performers and start performing the scenario following the roles assigned to them. Whenever necessary, the performers refer to their groups for help. The order of performance goes in the same direction of the stated roles. The teacher and the rest of the class discuss the provided solutions in the scenarios with the performers. As they listen, the teacher takes notes for evaluation.

Stage Three: Debriefing

The teacher evaluates the performance of the groups and decides with the class on the most appropriate solution to the conflict. Other possible solutions are discussed.

Follow up

Activity one: Match the criminals and wrongdoers 1-16 with the correct definitions a-p.

Write your answers in the boxes on the next page. (Adopted from Watcyn-Jones, 1995, pp. 36-37)

1 An accomplice a. attacks people in the street and
2 An assassin b. takes goods from shops without paying for them.
3 A burglar c. deliberately damages public property, often because they are bored or enjoy doing it.
4 A charlatan d. murders someone important, such as a king or a
5 A forger e. leads others to do wrong or to make trouble.
6 A criminal f. is someone who steals (usually
7 An imposter g. attacks people in the street and
8 A juvenile delinquent h. takes goods from shops without paying for them.
9 A mugger i. deliberately damages public property, often because they are bored or enjoy doing it.
10 A poacher j. leads others to do wrong or to make trouble.
11 A ringleader helps another person to commit a crime.
12 A robber deceives others by pretending to have special skills or knowledge, especially about medicine.
13 A shoplifter steals from banks, shops, etc., usually planning them in advance in great detail.
14 A thief makes copies of money, letters, documents, etc. in order to deceive people.
15 A traitor betrays his or her country.

l deceives people by pretending to be someone else.

m breaks into houses, shops, etc. in order to steal things.

n is a young person who has broken the law.

o catches or shoots animals, fish or birds on private land without permission.

p is someone who is guilty of a crime (or several crimes).
<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>A drug addict/a junkie</td>
<td>a is a formal or legal word for someone who is guilty of a crime.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>An assailant</td>
<td>b takes things or people illegally into or out of a country.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>A bigamist</td>
<td>c deceives others in order to get money from them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>A conspirator</td>
<td>d gives information to the police in return for money.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>A culprit</td>
<td>e is unable to stop himself or herself from taking drugs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>A hostage</td>
<td>f hides on board a ship or inside a plane in order to get a free ride.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>An informer</td>
<td>g sees a crime being committed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>A murderer</td>
<td>h is the person blamed for a crime or for doing something wrong.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>An offender</td>
<td>i is a formal or legal word for someone who attacks another person.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>A pickpocket</td>
<td>j is someone who has been attacked or against whom a crime has been committed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>A recidivist</td>
<td>k is kept as a prisoner by a person or organization and may be killed if people don't do what the person or organization are demanding.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>A smuggler</td>
<td>l steals things from people's pockets and handbags in crowded places.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>A stowaway</td>
<td>m takes part in a secret plan to do something against the law.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>A swindler</td>
<td>n keeps going back to a life of crime even after being punished. In other words, an incurable criminal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>A victim</td>
<td>o marries illegally because he or she is already married to someone else.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>A witness</td>
<td>p deliberately kills someone.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Activity two:** Work in pairs or groups of three. You are going to be judges. Read through the list of crimes below and then decide the type of sentence you think the person ought to get.

(Adopted from Watcyn-Jones, 1995, p. 41)

Before starting, here is a list of possible sentences. You can choose from these or decide on your own. When you have finished, compare your verdicts with other pairs or groups.
The death penalty: You could sentence the person to death (by hanging, the death chamber, electric chair, guillotine, etc.) Note: the death penalty has been abolished in the U.K.

Life imprisonment: You could imprison the person for life.

Imprisonment: You could imprison a person for a set period (decide how many months or years)

Fines: You could fine the person (decide the amount).

Put on probation

You could put the person on probation, e.g. for 3 years. (This means you don't go to prison. Instead you have to keep out of trouble and report in a probation officer every week.

Suspended sentence: You could give the person a suspended sentence, e.g. 2 years suspended sentence. (This means the person is given a two year prison sentence but only has to serve it if he or she commits another crime during that period.)

Acquit/let off: You could let the person off with a caution.

Do community service: You could give the person community service. (He or she has to do socially useful work, e.g. helping handicapped children or old people instead of going to prison).

Driving ban/endorsement: If a driving offence, you could ban the person from driving (decide how long) or endorse his or her licence, which means that you mark in it that the person has broken the law.

1 A person who robbed a shop and wounded the owner with a knife.
2 A person who set fire to his or her flat for the insurance money.
3 A person in the Government who has been spying for a foreign power.
4 A person who took a bar of chocolate from a shop without paying for it.
5 A person who bought a camera with a false chèque.
6 A person who murdered a policeman in cold blood.

7 A person who kidnapped a small child and held him to ransom. (The child was unhurt.)

8 A person who hi-jacked a plane. In the rescue attempt one passenger died of a heart attack.

9 A person caught selling cocaine and heroin.

10 A person who saw a woman being attacked, went to her aid, and accidentally killed her attacker.

11 A person who refuses to do military service.

12 A person who stole a car, then crashed into another one, seriously injuring the driver.

13 A football supporter who threw a brick at a referee during a football match. (The brick struck the referee on the leg.)

14 A person who drove through a traffic light when it was showing red.

15 A person who got married when he already had a wife.

Unit Three: Food

Lesson one: food culture

PAS: Deep end strategy

Objectives

1. The students will be able to practice vocabulary of food.

2. The students will be able to describe their eating habits.

Curricular work: menus, recipes, food groups, healthy eating

Stage one: Production

Activity one:

1. Match the phrasal verbs and the proverbs with the right definitions (designed).
2. Use the phrasal verbs and proverbs in the previous activity in order to complete the following conversation with your partner. (Adopted from Elkoussy, Rohan and Munro, 2011, p.4)

To **grab a bite to eat** to split the cost of a meal

It’s on someone paying for a meal/movie etc. for someone else

To **treat** someone to pay for a meal/movie etc. for someone else

To go **halfers** to be extremely hungry.

To **cover** someone’s half to be really amazing.

**Whatever one’s heart desires** anything you want

To be **starving** to be delicious

To be **so hungry one could eat a horse** to be really hungry

To **pig out** to go out to eat

An appetizer food before the main course

An **entree (n)** main course

The **house specialty** to miss a meal

To be **out of this world** to pay for someone

To be mouth **watering** to be really delicious

To **start** food from a previous meal that you eat later

To be **famished** to split the cost of a meal to eat too much

To **wash something down** the dish a restaurant specializes in

To be **tasty** to be really hungry

One’s **eyes are bigger than one’s stomach** an expression used when somebody wants more food than they can eat.

To **skip a meal** to drink something to help you swallow food

A **doggie bag** the bag that leftovers from a restaurant meal are put in, so you can take the food home with you.

**Leftovers** as an appetizer

**In the Restaurant**

Mike: Thanks for inviting me out today. I was feeling kind of sad. There’s nothing better than .................. with a good friend to make you feel better.

Shaun: No problem. It's for your birthday, so it's ........... me.
Mike: Oh, I thought no one remembered, but you don't have to………………… me. We can
………………… Don’t feel you have to………………my…………….. just because it’s my
birthday.

Shaun: Forget about it. I’ve got it covered. Order………………your…………………
Mike: Great, because I'm………………. I’m……………… I………………. It's time to
………………… Do you know what you’re going to have?

Shaun: I'm going to have the shrimp cocktail for an………………, and a medium-rare steak for
my…………………. It’s the………………….. and I hear it's……………….…..
Mike: Wow! There are a lot of…………………. choices on this menu. Let’s see. I
think I’ll go with the
caviar………………. and the seafood platter for two as my main course. Like I said, I’m
……………….

Shaun: Man, it’s going to be pretty hard to eat all that.

Mike: You’re right. It would be pretty hard to eat all that without something to drink. I think
I’ll order a bottle of their finest wine to……………… all that…………… food.

Shaun: I think your……………… your…………………
Mike: Yeah, I might have to…………… breakfast tomorrow. But I can always take a
………………… so I can have……………… for lunch and dinner tomorrow. Shaun
Well, I might have to skip a few meals after paying for this meal.

Activity two: elaborate the following questions with a partner to create a meaningful
dialogue. (Designed)

1. Has someone ever bought you a meal in a restaurant? What was the reason?
2. The dish your companion advised you to take was the worst dish you have ever eaten, why?
3. What was your reaction towards the dish, your companion, and the waiter?
Stage two: Presentation *(designed)*

The students watch the final episode of “Street Food around the World”

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=YiYihUwcURY in order to:

1. Choose the best cuisine along the show presenter.
2. Write down the names of food stated in the show.
3. State their food habits and preferences?

Stage three: Practice

**Activity one:** In pairs, think of food to match each adjective. (Adapted from www.teachingenglish.org.uk © BBC | British Council 2010)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tastes</th>
<th>Textures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sour</td>
<td>soft</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweet</td>
<td>hard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salty</td>
<td>chewy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bitter</td>
<td>crunchy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bland</td>
<td>crispy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>smooth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hot</td>
<td>creamy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spicy</td>
<td>flaky</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Activity two:** Now read the following clues and guess what food/dish is being described.

(Adapted from www.teachingenglish.org.uk © BBC | British Council 2010)

**CLUES**

1. This food is soft and it tastes sweet. It is made from cream, sugar and fruit or chocolate. It is eaten very cold, usually in summer.
2. This food is crunchy and it can be salty or sweet. It is often eaten in the cinema.
3. This food is hard on the outside, but usually soft in the middle. It is very versatile and is used to make lots of sweet and savoury dishes. In the UK people also eat it on its own for breakfast or in a sandwich.
4. This food is usually hard and crunchy, and it is red or green in colour. People often use it to make desserts, e.g. pies.
**Activity three:** In pairs try to guess the right answer for each question. (Adapted from www.teachingenglish.org.uk © BBC | British Council 2010)

1. which of these do the British eat most of in Europe?
   - a. crisps and chocolate
   - b. fresh fruit and vegetables
   - c. sausages

2. What is the most popular food in Britain?
   - a. fish and chips
   - b. pizza
   - c. curry

3. What is ‘haggis’?
   - a. a cocktail made from whisky and fruit juice
   - b. a type of fish eaten in Scotland
   - c. a Scottish dish made from sheep’s stomach and innards

4. Stilton, cheddar and double Gloucester are all kinds of:
   - a. apple
   - b. pig
   - c. cheese

5. What do most British people have for breakfast?
   - a. toast and cereal
   - b. cappuccino and croissant
   - c. fried eggs and bacon

6. What is a ‘kebab’?
   - a. a type of pub
   - b. Turkish fast food
   - c. A hot drink

7. Which of the following ingredients would not be a possible ingredient of a British pudding?
   - a. pig’s blood
   - b. chocolate
   - c. lettuce

8. What is ‘chicken tikka masala’?
   - a. a type of salad
b. a type of Chinese food
c. a curry

9. Where do people eat deep-fried chocolate bars?
   a. Scotland
   b. Japan
   c. Wales

10. When are toffee apples eaten in the UK?
    a. Christmas
    b. Halloween
    c. Easter

11. What is the difference between these things?
    a. ‘chips’ and ‘French fries’
    b. ‘crisps’ and ‘chips’
    c. ‘fizzy drink’ and ‘soda’

**Follow up:** fill in the crossword puzzle with the right words. Adopted from www.bogglesworldesl.com (2005)
Across

2 Someone who makes food in a cheap restaurant. (4)
4 A meal between breakfast and lunch. (6)
5 Someone who makes food in an expensive restaurant. (4)
8 This describes what you can eat at a restaurant. (4)
11 Something you eat before the main meal. (9)
12 If everybody pays for their own food then you go ___________. (5)
13 A side dish with lettuce and other vegetables. (5)
15 What the cook places your food on. (5)
16 A meal where you help yourself from a table with a variety of dishes. (6)
17 Long, stringy food. (7)
18 Something you give your waiter if the service is good. (3)

Down

1 A place where people can sit around and drink alcoholic beverages in a restaurant. (3)
2 A drink that many people have with dessert. (6)
3 Something you use to cut meat. (5)
4 Another word for a drink. (8)
6 The noon meal. (5)
7 Something you might need to get into a busy restaurant. (11)
9 Someone who serves you food. (6)
10 The morning meal. (9)
12 Something, usually sweet, that you eat after dinner. (7)
14 The evening meal (6)
16 The total amount that you have to pay for a meal. (4)

Lesson two: recipes and restaurants

PAS: task-based pattern

Objective: the students will be able to practice vocabulary of recipes and restaurants.

Stage one: pre-task

The students are asked the following questions to brainstorm their ideas on the lesson topic.

1. Which popular cooking programmes do you like the most?
2. Have there been many changes in your country in the culture of food? Are there any ‘new’ foods?

3. Do you ever cook? If so, what do you like to cook?

4. Would you like to train to be a better cook?

Stage two: During the Task

The students are divided into groups and assigned reading passages in order to do the activities.

Activity one: Read these reviews written about a variety of restaurants in London. Write down any new vocabulary or phrases which can be used to describe restaurants. (Adopted from www.teachingenglish.org.uk © BBC | British Council 2010)

The Ritz

Food: traditional British or fusion cuisine

Price per person: £80

This spectacular palace-style dining room is famous as one of London’s most luxurious, romantic restaurants. It’s hard to resist splashing out on the exquisite 5-course menu. The staff are discreet and extremely polite. It’s hardly surprising that the clients are a mixture of celebrities, business executives and wealthy tourists. Come here for a memorable dining experience, which will certainly do damage to your bank account!

Yo sushi!

Food: Japanese

Price per person: £10-15

The best known sushi place in town, this restaurant is great both for its raw fish and its kitsch Japanese décor. Service is efficient and speedy. You can eat delicious sushi for a few pounds, serve yourself unlimited beer, select food from a conveyor belt and even have a
relaxing head massage! Sometimes there are karaoke nights here. This restaurant is bright and unromantic but great fun.

**Amaretto**

**Food: Italian**

**Price per person: £15-20**

A family-owned restaurant that has faithful clients coming back again and again. Amaretto offers classic Italian food in warm and friendly surroundings. Whatever time you come here, this restaurant is always busy and lively. The pizzas and pasta dishes are well recommended as being tasty and excellent value for money. Great for families or big groups of friends.

**Levant**

**Food: Lebanese/Middle Eastern**

**Price per person: £20-30**

An exotic Middle Eastern restaurant which is perfect for a romantic evening. The atmosphere is moody and intimate, with lots of candles, soft cushions and coloured glass lanterns. When you find the entrance, hidden away down a small street, you are greeted by luscious plants and the smell of incense and exotic perfumes. The menu offers a feast of authentic Lebanese food for people who like to try something new and unusual. If you stay late, you will even be able to watch a belly-dancing show!

**The George Inn**

**Food: traditional British pub food**

**Price per person: £5-10**

A dark and smoky pub, which was built in 1780. Come here if you want to taste traditional English fish and chips or steak and kidney pie in a lively atmosphere. The food isn’t great, the service is slow, but this pub serves a good range of beers and ales.
Food for Thought

Food: vegetarian

Price per person: £5-10

This tiny colourful vegetarian restaurant and takeaway offers food free of chemicals, pesticides and preservatives. The food is good and the menu changes every day, but this place is also great if you just want a coffee. Don’t come here at busy times if you want a slow, leisurely meal.

Café Sol

Food: Mexican

Price: £20-30

Café Sol is a great place to go at any time. Enjoy authentic Mexican cuisine at lunchtime (watch out for the chilli!) or go for a drink and a dance when it gets dark. The atmosphere is always buzzing and vibrant, and the food is reasonably priced. On a Saturday night, the young crowds in Café Sol are usually very loud and merry after sampling the extensive list of tequilas!

The Hard Rock Café

Food: Tex-Mex and burgers

Price per person: £10-20

A genuine celebration of rock ‘n’ roll! This is the original Hard Rock Café, here since the 1970s, and it’s the first ever theme restaurant. The queue to get in is legendary. You can’t make reservations and you will find a queue almost all day long, every day of the year. But this actually adds to the memorable experience. Once in, there’s good food and a great atmosphere, created by rock music, dim lighting and walls covered in rock memorabilia.
Discussion

1. Work in groups to read the restaurant reviews and answer the questions to write a summary on the provided restaurants. *(Designed)*

   1. Who are the target consumers?
   2. What cuisine do they serve?
   3. What specialties, or a daily menu, or takeaway do they provide?
   4. What type of atmosphere do they try to generate? How?
   5. What entertainment do they offer?
   6. Where are the restaurants located?
   7. Are the prices they charge reasonable?

2. Imagine you are starting your own restaurant. Write a review to describe your restaurant.

Stage Three: Post discussion

Each group presents the analysis of their passages in the light of the above stated questions to the rest of the class. The teacher follows the analysis and corrects any mistakes.

Controlled practice

Read the quotes and proverbs about food and answer these questions. *(Designed)*

   1. What is the meaning or implication of each proverb/quote?
   2. Which proverbs or quotes do you agree with?
   3. Are there any which you disagree with?
   4. Which is your favourite?
   5. Do you have any proverbs in your own language which refer to food or diet?

Food Proverbs *(Adopted from www.teachingenglish.org.uk © BBC | British Council 2010)*

   a. ‘To eat is a necessity, but to eat intelligently is an art.’ La Rochefoucauld
   b. ‘Stomach: A slave that must accept everything that is given to it, but which avenges wrongs as slyly as does the slave.’ Emile Souvester

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c. ‘Part of the success in life is to eat what you like and let the food fight it out inside.’
   Mark Twain

d. ‘The discovery of a new dish does more for human happiness than the discovery of a
   new star.’ Jean Anthelme Brillat-Savarin

e. ‘When diet is wrong medicine is of no use. When diet is correct medicine is of no
   need.’ Proverb

f. ‘An apple a day keeps the doctor away.’ Proverb

g. ‘You are what you eat.’ Proverb

h. ‘Hunger is the best sauce in the world.’ Cervantes

i. ‘Strange to see how a good dinner and feasting reconciles everybody.’ Samuel Pepys

j. ‘Kissing doesn’t last: cookery does.’ George Meredith

k. ‘Cooking is like love. It should be entered into with abandon or not at all.’ Harriet
   Van Horne

l. ‘Fish, to taste right, must swim three times – in water, in butter and in wine.’ Proverb

m. ‘One cannot think well, love well, sleep well, if one has not dined well.’ Virginia
   Woolf

n. ‘There is no such thing as a little garlic.’ Proverb

o. ‘A smiling face is half the meal.’ Proverb

p. ‘There is no sincerer love than the love of food.’ George Bernard Shaw

2. Choose one proverb from the list above and prepare a short report to argue for or against
   what it states.

**Follow up**

**Activity one:** What is the difference between: fast food, junk food, take-away, genetically
   modified, processed food, fattening, fatty, fresh, wholemeal, and tinned? *(Designed)*
Activity two: The following verbs frequently appear when reading the cooking instructions in recipes. What is the meaning of each verb? Use the verbs in meaningful sentences (designed).

Add, bake, barbecue, beat, boil, break, broil, carve, chop, combine, cook, crush, cut fry, grate, grease, grill, knead, mix, measure, melt, microwave, mince, open, peel, pour, put, roast, scramble, slice, steam, stir, fry, wash, weigh

Lesson three: Food and Health

PAS: Scenario-based pattern

Objective

1. The students will be able to practice vocabulary of food and health.

Stage one: Rehearsal

The students work in groups of 3-5 students in order to prepare their scenarios. No group should know what the role of the other group is about.

Role “A” is a young cook applying for a job in a famous restaurant. He is stressed and afraid of not impressing the chief. He has taken a long time preparing for the job interview. He has also going to cook a recipe that the chief had chosen. He really needs the job.

Role “B” is an experienced chief who is famous for his defined criteria in the Italian cuisine. He is recruiting new young assistants. He is known for his severe character and highly qualitative cuisine.

Role “C” is a food specialist who is invited to interview the candidates along the chief. His evaluation of recipes and dishes is based on the quality of being “healthy”.

Stage two: Performance

The teacher provides the frame of the scenario to the students to guide their performance and the order of roles. The young cook is in a critical situation because the job
means a big step in his career. The chief and the food specialist disagreed on the success of the dish. They are torn between whether to hire the young man or not.

After the students have prepared their part of the scenario depending on their role, a performer from each group representing each of the assigned roles perform their role. The teacher and the class listen attentively. The teacher takes notes for the debriefing stage.

**Stage three: Debriefing**

Upon completion of the performance stage, the teacher and the rest of the class evaluate the scenarios and the provided solutions. Possible solutions which were not provided by the groups were further discussed. The teacher and the class select the most appropriate solution to the conflict between the chief and the food specialist.

**Follow up**

Read the following paragraphs on cookery in some countries around the world. (Adopted from englishspeaker.com, pp. 6-7)

1. Decide which of the cuisines you find the oldest and richest (justify your decision).
2. Underline the new words to you and try to guess their meaning from context. Use the dictionary to check your guessing.
3. Use the paragraphs as models to write a paragraph on the Algerian cuisine.

**A. India**

Indian food is well-known for being spicy. It always uses spices, sometimes just one spice to cook a potato dish and sometimes up to fifteen spices to compose an elaborate dish. But it is not always hot. Chili peppers were introduced into Asia by the Portuguese in the sixteenth century. Until that time the typical pungent Indian spices were mustard seeds and black peppercorns. Sometimes the spices are used whole, at other times they are ground and mixed with water or vinegar to make a paste. Each of these techniques draws out a completely different flavour from the spice. But India also gains variety from the huge
number of regional cuisines which have been adapted to local culinary traditions. Religious
groups within each region of India have modified these regional cuisines to suit their own
restrictions. There was also the influence of the Moghuls who came to India by way of Persia
and introduced the delicate Pullaos and meats cooked with yoghurt and fried onions.

B. Austria

When Vienna became a great capital city in the seventeenth century, Austrian cooking
developed into an art. This was when the famous Viennese pastry began to be made. Food
and ideas for cooking were imported from all over the continent: sour cream from the Slavs,
paprika from Hungary, noodle dishes from Italy. Although some of the famous cakes and
pastries are so extravagant they can only be used for special occasions, other dishes are
highly economical. The meat dishes, for example, evolved because the Austrians were loth to
kill bulls. They felt it wasteful to keep them and feed them while they grew up but did no
useful work. Therefore, they kept only the cows which were killed when they were old and
tough, and so the
Austrians have a number of dishes which make use of scraggy meat. The many veal dishes, at
which the Viennese are virtuosi, grew from the fact that so many baby bulls were killed.

C. Sweden

Swedish cooking was in the past restricted by its climate which limited the supply of
fresh food to a few months of the year. Meals tended to be monotonous and salted fish or
meat and potatoes were served most of the time. But things are very different today with
Swedish smorgasbord popular all over the world. The word actually means sandwich table,
but in reality there is a great variety of cold dishes to choose from. Swedish cooking
developed in the eighteenth century under French influence. However, old traditions persist.
On Christmas Day, ham is always served. At that time, on Christmas Eve a plate of porridge
may be put in the attic or cellar for the little gnomes who are believed to live in the house.
The porridge is to thank the gnomes for their help during the past year and ensure their help in the next.

E. Indonesia

It used to be the Indonesian custom to put all the food on the table at once and let everyone help himself. The “help yourself” rule still applies but the average family meal now takes place in a sequence of courses, and the total number of dishes is now smaller than it used to be because when the housewife cooks there is not enough time to make anything elaborate. Most Indonesians are Moslems and avoid pork. They consider lamb or goat to be their favourite food. The most charming aspect of eating in Indonesia is the warung, or wayside food stall. It consists of a roof, a counter or table, and a bench. The customers sit on the bench or on the ground nearby, and the cooking goes on behind the stall.

G. Turkey

Turkish cooking has a long tradition dating back many centuries to Byzantium times. From those early times, the Turks have been grilling pieces of meat, usually lamb, on skewers. They are also said to have introduced the rice for their famous pilafs from Persia. Of course, like all regional cooking, they make use of their local vegetables, such as aubergine and courgettes and sweet peppers. Turks may have a reputation for being a warlike people, but they also have a sweet tooth. The popularity of Turkish Delight in other European countries is perhaps a memento of earlier conquests by the Turks who continue to like extremely sweet delicacies, such as the fragrantly delicious rose-petal jam.

Unit Four: People and Feelings

Lesson one: character and personality

PAS: Deep end strategy

Objective

1. The students will be able to practice vocabulary to describe feelings and moods.
2. The students will be able to describe their character and personality.

**Stage one: Production**

**Activity one:** Describe a novel or a TV show or a novel character that impressed you. Justify your character choice. *(Designed)*

**Activity two:** in a paragraph, describe the personalities of your parents, favourite teacher, and best friend. *(Designed)*

**Stage two: Presentation**

The students listen to a script entitled “VOA Word Story” on emotions and the idiomatic uses of the word “heart”. At this stage, the students are asked to write down the idiomatic expressions and provide any of their equivalents in their mother tongue.

**Stage three: Practice**

**Activity One:** Read through the statements below, then decide the character or personality of the people who said them. Write the correct numbers 1-16 next to the adjectives below.

*(Adopted from Watcyn-Jones, 1995, p. 12)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>bigoted</th>
<th>determined</th>
<th>indecisive</th>
<th>thrifty</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>blunt</td>
<td>extravagant</td>
<td>naïve</td>
<td>understanding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>callous</td>
<td>fussy</td>
<td>possessive</td>
<td>unreliable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cynical</td>
<td>illiterate</td>
<td>superstitious</td>
<td>weak-willed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. I've just spent £600 on David's birthday party. Well, you're only seven once in your life, aren't you?'
2. I don't really like my wife going out on her own or with her friends. I prefer her to spend all her time with me.'
3. 'Of course you can have the afternoon off to visit your wife in hospital. And take tomorrow off too, if you need to. Don't worry, we'll manage.'
4. 'No, I don't like your dress, actually. It makes you look fat.'
5. 'Shall I buy the blue curtains or the red ones? The blue ones are nice but the red ones will go better with the wallpaper. On the other hand, David prefers blue. Oh, I don't know what to get.'

6. 'No, I'd better not have a chocolate biscuit, thanks. I'm on a diet. But they do look nice, don't they? Oh, at right then, just one.'

7. 'All Conservatives are rich, upper class snobs. I've got no time for any of them, especially the Prime Minister. Working-class people will always be poor with a Conservative government.'

8. 'I'm sorry; you'll have to help me fill in this form. I can't read or write.'

9. 'I never walk under ladders. It's bad luck!'

10. 80 children have died.

11. I'm always very careful with money. I never buy anything I don't need, for example.'

12. 'Don't forget to out the fat off the bacon before you fry it and remember to use margarine not butter. And also make sure that the eggs are soft this time - you know hard-boiled eggs don't agree with me.'

13. 'I know it's the third time now I haven't turned up for a match, but I overslept. It wasn't really my fault.'

14. 'He's only doing it for the publicity. I don't believe for one minute he's really interested in helping mentally-handicapped people.'

15. 'But I believed him when he said he was a famous fashion photographer and could make me into a top model.'

16. 'I'm going to get a book published one day. I'm just not going to give up until I do.'

**Activity two:** Match the following adjectives 1-20 with the correct meanings a-t to form complete sentences. (Adopted from Watcyn-Jones, 1995, p. 10)
People who are:  
1 absent-minded  
2 adventurous  
3 amusing  
4 bashful  
5 boastful  
6 bright  
7 calm  
8 cheeky  
9 conceited  
10 confident  
11 créative  
12 domineering  
13 down-to-earth  
14 emotional  
15 enthusiastic  
16 gullible  
17 hospitable  
18 impatient  
19 malicious  
20 narrow-minded

a like to say how good they are at something.  
b have strong feelings and are easily moved by things.  
c are rude and disrespectful, especially towards people like parents and teachers.  
d are always trying to control others without worrying or caring about how they feel.  
e deliberately try to hurt or harm others.  
f are very forgetful because they are too busy thinking about other things.  
g are sure of themselves and their abilities.  
h are easily tricked and tend to believe everything they are told.  
i are very clever and learn things quickly.  
j hate having to wait for things and are not very tolerant of other people’s weaknesses, etc.  
k are very interested and excited about something and this shows in the way they talk or behave.  
l are daring and always ready to take risks.  
m are always friendly and welcoming towards guests.  
n don’t get excited or nervous about things.  
o find it hard to accept or understand new or different ideas.  
p are very funny and make you laugh.  
q are very practical and honest.  
r have a very high opinion of themselves.  
s find it easy to produce new and original ideas and things.  
t are shy and feel uncomfortable in social situations.

Lesson Two: people and professions

PAS: Task-based pattern

Objective: the students will be able to practice vocabulary to describe jobs and professions.
Pre-task: the students are led into the discussion through telling them about teaching as a job. The introduction answers this questionnaire on teaching:

1. Why did you choose to become a teacher?
2. How demanding is teaching as a job?
3. What do you find most difficult about teaching?
4. How would you describe your teaching environment?
5. How do you find the task of teaching a foreign language?

Main Task: The students listen to a script on “Learn a thousand foreign words” from the BBC world service at learn English.com. *(Designed)*

(https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JCKuyuzqtUM)

Answer the following questions:

1. What are the linguistic habits of the British?
2. What are the privileges of speaking a foreign language?
3. What is the principle behind learning the first foreign language?

Discussion (designed)

The students report on their personal experience of learning English as a foreign language. The report includes:

1. The most challenging aspects of English learning
2. The difficulties faced while learning the language
3. The advantages of learning the language
4. Future plans for language use (including job)

Post discussion
The teacher asks the students to present their reports to the entire class. The other students listen to compare their reports. While presenting, the teacher and the class ask questions depending on the presented reports.

**Controlled practice**

Activity one: Match the jobs 1-15 on the left with the correct definitions a-o. (Adopted from Watcyn-Jones, 1995, p. 16)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>an archaeologist</th>
<th>a critic</th>
<th>a lumberjack</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a baby-sitter</td>
<td>a disc jockey</td>
<td>a nanny</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a bodyguard</td>
<td>an editor</td>
<td>a solicitor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a broker</td>
<td>a lifeguard</td>
<td>a surveyor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a busker</td>
<td>a locksmith</td>
<td>a taxidermist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a composer</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. ‘I work for a newspaper. I'm the person in charge of it. I usually write the editorial too.’
2. ‘People usually come to me for legal advice. I also have to appear in court sometimes on behalf of my clients.’
3. ‘I risk my life every day protecting rich or important people. I get well-paid but most of the people I protect can afford it.’
4. ‘I work for a wonderful family in Kensington. Baby Emma and I get on really well, which is fortunate as we spend most of the day together. I think the people I live with and work for are very pleased with the way I'm looking after their daughter.’
5. ‘I suppose I have quite a pleasant job really. I spend most of my time at the theater or cinema where, after seeing a new film or a play, I write a review about it for the newspaper I work for.’
6. ‘Women like being married to me because the older they get the more interested I become in them, they say. Seriously though, my job is all about looking at very old things and to examine a new tomb they've found there. I'm hoping it could be another Tutankhamen.’
7. ‘I spend most of my time playing my guitar in the street or at Underground stations. I
think people quite like me because they throw a lot of money into my open guitar case.'

8 ‘I work at the local swimming pool and in the summer at the local beach. It’s my job to rescue anyone in danger of drowning. So far I’ve saved about twenty people's lives.’

9 ‘People often come to me when their pet dog or cat has died. They can't bear to part with them, so I stuff and mount the animals so that they look almost alive and the owners can go on seeing them, talking to them, and so on.’

10 ‘Many of my clients are people buying a house. They want me to examine it to make sure the structure's all right, etc. I examine everything then give them a written report. There's usually something wrong with most houses, but so far I've only found three houses that I would definitely not recommend.’

Follow up

Activity one: In an interview, ask your partner on a job he/she wants to be doing. The interview should include a description of the job. *(Designed)*

Activity two: identify the jobs in the crosswords puzzle.
(Adopted from www.bogglesworldesl.com)

Across
1. Somebody who catches fish.
2. Someone who digs for metal ore in the ground.
7. A person who paints pictures.
8. A person who makes computer games.
10. A person who helps a doctor.
11. Somebody who fixes teeth.
14. A person who goes to outer space.
16. Somebody who helps sick animals.
20. Someone who builds houses.
22. Someone who cooks food.
25. A person who tells us the news.
26. A person who plays sports.
27. Someone who grows crops.

Down
1. Somebody who puts out fires.
2. Somebody who plays an instrument.
3. Somebody who helps sick people.
4. Somebody who catches criminals.
5. A person who fixes toilets.
6. A person who does research.
13. Someone who stars in a movie.
15. A person who drives a truck.
17. Someone who fixes cars.
18. Someone who delivers mail.
19. A person who sings songs.
23. A person who serves food.

Unit five: Social concerns

Lesson one: domestic violence

PAS: Deep-end strategy pattern

Objective:

1. The students will be able to discuss the theme of domestic violence and its forms using relevant vocabulary.

Stage one: production (designed)
You are a social activist reporting on domestic violence and the rates of the phenomena among workless husbands against their wives. Prepare your report to analyse the phenomenon including interviews with case victims of domestic violence.

**Stage two: presentation (designed)**

The students watch a video from “The Big Questions” on *Male Victims of Domestic Violence* ([https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=W7tV_ho2vic](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=W7tV_ho2vic)) and discuss the questions below:

1. What is domestic violence?
2. Who are the victims in domestic violence? And who are the victims mostly affected under domestic violence?
3. Where does domestic abuse happen?
4. What are some examples of physical abuse?
7. Does anyone deserve to be abused?

**Stage three: practice**

**Activity one:** Read the question and then circle the correct letter. (Adopted from Minnesota Literacy Council, 2012, pp.6-7)

1. What is domestic violence?
   a) Violence between strangers.
   b) Physical and emotional abuse
   c) Power and control of one person over another, usually between two people who know each other well.
   d) Both B and C are correct.

2. Who is victim the MOST to domestic violence?
   a) Men
   b) Women
c) Men and women

d) None of the above

3. What are some examples of physical abuse?
   a) Hitting and punching
   b) Name calling
   c) Stalking
   d) Stealing

4. What are some examples of emotional abuse?
   a) Hitting and punching
   b) Name calling
   c) A boyfriend telling his girlfriend no one will ever love her
   d) B and C are correct

5. What are some examples of sexual assault?
   A) Hitting or punching
   B) Name calling
   C) A man forcing a woman to have sex with him.
   D) None of the above.

6. What is “Dating Violence”?
   a) Violence between strangers
   b) Violence between a boyfriend and girlfriend
   c) Violence that affects young women
   d) B and C are both correct

7. If someone is being abused, who should they tell?
   a) Family
   b) Friends
c) No one
d) A and B are correct

8. Are there resources in Minneapolis and St. Paul for victims of abuse?
   a) Yes
   b) No

9. Is abuse ever ok?
   a) Yes
   b) No

10. If someone is abused one time, what is this called? ........................................
11. If someone is abused multiple times, what is this called? ..............................
12. If someone is ever in immediate danger, what number should be called? ............

**Activity two:** Read the stories below, and then write down the definitions that correspond with each story. (NOTE: There is more than one definition for each story.) (Adopted from Minnesota Literacy Council, 2012, p. 8)

Maria has been married to Jeff for 15 years. At first, he was a really nice husband. He brought her flowers every week. He told her she was beautiful and that he loved her. But after she had her first child, he started to hit her. She had to go to the hospital many times because he hit her so hard.

**Definitions:** Domestic Violence, pattern of behavior, physical abuse, (victim)

The majority of people who are abused are women. Maybe this is because men are usually stronger than women. No man should hurt a woman. Violence is not okay and *can* be stopped. There are many places women can get help. They can call the crisis intervention number at 1-866-223-1111 or the National Domestic Violence Hotline at 1-800-799-SAFE (7233). These numbers will have information about where women can get help.

**Definitions:** victim, safety resources
Rebecca is in high school and her boyfriend’s name is Mario. They have been dating for three months. He is very controlling. He doesn’t want her to have friends. He doesn’t want her to talk to other boys. When he gets mad, he calls her stupid, ugly, and fat. He says nobody will ever love her except for him. He says she can never leave him. She is afraid and doesn’t know what to do.

**Definitions**: dating violence, emotional abuse, (victim)

Julia is in college. She met a man six months ago. He was very romantic. She immediately fell in love with him. One night he said he wanted to have sex. Julia said NO. He forced her. She cried. Afterwards, he said he was sorry. Julia was confused and scared.

**Definitions**: Dating violence, sexual assault, single incident, victim, (physical/emotional abuse)

**Lesson two**: Emotional abuse

**PAS**: Task-based pattern

**Lesson Objective**:

1. The students will be able to define emotional abuse.
2. The students will be able to express wishes and regrets.

**Brainstorming activity**: the teacher uses cards with written adjectives describing personalities. The students pick up a card and describe the adjective to the class in order to find the target objective. *(Designed)*

Absent-minded, adventurous, amusing, bashful, boastful, bright, calm, cheeky, conceited, confident, creative, domineering, down-to-earth, emotional, enthusiastic, gullible, hospitable, impatient, malicious, narrow-minded

**Stage one**: Pre-task *(designed)*
The students listen to a song by Celine Dion on mothers

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=v1LDNULHJN8

The students discuss the nature of their relationship with their mothers in the light of the questions below:

1. How would you describe your relationship with your mother?
2. Have you ever made your mother angry? What was the reason? And how did you solve the problem?
3. What can you do for your mother to express your love for her?

Stage two: Main task (designed)

A group of 5 students is assigned reading the text below in order to discuss it with the whole class. The rest of the class is provided the following questions in order to discuss the text contents with the group:

1. How would you justify the attitude of the child towards his mother?
2. Is it appropriate to behave in that way towards his mother? Why?
3. How do you consider the reactions of the mother?
4. How does the man feel after reading the letter?
5. Do you think his mother is angry at him?

Discussion

Read the following text and think of a similar story that you have heard or read about.

(Designed)

My Mother

My mother was not like all mothers; she has one eye only, and this was a huge source of embarrassment to me. Our family income was poor, and she had to work as a cook for
students and teachers in my school. I could barely support her at home, and her presence at my elementary school became my nightmare.

One day, I was with a group of friends at school, and my mother came to say “hello!” to her son, to me. All my friends were staring at me, and I stood there wishing the ground would swallow me up. Then, I glared at her and run out. When I met my friends the next day at school, one of them ironically commented “your mother has only one eye, she is scary”. At that moment, I wanted to bury myself, and I also wanted my mother to disappear.

I went home full of anger and grudge against my mother. So I confronted her that day without thinking about my words, and said, “If you’re only going to make me a laughing stock, why don’t you just die?” My mother was so quiet and calm and I cared little if any about her feelings. I was thinking of escaping that house to a place where I would not feel embarrassed anymore because of my mother. So, I invested all my efforts in my studies and got a scholarship in France. I finished my studies and went back home, I got married and had children, but I was living in another city away from my past…my mother. I was satisfied with my life and happy with my family.

One day, after many years of distance and absence, my mother came to visit me and meet her grandchildren. My children started laughing at her when she stood by the door, and I shouted at her, “You monster! You are scaring my kids, get out of here.” She was very quiet and replied innocently, “I am so sorry, I got the wrong address”. And she slowly disappeared out of my sight. I felt no regret and I was totally absorbed in the moment with my kids.

Few years later, I received an urgent letter from my old elementary school, and my presence for a business meeting was obligatory. After the meeting, I decided to have a look at the old house where I spent my miserable childhood. The neighbours informed me that my mother died; I did not shed a tear. They handed me a letter that she wanted me to have.
“My dearest son, I think of you all the time. I’m sorry that I came to your house and scared your children… I was so happy when I heard that you were coming to the meeting… yet I may not be able to get out of bed and come to see you… I’m sorry that I was a constant embarrassment to you when you were growing up… you see… when you were very little, you got into an accident and lost your eye… as a mother, I couldn’t stand watching you growing with one eye… So I gave you my eye… I was so proud of my son who was seeing a whole new world for me, in my place, with that eye.” With my love!

Discussion

The group prepares the story and discusses its plot in the light of the stated questions. They also think of similar stories to provide to the other groups.

Post Discussion

A spokesperson from each group is selected to report the whole selected story while the first group asks the prepared questions.

Controlled practice

Complete the speech bubbles below with the child and the mother’s possible wishes and regrets. (Designed)

A) The child’s wishes and regret

I wish I

I wish I had

If only I hadn’t

I wish my mother

(Designed)
Now do the same for the mother

I wish
…………………………………………
…………………………………………

I wish I had
…………………………………………
…………………………………………

If only my son
…………………………………………
…………………………………………

I wish my son would
…………………………………………
…………………………………………

Follow up

Activity one: Imagine a conversation between the mother and her son where they finally decide to sit down and talk honestly to each other about their feelings, their wishes and their regrets.

Mother: My dearest son, can you sit down? I think it’s about time we discussed a few things, don’t you?

Son: Well, I suppose you’re right mother. There’s something that I think I really need to get off my chest.

Mother:
…………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………

Son:
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Mother:
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Mother:

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Son:

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……………………………………………………………………………………………………

Mother:

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……………………………………………………………………………………………………

Son:

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……………………………………………………………………………………………………

Activity two: Match the following types of people with the right description. (Adopted from Watcyn-Jones, 1995, p. 14)
People who are feeling sad and depressed.

b find it hard to think clearly or move steadily. You can often feel like this after drinking alcohol.

c are nervous and can't seem to relax or behave in a calm way.

d are unable to say anything because they are angry, upset or shocked.

e are so frightened that they can't move.

f feel slightly angry.

g are confused and unable to decide what to do. This is often because of personal or emotional problems.

h are angry and bitter about something they think is unfair.

i are worried and nervous about the future or something they're going to do.

j are extremely angry.

k are too sensitive and are easily offended or annoyed.

l are completely unable to explain or understand something.

m are unhappy because they're away from home and missing their family, friends, etc.

n are constantly convinced that people hate them or that bad things will happen, even though this isn't true.

o are so pleased with their achievements or the situation they're in that they don't think there's any need to worry or make efforts.

Lesson three: Britain’s Child Beggars

PAS: Scenario-based pattern

Objectives

1. The students will be able to write a report.

2. The students will be able to negotiate their ideas.

Stage one: Rehearsal
The students are divided into groups of 3-4 students and prepare their scenarios. The teacher divides the roles and no group is allowed to know what the role of the other group is about.

Role “A” is a single mother for a five years old child named Carla. She is living in the street and begging for her living. She is also using her child to gain more money. She is worried about the future of her child as she really wants her to go to school and have a decent life. Yet, Carla is her one and only wealth in the world.

Role “B” is a rich married couple who want to adapt a child. They have seen “Carla” many times in the streets and offered help to her mother on many occasions. The wife liked Carla, but her husband has reservations.

Stage two: Performance

The groups work on their roles to prepare their scenarios. The teacher presents the frame of the scenario indicating that the conflict is both at the mother level and between the couple. This frame helps to set the students in the mood of the scenario to better understand the distribution of roles. The students from each group discuss and prepare their roles. The teacher provides help whenever necessary.

After preparing their roles, the groups select their performers. Performers from each two groups perform their roles and organize their content to respond appropriately to the presented content from the other role. The entire class listens while the teacher takes notes for evaluation.

Stage three: Debriefing

The teacher provides comments to the performance and content of the scenarios. The statement of conflict and the provided solution are evaluated. The teacher selects the best scenario with the help of the class.

Follow up
The students watch a BBC documentary on Britain’s Child Beggars.

Video link: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=oJRGC8pMQU8

The students then prepare a journalistic report about the video contents, express their views on the topic, and compare to the Algerian context.
Appendix M

Grammar Syllabus

Lesson 1: Lack of Subject-verb agreement

PAS: focus on form

Theme: Nature

Objective:

1. The students will be able to identify lack of subject-verb agreement.

2. The students will be able to correct lack of subject-verb agreement mistakes.

Stage one: pre-task

The teacher asks the following questions:

1. What does the planet mean to you?

2. What are man’s contributions in the planet?

3. What forms of damage did man cause to the planet?

4. How can man protect the planet?

5. Has man’s dominion been good for the planet?

Stage two: during task

The students watch a video from “The Big Questions” on whether man’s domination has been good for the planet. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=W7tV_ho2vic

The students read the text below to drive their noticing to the lack of subject-verb agreement.

Man’s Domination over Planet Earth

Nature has been a source of life and death over human history. The beauty that everyone appreciates in nature and the variety that exist in species, landscapes, and natural events have always been a source of inspiration to man’s civilization. Yet, this civilization and the greed of
man in natural resources has created tensions in the stability of nature. The competition for domination has never been settled, but damage was caused to the lives and continuity of many species. Either nature or man are competing for survival. Man and industrialization have made many species extinct. Ecologists claim that although there are little knowledge about the exact number of species on the planet, a lot of facts indicates that the rates of consumption is over the average. In fact, statistics indicate a decline of more than a quarter in biodiversity in the last 35 years. The destruction of natural habitats and wildlife trade are the main generators of species decline and extinction. Whether used for medical, food, or esthetics, over-exploitation of animals and plants destroy the ecological diversity in trees, flowers, insects, and fish. This industrialization has also intervened crucially into climate change. This in turn sets a huge pressure on the adaptation and survival strategies of many species. No one deny that the rush for dominating the planet has severely damaged the ecosystem and the co-existence of many species on planet earth. There is yet some time to stop destroying the health of the planet and preserve human and species continuity on earth. *(Researcher’s own Text)*

**Discussion**

The students are divided into two main groups in order to discuss positive and negative aspects of man’s domination for the planet and raise calls for preserving green spaces (whose responsibility is it?). The sub groups (4-5 students) prepare a summary depending on their position based on the video contents and the text.

**Post discussion**

The spokespersons from both groups set the debate while their groups interfere to provide help.

**Controlled practice**

*Activity one*: 1. Identify the subject-verb agreement errors in the text. *(Designed)*
2. Correct the identified errors and justify your answers. (The teacher provides the grammatical rules for subject-verb agreement at this level in support for the students’ answers). *(Designed)*

**Activity two:** Choose the right verb to agree with the sentence subject. Justify your choice.

(Adopted from SAT Essential Grammar, p. 513)

1. Neither of the cars *(is/are)* equipped with antilock brakes.
2. The flock of geese *(was/were)* startled by the shotgun blast.
3. The data on my computer *(was/were)* completely erased when the power failed.
4. Mathematics and history *(is/are)* my favorite subjects.
5. None of the roast *(was/were)* eaten.

14. All of the games *(was/were)* played on real grass fields.
6. Pride and Prejudice *(is/are)* my favorite Jane Austen novel.
7. Neither of the twins *(is/are)* allergic to penicillin.
8. Much of what I hear in those lectures *(goes/go)* in one ear and out the other.
9. Amy, along with Jamie and Jen, *(is/are)* applying to Mount Holyoke.
10. None of the books *(was/were)* considered fit for public consumption.
11. All of the eggplant *(was/were)* used to make the sauce.
12. Amid the lilies and wildflowers *(was/were)* one solitary rose.
13. Either Ben or his brothers *(is/are)* in charge of bringing the drinks.
14. There *(is/are)* hardly even a speck of dirt left on the carpet.
15. “Stop right there!” *(shouts/shout)* the Bailey brothers, who are standing in front of me.
16. Either the Donovans or Dave *(is/are)* going to bring the plates.
17. There *(is/are)* at least a hundred people here.
Activity three: “Uninvert” the following sentences so that the verb follows the subject, then choose the correct verb form. (Adopted from SAT Essential Grammar, p. 514)

27. There (is/are), in my opinion, far too many smokers in this restaurant.
28. Over that hill (is/are) thousands of bison.
29. Riding on the bus among the children (was/were) over a dozen commuters.
30. Never before (has/have) there been such voices heard here.
31. Absent from the article (was/were) any mention of the director’s previous Broadway failures.

Lesson 2: pronoun reference

Theme: Literature and Readings

PAS: ESA pattern

Objectives

1. The students will be able to identify unclear pronoun reference
2. The students will be able to correct unclear pronoun reference.

Stage one: engagement

Read the following reviews about two novels: *Inferno* by Dan Brown and *Gone Girl* by Gillian Flynn and answer the questions below.

Review 1: *Inferno*
In the heart of Italy, Harvard professor of symbology Robert Langdon is drawn into a harrowing world centered on one of history’s most enduring and mysterious literary masterpieces . . . Dante’s Inferno. Against this backdrop, Langdon battles a chilling adversary and grapples with an ingenious riddle who pulls it into a landscape of classic art, secret passageways, and futuristic science. Drawing from Dante’s dark epic poem, Langdon races to find answers and decide whose to trust . . . before the world is irrevocably altered. (Adopted from http://www.danbrown.com/)

While listening to Sienna explain the strange night before to her, Langdon finds a cylinder in her jacket containing an altered version of Botticelli’s Map of Hell. At the bottom of the projection are the words “The truth can be glimpsed only through the eyes of death.” Before we can figure out more Sienna’s building is raided by soldiers in black, and they narrowly escape. Upon deciphering the altered image, Langdon discovers the message “CERCA TROVA” hidden in the ten layers of the Malebolge of the map. It connects the “eyes of death” phrase in the map to the Dante death mask. Once found, the mask himself contains its own hidden messages leading them further into Zobrist’s puzzle. The next few days are spent connecting dots, deciphering cryptic phrases and escaping death throughout Italy. (Adopted from blogs.harrisonhigh.org)

**Review 2: Gone Girl**

On a warm summer morning in North Carthage, Missouri, it is Nick and Amy’s fifth wedding anniversary. Presents are being wrapped and reservations are being made when Nick Dunne’s clever and beautiful wife disappears from that rented McMansion on the Mississippi River. Husband-of-the-Year Nick Dunne isn’t doing herself any favours
with cringe-worthy daydreams about the slope and shape of his wife’s head, but hearing from Amy through flashbacks in his diary reveal the perky perfectionist could have put anyone dangerously on edge. Under mounting pressure from the police and the media—as well as Amy’s fiercely doting parents—the town golden boy parades an endless series of lies, deceits, and inappropriate behaviour. Nick is oddly evasive, and he’s definitely bitter—but is he really a killer? As the cops close in, every couple in town is soon wondering how well we know the one that they love. With her twin sister Margo at his side, Nick stands by her innocence. Trouble is, if Nick didn’t do it, where is that beautiful wife? And what was left in that silvery gift box hidden in the back of her bedroom closet? (Adopted from Gillian Flynn)

Deceit, infidelity, suspicion . . . and that’s only the beginning. When Nick and Amy fall in love, they are the confident, handsome man and the beautiful, privileged young woman embracing in front of their Brooklyn Heights brownstone and sharing a laugh at the expense of less blissful couples. Eventually, this picture-perfect union falters: Amy grows weary of the “cool girl” image it’s portrayed; Nick gives rein to old impulses and easy lies. As with many marriages, friction works their way into everyday exchanges, and the glow of the honeymoon fades. But with Amy and Nick, that fracture takes a much darker turn. (Adopted from www.gillian-flynn.com)

Questions: 1. Which of the two novels do you feel more curious about to read? Why?
   2. Do you think that the threats in Inferno could be real? How?
   3. Do you find the use of historical facts and events useful in literature? Explain
   4. In Gone Girl, do you find the characters guilty or the society?
   5. Do you think that the more people love each other, the more they avenge once hurt?

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6. What end do you imagine for both novels?

**Stage two: study**

1. Sort out all the pronouns in the two reviews above.

2. Identify the words they refer to and explain whether the reference is clear or not.

   Unclear pronoun references occur when a pronoun does not refer clearly to its antecedent. Writers must avoid these pitfalls with pronouns so that the reader can get a clear and correct understanding of writers’ ideas.

   **Ambiguous pronoun reference** means that the pronoun can refer to the subject and another noun in the sentence.

   Examples:
   
   1. Janet told Ruby that she was late for work.
   2. A veterinarian will tell a client if he or she needs to medicate his or her pet.
   3. The girls waved to the boys when they saw them at the mall.

   **Vague pronoun reference** emerges when the pronouns *it, this, that,* and *which* refer to an entire idea instead of a specific noun.

   1. Reading romance novels is a pastime that I enjoy.
   2. Not studying caused me to fail the class, and it was a big mistake.
   3. I overslept and missed the bus, which caused me to be late for class.

   **Implied reference** means that the antecedent of the pronoun does not exist.

   1. Before a suspect can be arrested, they have to read him his rights.
   2. A customer shouldn’t believe a word they tell him during a sales pitch.

   **Stage three:** Activation
A. Cross out each incorrect pronoun and write in the correct one (Not every pronoun is incorrect). (Adopted from Robitaille and Connelly, 2007, p. 366)

1. I like to eat at Chaucer’s because they offer excellent vegetarian food.
2. The poet, who is internationally known, recently won a major prize.
3. The police said that they were looking for Ed and me.
4. The two students with perfect attendance records, Katya and I, were recognized at the awards ceremony.
5. Sally hopes to be accepted into the cosmetology program because she wants to learn it.
6. Pam lied to me about the girl who stole my purse. This was wrong.
7. Tom is jealous because Paolo and me have always shared our deepest secrets.
8. Please save some ice cream and cake for Elizabeth and me.
9. My aunts and uncles took different roads to the beach, but they arrived late.
10. The photographer whom I selected was expensive.

B. Alone or with a partner, correct the pronoun errors. (Adopted from Robitaille and Connelly, 2007, p. 367)

Study Partners

Larissa and Rodney like to study together, which explains why they get such good grades. She and him make a good team. She remembers details well, and he remembers concepts. She is better than him at remembering names and dates. He can help her put the details into perspective. When the two of them, her and him, study together, they do better on tests. They complement each other, which is why they do so well on tests. Their instructor, who they both respect, asked them to help her teach the class how to study effectively. The teacher and him talked about preparing for tests, and the teacher and her discussed taking good notes in class.
The class had lots of questions for them both, and the teacher and them stayed after class to answer more questions.

**Lesson 3**: misplaced modifiers

**PAS**: PPP

**Objectives**

1. The students will be able to identify misplaced, limiting, and dangling modifiers.

2. The students will be able to correct modifier errors.

**Stage one**: presentation

The teacher discusses the theme of mystery with the students in the light of the following questions:

1. Have you read any novels or watched series on ‘mysterious crimes’? Give examples.

A. Read the following summary of Agatha Christie’s “And Then There Were None” and answer the questions below.

**A Perfect Crime!**

In a house on an island, ten people have received invitations from different social classes. Once in the house, a recorded voice to the ten people accusing each one of them of committing a crime has notified them. They were murdered in a series of crimes one by one depicting a poem about little soldiers on the walls of their bedrooms. Little soldier models disappeared from the dining room after each murder. The police officers discovered ten dead bodies that were mystified at first about the murders. The puzzle was solved when a letter was written by the murderer delivered to the police station. The murderer was one of the ten people murdered who wanted to commit the perfect crime. Faking his death to commit the murders, the murderer shot himself dead after killing the other nine guests.
Questions:

1. Is there a perfect crime? Justify

2. Do you think that a criminal should be punished by the justice of law or through human sentencing in a crime? Justify

3. Look at the underlined sentence in the text.
   a. What is the function of the underlined parts in the sentences?
   b. Which word(s) of the sentence do they modify?

   **Modifiers** are words or phrases that explain, describe, or limit one or more other words in a sentence. The word *modifier* can be used for many of the parts of speech and parts of sentences. Mistakes with modifiers can create confusion about the meaning of a sentence.

   Now look at the following examples:

   1. He gave ice cream to the children covered with chocolate.
   2. The woman walked down the stairs wearing the slinky black gown.

   Identify the modifier and specify the word it modifies.

   **Misplaced modifiers** are modifiers that modify the wrong word or words because of their placement.

   **Limiting modifiers** usually come before the word or words they modify. Different placements of these modifiers *change the meaning* of the sentence.

   Limiting modifiers which are placed between two words such that it could describe either one are called **squinting modifiers**. The sentence will be unclear when using squinting modifiers.

   almost merely even nearly every day never frequently only hardly scarcely just

   Limiting modifiers which are placed between two words such that it could describe either one are called **squinting modifiers**. The sentence will be unclear when using squinting modifiers.
If a modifier has no word to describe, it is called a **dangling modifier**. Dangling modifiers can be corrected by adding a subject after the modifier or rewriting the modifying phrase to include a subject.

**Stage two: practice**

**Activity one:** Rewrite the sentences in the text above for correct modifiers placement.

**Activity two:** Draw a line from the misplaced modifier to its correct place in the sentence.

1. The child set the paper plane in the house **on fire**.
2. The mechanic worked on the car **with a wrench**.
3. The movie star left the auditorium **dressed in a fur coat**.
4. The homeowner gave a box to the mail carrier **wrapped in brown paper**.
5. The bus picked up the elderly woman **full of passengers**.

**Activity three:** In each of the following sentences, underline and label all participial phrases (PART), prepositional phrases (PREP), appositives (APP), and infinitive phrases (INF), and rewrite any sentence to fix any misplaced modifiers. (Adopted from SAT Essential Grammar, p. 543)

1. Without so much as a blink, the gleaming sword was unsheathed by the warrior.
2. To maintain good health, physicians suggest that both vigorous exercise and good eating habits are required.
3. We found my lost earring walking through the parking lot.
4. Having run for over 4 hours, the finish line was still 10 miles ahead of her.
5. Even with a sprained ankle, the coach forced Adam back into the game.
6. To find a good restaurant, there are many good online guides to help you.
7. In search of a good calculator, not a single store in the mall could help me.
8. A dutiful wife and mother, we were surprised to hear Carol complaining about domestic life.

9. To get a good jump out of the starting blocks, most sprinters say that good body positioning is essential.

10. Among the most sought-after collectibles on the market, we found the antique toys at a garage sale.

Stage three: Production

In an essay, write a retelling of a fairytale of your choice to create your own version.

Exchange your essay with your partner for edition (underline the modifiers in the essay and evaluate their placement).

Lesson 4: faulty parallelism

PAS: ESA

Objectives

1. The students will be able to identify parallel structures and faulty parallelism.

2. The students will be able write parallel structures.

Stage one: engagement

1. You are going to sit for the IELTS test or the TOEFL test. Explain your preparation techniques.

2. The students watch a video “IELTS Speaking Questions and Sample Answers” and answer the following sample questions from the video:
   a. What do you usually do at the weekends?
   b. Do you enjoy your weekends now more than you did when you were a child? Why?
   c. What was the most special gift you gave to someone?

Read the following text on tests and answer the questions below:

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Types of Tests

The classification of tests depends on the procedures of taking the tests and the purpose to do the tests. Tests can be a serious challenge and a task that demands. They can be stressful, they can help to set pedagogical principles, and they can help in designing more effective tests. There are several types of tests to assess the learning outcome and evaluating the teaching effectiveness in the language classroom. Paper and pencil language tests assess specific language components or receptive comprehension while performance-based tests are assessing language use in communication. Tests are also defined by their purpose for use. Achievement tests measure the knowledge acquired after a training period or programme of instruction. Cloze tests examine specific areas such reading comprehension through regular intervals of blank words. Diagnostic tests are used to diagnose knowledge of specific linguistic items. Discrete point tests focus on testing particular language areas. Placement tests serve in placing the learners appropriately into a course of study. And proficiency tests test how much knowledge of language the learners have. These tests can all be good indicators of the learners’ level if the purpose of assessment is properly defined and the procedures of testing have been respected.

Questions:

1. How would you describe the process of test preparation and taking?
2. Do you think that the test type can affect your test anxiety levels?

Stage two: Study

3. Look at the underlined sentence.
   a. What is the problem in the sentence?
   b. Identify other similar errors in the text.

Parallelism means using the same grammatical forms to express similar ideas.
1. To be parallel, **items in a series** must all be expressed in the same grammatical form.

**E.g.** the workers in the warehouse **pushed, pulled,** and **carried** the boxes.

**Stage three: Activation**

**Activity one:** Identify items that have correct parallelism and fix the faulty parallelism in the items that are incorrect. (Adopted from Robitaille and Connelly, 2007, p. 390)

1. The city should close the downtown area to traffic in order to reduce noise, congestion, and crime.

2. Ewen was so upset about his grade that he refused to talk, eat, or to sleep.

3. Consistency, not creativity, is my strong point.

4. My mother asked me to be home by ten and that I should not ride with anyone who had been drinking.

5. My son can punt, pass, and he can kick a football.

6. Urban sprawl affects the air quality, soil quality, and water quality.

7. Staying out late and to miss class are problems for students.

8. Claudia admires Michael Jordan for his talent and because he works hard.


10. I like neither the pay nor the hours.

11. Scientists blame global warming for the increasing frequency of killer tornadoes and flooding that is severe.

12. The party was fun because the music was great and because the food was delicious.

13. Ashley decided that she would invite the neighbors to dinner and to make pot roast.

14. Our instructor said our paper had to be typed, documented, and that it should be double-spaced.
**Activity two:** In the following sentences, circle all parts that should be parallel, and correct any problems. (Adopted from SAT Essential Grammar, p. 523)

1. Personal digital assistants can be not only practical, but also entertain for hours on end.
2. Filling out applications for summer jobs is about as much fun as when you take the SAT.
3. My lab partners were more concerned about getting the lab done quickly than about what grade they might get.
4. To say she is excitable is like saying Bill Gates is well off.
5. The sheer magnitude of the structure was awesome, but I thought the aesthetics were less than appealing.
6. The elegance of a proof lies more in its conciseness and clarity than in how clever it is.
7. I bought my tickets, reserved the hotel room, and I planned the itinerary myself.
8. We had to build our own shelters, orient ourselves without instruments, and we even had to hunt and gather our own food.
9. The rebels were neither disciplined nor did they have any overall strategy.
10. She was concerned not only with getting good grades, but also wanted to understand the material.
11. Patients with chronic fatigue syndrome tend to exhibit lethargy, a reduced affect, and they often feel depressed.
12. Taxpayers often prefer to pay high property taxes to the paying of high sales taxes.
13. Riding that roller coaster was like a trip over a waterfall in a barrel.
14. As a teacher, she loved to inspire creativity in her students, even more than she loved receiving accolades.
Lesson 5: Revision

PAS: focus on form

Theme: Religious Extremism

Objectives

1. The students will be able to identify lack of subject-verb agreement, unclear pronoun reference, modifier misplacement, and faulty parallelism.

2. The students will be able to correct lack of subject-verb agreement, unclear pronoun reference, modifier misplacement, and faulty parallelism errors.

Pre-task: the class discusses the following questions

1. How do you perceive the war against Islam in the West?

2. Do you think that politics invest religion to gain territory? How?

3. Do you think that interest in Islam is increasing or decreasing because of this war? Explain

After discussing these questions, the students watch a video on Islam in Britain entitled “Islam fastest growing religion in UK as churches decline” and read the following text:

Religious Extremism

Religious extremism is a powerful weapon in a time where ideas are power. However, some religions are targets of this extremism more than others. Because Islam was openly attacked as an extremist religion, the West has serious concerns about Islam and Muslims. Some politicians have negatively affected the tolerant thinking of people towards Islam creating the
concept of “Islamophobia”. Though this war does rise violence against Muslims, politicians in many western countries used this war against Islam in their electoral race. Extremism has also generated terrorism and calls for Jihad in Syria. In Britain, reports indicate that 600 British young Muslim have joined the conflict in Syria. The fight against one religion in the world and raising voices against Islam was started by politicians’ extreme views against Islam. The need for a moderate religious discourse and the dialogue among religions can solve the problem in the long term. (Researcher’s text)

During task: the teacher asks the students to work in groups of 4 students to write a paragraph on opposing views between religious men and politicians about the real role of religions.

Discussion: the students discuss their ideas and prepare their paragraphs.

Post-task: the students from each group set a debate about the topic and a whole class discussion is created.

Controlled practice

Read the following story and do the activities:

1. Underline the subjects and circle the verbs.
2. Sort out the pronouns and the modifiers.
3. Identify the grammatical errors and correct them.

Text: (Sample student Essay)

The Indian community has varieties of religions that everyone are free to worship different gods. Hindus worship thirty three million gods and goddesses while Muslims has one. For instance, Ganesha, Fishno, Shiva, Hanuman, Durga, Lakshmi and many other Hindu gods and goddesses makes the Hindu belief.
This story began in a small Indian family. A father who was a businessman and a Zoo owner, a mother working as a teacher, and two sons Ranvir and Ravi. The youngest son, Ravi, an intelligent and curious person, as well as, he thinks rationally for his logic, he found their religions superficial, so he started searching for the true one.

One day, and on the dining table, Ravi’s father asked him: “Ravi, why don't you like just to worship our gods as we do?” Ravi answered, “Because I have to believe in what I am convinced with, not just following their beliefs, otherwise we are not true believers”. Right then mother interrupted them yelling on the father, “Honey that’s enough, Ravi now is old enough to decide his religion”.

Something in Ravi’s mind made it wondering he decided to go somewhere to find answers for his questions. By his way to it, he passed on a mosque, and then he stopped and went back to it. He was amazed by that place, he had a special good feeling there. Then the mosque’s Imam approached Ravi with a smile on his face, Ravi said to the imam: “please I have a question and I hope I will hear the answer from you”. The Imam said smiling! "of course my son”; Ravi asked: ”why God sent his messengers that he loves to suffer for people and to correct their sins?” the Imam replied: "because God loves us, and he wants to guide us to the right way". That answer made Ravi a Muslim, he had a feeling of brotherhood and peace each time his forehead touched the floor.

Ravi’s father decided to sell the Zoo and to move from India to Canada. Everything happened very quickly, Ravi found himself on the ship cutting his relation with his hometown. In the ship’s restaurant, Ravi’s family was going to have dinner. Ravi and his mother were vegetarians, but all the dishes contain meat. The mother kindly asked the cook for some vegetarian dishes, but the cook was very rude, he gave them rice shouting on the mother: “you can have only rice, if you don't like that; you cook for yourself”.

The father replied on him: "how dare you talk with my wife like that", but Ravi and Ranvir hurried to stop the fight between their father and the cook before it started.

It was a rainy night, but the storm couldn't stop the ship from moving through the Pacific Ocean. But for a reason or another, there was a crack in the bottom of the ship, that made water came in the ship. while was that, Ravi's father and brother were sleeping, and Ravi was having a
conversation with his mother on the ship, once they knew what was happening, Ravi and his mother hurried to their room to get the father and Ranvir, but the sailors didn't allow them to go down stairs. The sailors took Ravi and his mother and threw them in the rescue boat. Ravi was standing there watching the ship sinking; he couldn't do anything to save them, in few minutes the wild wide ocean swallowed the ship.

Ravi and his mother were not the only survivors on that boat, but there was the rude cook and a sailor with a broken leg, and with time his leg got flaming, and there were no medical treatments on that boat, so there was nothing to do to save it. The cook by his knife killed the sailor, and he used his body as bait for fishing to eat. Ravi couldn't stop himself, he was angry, so he started shouting on the cook, who stands and punched Ravi's face, Ravi's mother started screaming: ”monster, you are a monster” and she slapped the cook. Ravi thought that he will kill her right then, and that's what he had done, he heated her with his knife right into her chest, it was like Ravi who had been hit by knife, his heart beat stopped for a while staring on his mother's body floating on the sea's surface as a piece of wood. To revenge for his mother Ravi took away the cook's knife and he did what the cook had done with them. The cook was so evil, and what was worse is that he brought out the evil from Ravi, so Ravi then had to live with that.

Ravi was alone on that boat, he gave his situation to God and he prayed and prayed, and he never lost hope, because his faith was strong. Ravi spent days and days lost in the ocean. He was suffering from hunger and sea-sickness, even he was vegetarian, but he had to eat something, so he began fishing.

After days of sailing, Ravi was very tired and weak he couldn't even move a finger, so he slept. Suddenly, the boat collided with something, that woke Ravi from his long sleep, and what found in the front of him was a strange small floating island. The green ground was made of the roots of the trees everything was green except the small pure blue lakes spread here and there. And what made that island even weirder was that the island was full of squirrels standing everywhere. Finally Ravi could take a rest, but with the sunset, the squirrels ran up to the trees hiding, Ravi didn't get what was going on, but he knew that something would happen, so he did the same and went up to a tree. Suddenly, a shining green light was coming from the lakes, it attracted Ravi, but he noticed that fish bodies were dissolving little by little, that because the
water turned to acid at night, and it was pure at day, he couldn't believe his eyes. It was like a sign from God to show Ravi that this place was not safe and he had to continue his trip.

with the sunrise, Ravi was ready to leave, he filled his boat with food and water while he was leaving, he stared to that wonder island for the last time saying” If I didn't discover this island, I wouldn't be survived, and if I didn't leave it, I would be dead”

Again it was a dangerous, risky journey searching for land. After almost five days, Ravi saw a land in the horizon, and because of sea-sickness he stepped out of the boat and he crept to the beach and threw his body on the sand, it was like kissing the check of safety, then he lost his consciousness.

Ravi opened his eyes, he found himself in a hospital-room, he was wondering how he went there. He saw two policemen sitting beside him, they started asking him question after question, and they wanted to know why the ship sank. He took time to realize that he reached Canada. He did tell them what happened, but he didn't want to tell them about that wonder island, he preferred to keep it as a secret, because he was not sure that what he has seen was real or fiction. Ravi was thankful to God because he stayed alive, and more than that his faith become stronger and he became a devout Muslim.

**Lesson 6:** faulty subordination

**Theme:** Taboos

**PAS:** PPP

**Objectives**

1. The students will be able to identify faulty subordination in sentences.
2. The students will be able to correct faulty subordination.

**Stage one:** Presentation

The students and the teacher discuss the following questions:

1. Do you have children at home? How many?
2. Do you think the way parents raise up their children affects their future personalities?
4. To what extent do parents have the right to change their children’s lives?

Read the text and answer the questions below.

Designer Babies

Imagine that your parents have decided to change your gender before you were born! Would you complain about their decision years later? Designer babies technology allows parents to select some features in their babies such as their gender. People find this genetic engineering shockingly unethical. As a rule, the parents of genetically modified children are not willingly doing the step. Nor are they satisfied with their decision. They think their children may grow up and have opposing voices. They probably look for some satisfaction. They want change as they may have a particular gender in the family and need another one. Or they want a gender more. To such parents, the risks are worth taking. The results are realistic and the risks of genetically transferred diseases are also reduced. Designer babies is the solution. It is the key for a better life for their children. It is an ethical practice. Opposing voices from social activists and lawyers call for banning the practice. It will lead to a disaster since it has to do with engineering the numbers and gender of the human race. This engineering technique is not governed by the law. No legislative document limits or forbids its practice. This in turn opens the floor to hungry parents. They want a specific child gender. Between the satisfactions of parents, the facilities of science, and the opposition of social ethics, designer babies is largely a controversial issue.

(Researcher’s text)

Questions:

1. Do you think that we should or should not allow designer babies? Justify

2. Do you think that the medical reasons for designing babies could give way to religious tolerance over the practice?
3. Which sentences in the text should be combined with other sentences to have a complete thought?

**Stage two: practice**

**Activity one:** Alone or with a partner, revise the text on ‘designer babies’ by combining sentences so that there are ten sentences or fewer. When you finish, underline your main clauses and circle your subordinate clauses.

**Activity two:** select the appropriate subordinating conjunction to link the ideas in each sentence.

(Adopted from Robitaille & Connelly, 2007, p. 305)

1. I know a lot about computers (though / since / unless) my father works for a computer maker.
2. (Even though / Because / If / Before) I had a snack an hour ago, let’s eat dinner now.
3. (Although / Since / Unless / While) my aunt works as a maid, her own house is a mess.
4. (While / Because / If / After) Napoleon was defeated at Waterloo, he ended his days in exile.
5. (Even though / As / If / Before) I should pass Basic Writing, I will take College Composition.

**Activity three:** Circle the appropriate relative pronoun to combine these sentences. (Adopted from Robitaille & Connelly, 2007, p. 306)

1. Our new car already has a scratch on it. We bought it last week.
   
   Our new car, (who / that / which) we bought last week, already has a scratch on it.

2. I like my geography professor. She has traveled all over the world.
   
   I like my geography professor, (who / that / which) has traveled all over the world.

3. A house was burglarized last night. It is on the next block.
   
   A house (who / that / which) is on the next block was burglarized last night.

4. I just bought a new computer. I use it for school.
   
   I just bought a new computer (who / that / which) I use for school.
5. I just talked to Marina Federov. She is my best friend.

I just talked to Marina Federov, (who / that / which) is my best friend.

Activity four: Fill in the blanks with words from the second sentence that can be used to form an appositive in the first sentence. (Adopted from Robitaille & Connelly, 2007, p. 307)

1. That telephone call was from Jose. He’s the top student in my math class.
That telephone call was from Jose, ……………………………………..

2. My car is in the parking lot. It’s an old blue station wagon with a dent in the fender.
My car, ………………………………………………….., is in the parking lot.

3. A major health problem for young women is bulimia. Bulimia is an eating disorder.
A major health problem for young women is bulimia, …………………………… .

4. I loved my first home. It was a two-story Victorian townhouse.
I loved my first home, …………………………………………………..

5. The neighbors’ dog always chases cats. It is a golden retriever.
The neighbors’ dog, ……………………………….., always chases cats.

Stage three: production

Write a paragraph on the most prominent taboos in the Algerian society.

3. Underline the subordinate and main clauses in your essay and the linking words.

4. Exchange your essay with your partner and another class mate for evaluation.

Lesson 7: faulty coordination

Theme: Internet

PAS: ESA

Objectives: 1. The students will be able to identify faulty coordination.

2. The students will be able to correct faulty coordination.
Stage one: Engagement

The teacher brainstorms the theme with the students through the following questions:

1. How often do you use the internet?

2. Do you share your personal information on the web? What is the worst that can happen?

Read the following text on and answer the questions:

Internet Hackers

The hacker culture began in the 1960s and 1970s as an intellectual movement: exploring the unknown, documenting the arcane, and doing what others cannot. Many hacker subcultures developed independently and in parallel at various universities throughout the United States: Stanford, MIT, CalTech, Carnegie Mellon, UC Berkeley, and many others. The completion of the ARPANET linked these campuses and they were able to share their collective experiences, their knowledge, humor and skills. Together, they formed the first hacker culture.

Many hackers began as expert programmers: programming gurus like Richard M. Stallman, founder of the Free Software Movement, and Linus Torvalds, creator of the Linux kernel. These programmers were able to found new loosely-connected organizations that would push the boundaries of accepted software engineering, and also technology. These figures serve to popularize the efforts of hacking to a society increasingly focused on computing.

In the realm of computer security, with the advent of ubiquitous networking, a distinction began to form between two groups: the so-called black hat and white hat hackers. Both maintain a connection to the hacker ethic, but focus on different aspects and interpretations. The black hat culture is known for flouting authority and embracing anarchy, committing acts of mischief and
malice and knowingly breaking and entering secured systems—these are the hackers most often seen in the news and popular culture. The white hats, the "ethical hackers", focus on other aspects of the hacker ethic: they seek to understand, to satiate curiosity, and to inform. (Adopted from courses.cs.washington.edu)

Questions:

1. Is internet hacking ethical? Explain
2. How to secure your computer and save your digital data?

Stage two: study

Analyse the following examples from the text to identify the number of ideas per sentence and which ideas are given more importance.

1. The completion of the ARPANET linked these campuses and they were able to share their collective experiences, their knowledge, humor and skills
2. Both maintain a connection to the hacker ethic, but focus on different aspects and interpretations.

Explanation

Writers use coordination to combine two or more ideas of equal importance.

Writers use coordinating conjunctions and a comma to link two ideas creating a compound sentence.

Coordination is also created through using compound predicates in which a coordinating conjunction links two sentences while the subject of the sentence second sentence. (no comma is needed)

Coordination is also used to link independent clauses through using a semicolon and a conjunctive adverb or a transitional expression.
**Stage three:** activation

**Activity one:** Combine the following pairs of sentences according to the directions following each pair.

1. Susan loves the beach. She lives on the coast.
   - Use a coordinating conjunction in a compound sentence.
   - Use a coordinating conjunction in a compound predicate.
   - Use a conjunctive adverb or transitional expression.

2. Mrs. Hall loves her husband. He is a lazy bum.
   - Use a coordinating conjunction in a compound sentence.
   - Use a conjunctive adverb or transitional expression.
   - Use a subordinating conjunction.

3. Miss America is very beautiful. She has shown a lot of talent as a pianist.
   - Use a coordinating conjunction in a compound sentence.
   - Use a coordinating conjunction in a compound predicate.

4. His attempt at cooking dinner was a disaster. They went out to eat.
   - Use a coordinating conjunction in a compound sentence.
   - Use a conjunctive adverb or transitional expression.

5. The employee wanted a day off. He was afraid to ask his boss.
   - Use a coordinating conjunction in a compound sentence.
   - Use a coordinating conjunction in a compound predicate.
   - Use a conjunctive adverb or transitional expression.

**Activity two:** Make any necessary corrections to the following sentences to coordinate the clauses logically and concisely. (Adopted from SAT Essential Grammar, p. 570)
1. Standardized test results can help measure the progress of individual students, and they are far less able to measure the effectiveness of entire school systems.

2. A consistent program of vigorous aerobic exercise maintains cardiovascular health, it also helps your brain to work more effectively.

3. If the Mets could just get some consistent relief pitching; they might be able to put a winning streak together.

4. We never should have bought the plane tickets, and it would have been much easier to drive.

5. The convention was not the success they had hoped it would be, their lead presenter came down with the flu; the salesman who had to fill in had never given a presentation in front of an audience.

6. Since 1998, the civil war in the Democratic Republic of Congo has been the deadliest since World War II, it has claimed over 3.3 million lives.

7. Mrs. Donovan seems to inspire every one of her students to achieve; she inspires them despite having to manage classes that sometimes number over 35 students.

8. The lab took us twice as long to complete as any of our other labs; but it was also the most worthwhile.

**Activity three:** combine the ideas in the following paragraph using coordinating conjunctions and conjunctive adverbs.

Ireland

Ireland is one of the most popular holiday destinations for Americans. Over fifty thousand tourists visit the Emerald Isle every year. The Irish speak English. They also speak the island’s traditional language of Gaelic. Ireland lies on the western edge of the British Isles. Ireland is located farther north than Maine or Vancouver. The country’s weather is very mild.
Temperatures range from above freezing in the winter to near 70 in the summer. There is rarely much snow in Ireland. Rain is very common in Ireland. Some areas receive as many as 40 inches of precipitation per year. Ireland is known as the Emerald Isle. The countryside is green year round. Tourists enjoy the long walks they can take through the countryside. The walks follow national trails that cover every area of the country. Many Americans are of Irish descent. They enjoy uncovering their roots in the old country. Visitors enjoy walking or biking over hills and along the cliffs to the sea. Tourists do not want to leave this lovely island. (Adopted from Robitaille and Connelly, 2007, p. 312)

Lesson 8: sentence fragments

Theme: talents

PAS: focus on form

Objectives: 1. The students will be able to identify sentence fragments.

2. The students will be able to correct sentence fragments.

Stage one: pre-task

The students discuss the following questions:

1. Which examples of fame making programmes do you watch?

2. What do you think of these programmes?

3. Do you think that teenagers’ talents should be encouraged through these programmes?

4. What side effects do you think these programmes have on teenagers’ lives?

Stage two: during task

Read the following text.
American Idol

American Idol has impacted people all around the globe. Made everyone who watched believe they had real talent. Many hopeful contestants shocked. When they were not selected to compete on the real show. Some of them threw tantrums. They screamed and yelled at the judges. This embarrassing, but it was often funny to watch. Their behavior demonstrates the way popular culture impacts the goals of young people. There is a negative effect. Author Terry Golway says teenagers to aspire to important professional jobs such as “engineers, mathematicians, scientists, and systems analysts” (331). He claims that now young people just want to become famous for being pop culture icons. Thinks this is a dangerous change. This desperate desire for fame explains why some people react so strangely. When rejected on American Idol. They see it as their only option for the future. (Adopted from Robitaille & Connelly, 2007, pp. 310)

Discussion

The class is divided into two main groups to debate the topic of whether talents should or should not be encouraged and the effect of TV programmes on teenage life. Each group is divided into sub-groups of 5 students. The groups prepare their arguments to set a debate with other groups.

Stage three: post-task

The students set the debate and share their arguments on the topic. The other groups listen and ask questions or add other arguments.

Controlled practice
**Activity one:** read the text again, underline the subjects once, the verbs twice, and circle the dependent clauses. Correct any mistakes.

**Activity two:** correct the following fragments by adding subjects, verbs, both subjects and verbs, and adding or removing words. (Adopted from Robitaille & Connelly, 2007, pp. 286-287)

**a. Adding subjects**

1. Stopped by around noon to talk.

2. Don’t have anything special to talk about.

3. Couldn’t wait for the end of the week.

4. Starts after the holiday.

5. Tried to use the phone without charging it.

**b. Adding verbs**

1. The road taken by the driver.

2. The old car rusting behind the barn.

3. Some students in the class.

4. The glasses in the cupboard.

5. The computer sitting on the desk.

**c. Adding subjects and verbs**

1. From morning until late in the evening.

2. Sitting quietly on the bench at the bus stop.

3. Operated by a licensed technician.

4. On the table since yesterday morning.

5. In order to deliver the package.

1. When I want to eat a home-cooked meal.
2. Which is my favorite place to eat.

3. If it rains today.

4. Who was my last English teacher.

5. Because the test is on Friday.

1. Before winter begins this year.

2. While the children are eating breakfast.

3. That I answered correctly on the last test.

4. Although it has not rained in a month.

5. Unless we have a review session before the test.

**Activity Two:** Label each item as Fragment (F) or Sentence (S) and correct the sentence fragments. (Adopted from Robitaille & Connelly, 2007, p. 290)

1. Being the mail carrier in my neighborhood.

2. There are dogs barking all the time.

3. Bitten on the leg by a mean German shepherd.

4. Because a mail carrier never knows if a barking dog will bite or not.

5. Dogs are not the only problem.

6. One yard that is a real challenge because of the poison ivy climbing up the mailbox.

7. The leaves of the plant, which sting if you touch them.

8. Another hassle for the letter carrier is neighbors who park in front of their mailbox.

9. The carrier can’t deliver the mail.

10. The problems delivering mail in my neighborhood safely.

1. Making a meal for a family.

2. A real challenge to satisfy everyone’s tastes.
3. Some cooks take a vote to decide what to cook.
4. Kids who hate most foods usually like peanut butter and jelly.
5. Teenagers usually love pizza and hamburgers.
6. Which can be fattening for adults.
7. Don’t try to please everyone.
8. Because most cooks don’t have a lot of time to make a meal.
9. Cooked in the oven for half an hour.
10. A favorite recipe that my mother gave me.

**Lesson 9: run-ons**

**Theme:** Tourism and culture

**PAS:** PPP

**Objectives:**
1. The students will be able to identify run-ons.
2. The students will be able to correct run-ons.

**Stage one:** Presentation

The teacher asks the students the following questions:

1. Which country do you want to visit in the near future? Why?
2. What do you know about the culture of this country?
3. Do you think that your visit to this country will let you know more about its culture? Explain

After discussing these questions, the students watch a video on “cultural tourism” and discuss the relationship between tourism and culture in the light of the video content.
The teacher writes the following sentence extracted from the video on the board:

1. The relationship between culture and tourism is receiving increasing international attention from development agencies, governments, and the tourism and creative industries, you will explore the emerging and in some cases controversial connections between cultural tourism and the environment.

2. Importantly, Graduates will be prepared for entrepreneurial careers and inspiring futures if you are interested in a challenging career in cultural tourism linked to any aspect of the creative sports and heritage industries, then this is definitely the course for you.

The teacher guides the students to recognize the problem in the provided examples through asking them to read the examples and sort out the ideas in each sentence and the number of sentences. As they identify the problem, the teacher asks them to define it and give examples.

Because they make writing difficult to understand, run-ons are major English errors. Run-ons consist of two or more independent clauses that are run together without proper punctuation. There are two types of run-ons:

1. A **fused sentence** incorrectly joins or fuses together two independent clauses without any punctuation. E.g. The study of culture is important for social development it is an interesting filed to invest in.

2. A **comma splice** incorrectly joins or splices together two independent clauses with only a comma.

E.g. The study of culture is important for social development, it is an interesting filed to invest in.
The teacher also guides the students to strategies of identifying and correcting the comma splice error.

Identifying subjects and verbs that make a complete thought can help you determine whether there is more than one independent clause in a word group. Remember that independent clauses cannot be run together with no punctuation or with only a comma between them.

**Correcting run-ons**

1. Separate the independent clauses with a **period**, and start the second with a **capital letter**.
2. Join the two independent clauses with a **comma** and a **coordinating conjunction**.
3. Join the two independent clauses with a **semicolon**, a **conjunctive adverb** or a **transitional expression**, and a **comma**. If you use a conjunctive adverb or transitional expression to join two sentences, you must use a semicolon and not a comma after the first independent clause. Joining two sentences with a comma and a conjunctive adverb or transitional expression creates a comma splice.
4. Join the two independent clauses with a **semicolon**. Use only a semicolon to connect two independent clauses when the two ideas are closely related and their relationship is clear to the reader.
5. Join two independent clauses with a **subordinating conjunction**.

**Stage two: Practice**

**Activity one:** Correct each run-on by separating the independent clauses with a period or by adding a comma and a coordinating conjunction or just a coordinating conjunction if the comma is already present. (Adopted from Robitaille & Connelly, 2007, p. 296)

1. The economy is good right now, there are lots of job openings.
2. Interest rates are low people can afford to buy a new house.
3. Banks are making loans almost everyone can qualify.

4. Consumers are buying new cars in record numbers, last month over ten thousand new cars were bought in this state.

5. Sometimes saving money is the wise course of action, later you can use the money for a down payment on a house or car.

1. Neighbors can be a source of support, the people in the neighborhood can also be a source of annoyance or danger.

2. Neighbors can help one another in times of need they might give their next door neighbor a ride when her car breaks down.

3. Neighbors watch out for the houses around them, therefore, they will investigate or call the police if they see something suspicious.

4. Getting a smile and a wave on the way home feels good someone putting the paper on the doorstep or delivering a package creates a sense of support.

5. Neighbors contribute to our quality of life most people appreciate their neighbors.

**Activity four**: Correct the following run-ons by joining the two clauses with a subordinating conjunction. (Adopted from Robitaille & Connelly, 2007, p. 295)

1. Neighborhood organizations can help a neighborhood come together they provide a way for neighbors to meet and discuss common concerns.

2. These organizations also tackle problems, neighbors may have specific complaints.

3. If there are services that the neighborhood wants the city may work well with the organization.

4. Some neighborhoods have organized themselves, many neighborhoods do not have any organization to represent the residents.

5. A few organizations were formed in the 1970s, now such organizations are quite common.
Activity five: Alone or with a partner, correct the run-ons in the following passage. (Adopted from Robitaille & Connelly, 2007, p. 298)

Future Movie Stars

My friends Jane and Carol are moving to California within a few weeks. They have always been interested in motion pictures, they hope to become movie stars. The two women studied acting in college, therefore they believe that they can find careers in the movie industry. When they arrive in Hollywood, California, they expect to work part-time as waitresses or office assistants while they audition for acting parts. Jane read a book about going to Hollywood that advised actors to get an agent, but Carol is afraid that an agent will cost too much money. Fortunately, Carol has a contact at one of the movie studios he said he would help them. Maybe someday I will see them on the big screen, then I can brag about my good friends.

Stage three: Production

In a 10 lines paragraph, explain how the cultural variety in Algeria could be used to develop touristic activities. Give examples from your local environment. When your paragraph is ready:

1. Justify your use of the commas
2. Underline your dependent clauses and circle your independent clauses.
3. Exchange your paragraph with your partner and correct any mistakes in comma use and linking clauses.

Lesson 10: Revision

Theme: Euthanasia

PAS: ESA

Objectives:
The students will be able to correct faulty subordination, faulty coordination, run-ons, and sentence fragments.

**Stage one: Engagement**

The students watch a video on “euthanasia” entitled “Taking Mercy- Euthanasia Debate” and then discuss the topic in the light of the following questions:

1. Do we have the right to die?
2. Do we have the right to assist other to end their lives?
3. What is the difference between ‘euthanasia’ and ‘assisted suicide’?
4. Should a person end his life because of his physical pain and suffering?

**Stage two: study**

Read the following text and do the activities below:

Euthanasia is the act of intentionally killing a person, painlessly. When this may be construed as beneficial (for example, to relieve suffering) to the person who dies. There are different types of euthanasia. Voluntary euthanasia is at the request of a fully competent person wishes to die. Non-Voluntary euthanasia takes place a person is unable to consent due to age, physical and/or mental incapacity An example of this the decision to stop artificial feeding and hydration for someone in a Persistent Vegetative State. Involuntary euthanasia when a dying person could have been but was not asked for their consent, when a request for continued treatment is refused. Attaching DNR notices to the medical notes of elderly or disabled patients without their knowledge can be considered a form of involuntary euthanasia.

Assisted suicide, is often considered a form of euthanasia, when a person is given the means or the information to kill themselves. A third party is involved may or may not be present
during the act. When a doctor is implicated this is known as ‘physician assisted suicide.’ In the US this is most notoriously associated with Dr. Jack Kevorkian.

Euthanasia can be active or passive. Active describes cases where an action is performed with the intention of causing death. An example of this giving a lethal injection. This is currently illegal in the U.K. Passive euthanasia cases where death is intentionally caused by inaction. This would be withdrawing or withholding artificial nutrition or hydration or the use of a ventilator. There are also times where increasing pain relief such as morphine may shorten a person’s life this is not the intention so is seen as morally different. The latter case is an example of the doctrine of double effect this principle developed from Catholic moral theology maintains an effect that would be morally unacceptable if it came about intentionally would be acceptable if unintended even if it could have been predicted. (Adopted from Disability & Bioethics Resource Pack, Euthanasia V1.0 Nov 2004)

Activity

1. Underline the dependent clauses and circle the independent clauses.

2. Identify faulty subordination, faulty coordination, run-ons, and fragments.

3. Edit the text to correct the mistakes.

Stage three: activation

Read the following two draft paragraphs on the same topic and then:

1. Sort out all the coordinating conjunctions, conjunctive adverbs, subordinating conjunctions, and relative pronouns.

2. Look at each sentence to correct all run-ons and the fragments.

Paragraph 1: (Student sample writing)
Katherine was a journalist, write about existed social stories. One day she was walking on the beach, suddenly she found a bottle, she felt curious about it and once she opened it she find a letter, she started reading it, it was a love letter from a man to his lover. There was no sign for her to find him, except the number of the printer. She published it in her newspaper, and she received many responds because so many people were curious to know about the story of this letter. She searched a lot she was about to lost the hope. Finally, she find the printer who helps her to find the owner of this letter. Katherine met John who was the writer. He told her his story with his wife Elena after many time of meeting. During this meeting, she loved his personality and she fell in love with him. John was a fish man, and painter, who loved his wife Elena very much, but he didn't show her how much he loves her. Elena was very disappointed because of his behaviors, so she committed a suicide. After that. While Katherine told John how much she is interesting about him. John was so shocked, because Katherine was just a journalist for him, nothing more. Katherine was hopeless and when she was walking on the beach, she found another letter, but this time it's sending from a woman, she went to John's house and showed him the letter. he directly knew that it was written by his wife because of her handwriting. He realized that his wife is still alive Katherine published the whole story attempting to find his wife to keep him happy. Finally, Elena appeared again and comes back to her husband John was so happy and looked for Katherine to thank her, but he didn't find her. All what he found, a letter in bottle written by Katherine without any address.

Paragraph 2: (Student sample writing)

Katherine is a curious journalist, who lives in California- U.S.A. She likes to search for new stories to write them in her journal, so for that she travels to many places around the USA. One day she felt tired from searching without finding interesting stories. So she decided to go to
Miami for a small break. It was rainy day when Katherine went to the beach for a walk, suddenly she stepped on a bottle, she picked it and once she opened it, she saw a letter inside it, so she read it, it was a love letter from a man to his wife, he was apologizing to her, Katherine was interesting to know the story behind this letter, but she didn't have anything that could help her to reach that man only what she found was the number of the printing machine. From that number, she started searching for the owner of that printing machine, until she found him, and he gave her the address and the name of the owner of that letter. She hesitated at the beginning, but she decided to go to that man. When she arrived to his house, she knocked, and he opened. He asked her who she was, then she presented herself to him, as well as she explained to him the reason behind her visit, after that, he told her his story. His name was John, he was a fisherman, as well as a painter, his wife called Elina, and when they got married, they were very happy, but after a while John was spending all of his time in fishing and painting, so Elina thought that he wasn't in love with her anymore, but John loved her so much and he didn't know how to show that to her. One day and after a long fight between them Elina came out and because she was so angry, she committed suicide in the sea. From that time, he started writing letters to say that he loves her and he is sorry for everything, and he throws them in that sea where Elina committed suicide. Katherine had a special feeling for John, but she didn't show that to him. In that way, John was living in the memories of his wife, and Katherine wanted to be with him, but that wouldn't happen because John felt guilty, he blamed himself about what happened with Elina and he couldn't forget her.

Lesson 11: Revision

Theme: Memories and dreams

PAS: focus on form
Objectives

1. The students will able to correct the eight grammatical errors presented during the training.
2. The students will be able to write grammatically error-free sentences.

Stage one: pre-task

The students discuss the theme in the light of the following questions:
1. What nice memories and unpleasant memories do you hold from your childhood?
2. What childhood memory is stuck in your mind? Why?
3. Do you believe that dreams are messages?
4. Have you ever seen dreams that became reality?
5. Can be dreams be scary? How?

Stage two: during task

Read the following two essays on a dream and a childhood memory.

Essay 1: Childhood memory (student written sample)

The first day at school is a big day for every child but it was not the case for girl who used to spend all the time with her friends playing with dolls just like me. It was Saturday; my mom came early in the morning and woke me up saying that it was my first day at school so. I got up to get ready. My older brother came with me and my sister Sara, who is two years older than I.

Once we arrived at the school, the children were aligning themselves in rows facing the Algerian flag in the front. Then they asked us to sing the national anthem, but the problem was that i wasn't aware about it, so i was just moving my lips. After we finished, they took us to out classes, and at that time my brother left me, as well as my sister went to her class, but before she did, she promised me to come to me at the break time. I realized at that moment that I was alone with strangers, so i was afraid.
An old woman, who was our teacher, came and asked us to enter the classroom, she started asking each one about his name, and his parents' job and so on. Everybody was talking, making noise, and getting to know each other except me. Then we heard the bell ringing, and everybody ran out. At that second I remembered that my sister would be waiting for me, so i ran out too. I stood with a smiling face and excited eyes searching for my sister through the crowds. I waited and waited but she didn't come. I wanted to cry but I was afraid that they would make fun of me, so I stopped my tears, but I couldn't hold it in any longer, yes. I cried and for long, even after we came back to the classroom.

Finally the class was over. I came out with an upset, angry face. Suddenly i found Sara waiting for me, I ran to her blaming her, I said "it's OK, it's just for one day", but it wasn't as I thought, because the next morning my mom woke me up early again saying that i have to go to school. That was a shock for me, because i didn't want to deal with the same situation as the previous day. So i refused to go, I was crying and shouting every morning. My mother and all of my sisters and brothers tried all of their best to make me go, but nothing worked, I rarely went to school, and sometimes didn't go at all. I took a time to accept that unexpected change in my life, but at the end i realized the importance of education.

**Essay 2: Dream (student written sample)**

Dream is word means a series of images and events that happen in your mind while you are asleep in the Oxford dictionary. In my life, all my dreams are reflection of what happen to me or what I think about it in the day. Until One day, I studies all the day, and I arrived to my house at six pm, I asked mom to prepare to me a fast food to stop my huge ache of hunger. I go to my bed room, and I relax in the bed, unconsciously I slept, I saw myself with my friends of high
school in the library, me looking for books to read it, one of my colleagues ask me to borrow the interpretation dream book because he had something about me to interpret it.

I find this book and I went to him, he said: "I see you Randa, in my dream, and you are wearing a white dress, with red hair, and your face torn to black color, and you are wearing a big bag black also". So we started to interpret, we find that the red hair means I will go to a dangerous area, the big bag means big mistakes done in my life, the black face means a strong punishment I will have and as we know all that white dress means the death, I tried to organize all of this and I understood that the dream is a plan, I will die and the God will punish me because I did lot of mistakes in my life. Suddenly, I heard a low voice called me: "Randa; Randa wake up". Finally I wake for all this but some fear take place in my heart; I couldn't even eat a small piece of bread. I was just thinking all the night. "I wasn't afraid of death but the punishment for what because I know that all people will die one day but why I have a lot of mistakes". I started to revise myself, and ask her if I hurt someone and I didn't ask forgiveness from him. Suddenly I remember my neighbor, she is a orphan girl, who stopped to visit us because I hurt her, I decided to go to her asking for forgiveness.

Next day, at seven am, I woke up and I went to visit her and I pleased this girl to forgive me because it was just a mistake between us. By this dreams and this, I will never hurt someone without apologies to forgive me because it is not a shame to do it even if or she is a younger than me and in the situation the life teach me a big lesson so I should learn from it.

Discussion

Two groups of 4 students each prepare a summary on both paragraphs and a report on the grammatical errors.
**Stage three**: Post-task

The students present their summaries to the class and discuss the identified grammatical errors. The rest of the class follows and add any missing errors.

**Controlled practice**

*Activity one*: correct the identified errors in the two essays.

*Activity two*: In the following two stories:

1. Underline the dependent clauses and circle the independent clauses.

2. Sort out the subjects, the verbs, the pronouns, and the modifiers.

3. Underline the coordinating conjunctions and conjunctive adverbs.

4. Identify any run-ons and sentence fragments.

5. Rewrite the story by correcting all the mistakes.

**Story 1**: Student sample writing

Once upon a time, there was a little girl who lived in a village near the forest. Whenever she went out, she wore a red riding cloth, so everyone in the village called her Little Red riding hood. She had a little red-haired and blue eyes. She was loved by everyone who looked at her but most of all by her grandmother and there was nothing that she would not have given the child.

One day, her mother said to her, “come little Red Riding Hood, here is a piece of cake and a bottle of wine. Take them to your grandmother, she is ill and weak and when you are going walk quietly and do not run off the path or you may fall and break the bottle.” “I will take great care”, said little Red Riding Hood.
The grandmother lived out in the wood half a league from the village and just as little Red Riding Hood entered the wood, a wolf met her, "Red Riding Hood did not know what a wicked animal the wolf was and she was afraid of him.

The wolf asked her, "where are you going?", "to my grandmother", she answered. She thought it was kind hearted, so she listened to it when it told her to pick some blue bells and daffodils for her grandmother. While little Red Riding Hood was picking flowers, the wolf entered her grandmothers’ house and ate her up. Then she put on her grandmothers’ nightgown and night cap and went into the bedroom.

When little Red Riding Hood got to her grandmother’s house, she found the door wide open. Obviously, something was wrong. Even her grandmother was odd-looking. "oh grandmother, what big ears you have", she said. “the better to hear you with, my dear”, said the wolf. “Grandmother, what big eyes you have!” “the better to see you with”. “grandmother, what big teeth you have”. “the better to eat you with”. And the wolf jumped out of bed and swallowed up little Red Riding Hood. A huntsman heard the scream of the girl and opened the door and saved her with her grandmother by cutting out the wolf’s stomach. Finally, both of them lived happily ever after and the life teaches the Red Riding Hood a good lesson.

**Story 2: Student sample writing**

Once upon the time, there was a man who was living in a big house in the most pretty among her sisters. they were living very happy life together. But unfortunately, this man become poor, he lost all his wealth so that he was obliged to sell his big house and buy a new small house.

The pretty gift was the time, she didn't become a sad girl because her father lost his wealth, unlike her sisters, because she has a wealthy heart, full of love, tenderness and satisfaction. she was very pretty as well as very intelligent. One day when pretty was preparing the lunch, her father called her as well as her sisters he told them that he has a to travel away because he find a job, and he ask them what they want him to bring for them. The first one asked him to bring a golden ring, the second one wanted a golden ring too. but the pretty told him that she want just a flower, a beautiful flower, that's all.
The father took his horse and went to his job. when he was getting back to his house, he saw a very big and beautiful house, full of different beautiful and colorful flowers, when he saw this flowers, he remembered his pretty little girl who asked him to bring to her just flower

The father went to that beautiful garden and he takes off a red flower to his daughter. Suddenly, he heard a horrible sound coming toward him. when he turned he saw a very scary beast. This beast was very angry when he saw the man taking of his precious flower. The father asked the beast to forgive him, but this latter refused unless one condition, which is in fact a revenge or punishment to that father. This condition was the father have to go home and bring back one of his daughters to live with that beast or he will kill him. The father accepted his condition and went to his house. The pretty girl: OOH! dad you come, hello, I really miss you daddy! with a big smile on her face. The father : Hi! Sweetie The pretty: how are you daddy, you sound sad! what's wrong? The father told his daughter about the events that happened to him. The daughters were very afraid about what will happen to them, but the youngest and the prettiest daughter accepted to go and live with that beast.

When she reached the beast's place. The pretty was so afraid when she saw the beast for the first time, but within time, she got used of him. she was so kind with him, but he was always trying to hide his face in order not to see him. But her kindness and tenderness let him fell in love with her

The pretty didn't lose hope and she kept trying to help him to tell her his story, but he declared her order. one day, she was walking in the place she heard a voice coming from the beast's room, when she entered she found him ill, when she catches his hand, she started cry her tears fall in beasts face, and suddenly he turned to a very handsome man, and he told her his story with a witch which turned him to a beast, then he asked her to marry him. The pretty girl accepted and they lived a very beautiful life together full of love, happiness and tenderness
ملخص

بالرغم من غياب اجماع في الأبحاث المنجزة حول أنجع طرق تدريس المفردات والنحو هناك بالمقابل اتفاق حول أهمية طرق تدريس اللغة الثانية واللغة الأجنبية في تطوير فهم المفردات وال نحو عند المتعلم. تتناول هذه الدراسة دور إدماج أنماط مختلفة لأنشطة متسلسلة ترتيبها إلى أثر المفردات المثلقة والمنتجة وكذا الدقة النحوية في تركيبة الجملة المكتوبة لدى 75 طالباً من السنة الثالثة بقسم اللغة والأدب الإنجليزي لجامعة محمد الأمين دباغين سطيف. تقوم الدراسة على النهج الصحيح لتقنية ‘الغوص’ و استراتيجية التعلم القائم على المهام، ونمت التفاعل الاستراتيجي لتدريس المفردات وذلك بهدف تنمية حجم المفردات المثلقة والمنتجة. كما تعود للدراسة على نهج نمط التدريس-التطبيق-الإنتاج، نمط التركيز على الشكل، ونمط التفاعل.

الدراسة- التفاعل في تدريس النحو بغرض تعزيز الدقة النحوية على مستوى الجملة المكتوبة. وله اتباع الشبيه التجريبي غير الإتقاني للاختبار القياسي والبعدي على الفوج المرجعي الواحد لدراسة دور إدماج استراتيجية الغوص، نمط التعليم القائم على المهام، ونمط التفاعل الاستراتيجي باستعمال إختبارين لقياس مستوى المفردات المثلقة والمنتجة. أجريت هذه الدراسة باستخدام تصميمين من النهج شبه التجريبي حيث انتهت الدراسة منهج المجموعة الضابطة غير العشوائية تصميم اختبار القبلي-الاختبار البعدى لدراسة دور الأنماط المدمجة في تطوير مستوى المفردات المثلقة والمنتجة، وانتباه منهج المجموعة الوحدة تصميم الاختبار القبلي-الاختبار البعدى لبحث دور دمج الأنماط المذكورة أعلاه لتعزيز الدقة النحوية لكتابة الجملة.

أظهرت نتائج المرحلة الشبيه التجريبي نحو حجم المفردات المثلقة والمنتجة لدى الفوج التجريبي عند نهاية شب هنجرة، كما أثبتت النتائج ارتفاع مستوى الدقة النحوية في مستوى الجملة لدى الطلبة ودراسة العلاقة بين نتائج الفوج التجريبي في اختبارات قياس المفردات المثلقة والمنتجة وكذا اختبار الدقة النحوية لتركيبات الجملة. تأكد وجود علاقة ارتباطية بين حجم المفردات والدقة النحوية. على ضوء هذه النتائج، أكدت الدراسة فعالية دمج أنماط مختلفة لتسلسل التمارين في تطوير مستوى المفردات المثلقة والمنتجة وكذا الدقة النحوية في مستوى كتابة الجملة. وتوقع بإدماج أنماط أخرى لأنشطة متسلسلة وهذا لدراسة أعمق للدور الفعال للإدماج.
Résumé