



Mohamed Khider University of Biskra
Faculty of Letters and Languages
Department of Foreign Languages

MASTER THESIS

Letters and Foreign Languages
English Language
Sciences of the Language

Submitted and Defended by:
Raihana **FOURAR**

On: Saturday, 22 June 2019

**An Evaluation of Formulaic Sequences Difficulties in Affecting
Learners' Communicative Competence
The Case of Master Students of English at Biskra University**

BOARD OF EXAMINERS :

Ms. Kenza MERGHMI	(Chairperson)	(University of Biskra)
Dr. Ahmed Chaouki HOADJLI	(Supervisor)	(University of Biskra)
Dr. Tarek ASSASSI	(Examiner)	(University of Biskra)

Academic Year: 2018/2019

Declaration

I, Raihana **FOURAR**, hereby declare that this dissertation presented for a Master degree has been solely composed except where indicating by referencing to the work of others. I further confirm that this work has not been submitted for any institution in order to obtain a degree.

This work was carried out and completed at Mohamed KHEIDER University of BISKRA, ALGERIA.

Certified:

Miss: Raihana FOURAR

Master Student, Section of English.

Dedication

*To all of those who are meant to cross my path
Whether for a Lesson or a Blessing.*

Acknowledgements

Above all, I am undoubtedly compelled to give a standing ovation to **ALLAH**, the Lord of the worlds, for giving me willingness, strength and patience to accomplish this work, and to reach this stage of my educational life.

My most sincere gratitude would go to my supervisor **Dr. Ahmed Chaouki HOADJLI** for his prerogative guidance and truthful commitment throughout the development of this research study. His coherent instructions, insightful criticism and invaluable expertise in methodology had a massive goodness of impact on this work. Without him, this dissertation would not have reached its present form.

My appreciation go to the Board of Examiners **Dr. Tarek ASSASSI** and **Ms. Kenza MERGHM** for their full consent to evaluate this dissertation. I would like to point out that **Dr. Tarek ASSASSI** has provided me with rich sources and useful tips about the area of formulaic sequences. A profound debt of gratitude is owed to him.

Special thanks go to **Dr. Mostefa MEDDOUR** for his auspices during the observation sessions, in addition to providing me with the relevant materials. I am gratefully indebted to him for his valuable suggestions and advice that he has provided me with from the beginning of this work.

My warmest thanks go to my father **Pr. M'HAMMED** who helped and encouraged me to make this work done. His dedication and devotion to science and scientific research strongly affected the conduction of this research.

I would particularly like to single out my fellow student **Ms. Maroua HEZABRA**, and thank her for the tremendous assistance rendered to me whenever needed.

I would also like to express my genuine gratitude to **Selma, Asma** and **Oussama** for their constant support and useful advice at every moment of this dissertation writing.

I extend my thanks to every person who has enlighten me with a piece of advice, an idea or an information.

Abstract

Mastering formulaic sequences can pave the way for EFL learners to reach an advanced level in terms of communication. However, a major difficulty can be created by formulaic sequences along with the type of meaning they hold. Accordingly, this study aimed to spotlight on the seriousness of this difficulty by evaluating its effect on learners' communicative competence, notably the oral and written aspects, in an academically based context. In addition, it sought to determine how learners were instructed in the field of formulaic sequences. To address these matters, a qualitative research approach was adopted, and a case study design was used. With regard to data collection methods, classroom observation and document analysis were employed respectively. The target population of this study was Master one students at the section of English at Biskra University wherein one group was selected as a sample. The findings revealed that despite EFL learners received direct and explicit instruction in the pre-assigned field of study, they had a difficulty when dealing with the non-literal meaning of formulaic sequences. Moreover, the created effect by this difficulty on learners' communicative competence was captured as negative since learners became unable to integrate formulaic sequences adequately in their spoken and written discourse. Therefore, researchers are recommended to develop instructional practices and strategies by taking into consideration the induced difficulties by formulaic sequences so that the latter will be mastered, and communicative competence will be improved.

Keywords: Communicative competence, EFL learners, formulaic sequences, non-literal meaning

List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

CC: Communicative Competence

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

Dr.: Doctor

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

Et al.,: Et alia (and others)

e.g.: Example

FLL: Foreign Language Learners

FSs: Formulaic Sequences

i.e.: Id est (it means)

p.: Page

RH: Research Hypothesis

RQ: Research Question

List of Tables

Table 1.1: Bachman and Palmer’s Model of Communicative Competence.....	21
Table 2.1: Terms Used in the Literature to Refer to Formulaic Sequences and Formulaicity..	37
Table 2.2: Proposed Typical Word combinations for Collocations by O’Dell and Mccarthy (2017).....	42
Table 2.3: The Differences between Idioms and Collocations.....	45
Table 2.4: Role of Formulaic Sequences in Social Interactions.....	48
Table 2.5: Role of Formulaic Sequences in Saving Processing Effort.....	49
Table3.1: Main Characteristics of Research Paradigms.....	58
Table3.2: Some Qualitative Research Designs/Strategies.....	60
Table 3.3: Total of Correct and Wrong Answers in the Activity.....	79

List of Figures

Figure 1.1: Communicative Competence Model Proposed by Canale and Swain (1980).....	19
Figure 1.2: Elaborated Model of Communicative Competence by Canale (1983).....	20
Figure 1.3: Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell's Model of Communicative Competence.....	23
Figure 1.4: Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor's Model of Communicative Competence.....	26
Figure 3.1: Main Types of Sampling in Social Sciences.....	66

List of Appendices

Appendix 1: Consent letter for the head of section

Appendix 2: Consent letter the head of department

Appendix 3: Consent letter for the teacher

Appendix 4: Classroom observation checklist: Piloting stage

Appendix 5: Classroom observation checklist (1)

Appendix 6: Classroom observation checklist (2)

Appendix 7: Sample of students' test

Appendix 8: Samples of students' answers on the activity

Contents

Declaration	II
Dedication.....	III
Acknowledgments.....	IV
Abstract.....	V
List of Abbreviations and Acronyms.....	VI
List of Tables.....	VII
List of Figures.....	VIII
List of Appendices.....	IX

Contents

General Introduction.....	1
1. Statement of the Problem.....	1
2. Research Questions.....	2
3. Research Hypotheses.....	3
4. Research Aims.....	3
5. Significance of the Study	4
6. Research Methodology for this Study.....	5
7. Choice of the Writing Style.....	5
8. Structure of the Dissertation.....	5

CHAPTER ONE: Communicative Competence as a Pivotal Need for Foreign Language Learners

Introduction.....	9
1.1 The Notion of Communication.....	9
1.2 Types of Communication.....	11
1.2.1 Verbal communication.....	11
1.2.2 Non-verbal communication.....	11
1.3 The Notion of Competence.....	12
1.4 Shifting from Competence to Performance.....	14
1.5 An Overview on Communicative Competence.....	15
1.5.1 Defining communicative competence.....	17
1.5.2 Models of communicative competence.....	19
1.5.2.1 Canale and Swain’s Theoretical Model 1980.....	19
1.5.2.2 Bachman and Palmer’s Framework of Communicative Language Ability 1990.....	21
1.5.2.3 Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell’s Model 1995.....	23
1.5.2.4 The Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) 2001.....	24
1.5.4.5 Usó-Juan and Martinez-Flor’s Framework of Integrating the Four Skills 2006.....	25
1.6 Towards the Development of Communicative Competence.....	27
1.6.1 Communicative Language Teaching Approach.....	27
1.7 Relevance between Communicative Competence and Formulaic Sequences.....	28

Conclusion.....	30
-----------------	----

CHAPTER TWO: Formulaic Sequences as a Promising Field of Study

Introduction.....	33
2.1 Formulaic Sequences.....	33
2.1.1 Historical overview of formulaic sequences.....	33
2.1.1.1 Prior to 1970.....	34
2.1.1.2 From the 1970's onwards.....	35
2.1.2 Labelling and defining formulaic sequences.....	36
2.1.3 Characterising and identifying formulaic sequences.....	39
2.1.4 Main categories of formulaic sequences.....	41
2.1.4.1 Collocations.....	41
2.1.4.1.1 Defining collocations.....	41
2.1.4.1.2 Types of collocations.....	42
2.1.4.2 Idioms.....	43
2.1.4.2.1 Defining idioms.....	43
2.1.4.2.2 Types of idioms.....	44
2.1.4.2.3 Idioms versus collocations.....	44
2.1.4.3 Phrasal verbs.....	45
2.1.5 Functions of formulaic sequences.....	47
2.2 Formulaic Sequences and Language Teaching.....	49

2.3 Learning Difficulties Caused by Formulaic Sequences.....	52
Conclusion.....	53

CHAPTER THREE: Field Work and Data Analysis

Introduction.....	57
3.1 Research Methodology: Theoretical background.....	57
3.1.1 Research paradigms in educational research.....	57
3.1.2 Research approaches.....	59
3.1.3 Research design(s) / strategy(ies).....	60
3.1.4 Data collection methods.....	61
3.1.5 Data analysis procedures.....	63
3.1.6 Sampling techniques.....	64
3.2 Research Methodology for this Study: Choices and Rationale.....	66
3.2.1 Research paradigm.....	66
3.2.2 Research approach.....	67
3.2.3 Research Design / Strategy.....	67
3.2.4 Data collection methods.....	67
3.2.4.1 Classroom observation.....	68
3.2.4.1.1 Aim and structure.....	68
3.2.4.1.2 Piloting and validation.....	69
3.2.4.2 Document analysis.....	69

FORMULAICN SEQUENCES DIFFICULTIES AND COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

3.2.4.2.1 Aim and structure.....	69
3.2.5 Data collection procedures.....	70
3.2.5.1 Data collection procedure for the classroom observation.....	70
3.2.5.2 Data collection procedure for document analysis.....	71
3.2.6 Data analysis procedures.....	71
3.2.6.1 Data analysis procedures for the classroom observation.....	71
3.2.6.2 Data analysis procedures for document analysis.....	71
3.2.7 Population / Sampling technique.....	72
3.3 Study Description and Rationale.....	72
3.4 Results and Discussion.....	73
3.4.1 Results of classroom observation.....	74
3.4.2 Results of document analysis.....	79
3.5 Synthesis of the Findings	81
Conclusion.....	83
General Conclusion.....	84
Pedagogical Implications.....	85
Limitations of the Study.....	86
References.....	86

Appendices

ملخص

General Introduction

Considering the increasing importance of the English language around the world and its use as a lingua franca, Algeria is making efforts to be updated with globalisation by bettering the process of English language teaching. Accordingly, communicative competence has been set as a foremost goal in the Algerian curriculum with regard to English as a foreign language (EFL) learners because being communicatively competent entails the ability of conversing and communicating successfully in the target language.

In fact, learners are becoming more persuaded by the fact that appearing fluent and communicating smoothly can be achieved through using complex syntactical forms and combinations. Therefore, they have been recently targeting formulaic sequences since they act as one of the keys for improving their communicative competence. Yet, mastering formulaic language can be a hard task for them because of some learning complexities which they may come across.

Accordingly, the researcher is attempting to conduct a study about some difficulties which EFL learners encounter in their learning of formulaic sequences, focusing on the semantic level. Ultimately, there will be an evaluation of the effect of the potential difficulties on learners' communicative competence that will refer, particularly, to oral and written aspects in the current research.

1. Statement of the Problem

The overwhelming value given by EFL learners to communication necessitates a great deal of awareness from their part, relating to language generally, and to formulaic sequences more specifically. In terms of communicative competence, the body of literature found evidence that formulaic sequences are of high importance since they contribute in the effective conveying of a message, and the avoidance of any breakdown in communication. In this sense, affording explicit instruction on the teaching level of formulaic sequences was and still a significant

forward-step in the development of communicative competence among EFL learners. However, formulaic sequences are felt to be problematic for their learners because of some interacting factors, such as the insufficient output, socio-cultural diversity, syntactic, and semantic irregularity.

Regarding the semantic level, Wray and Perkins (2000) demonstrated that the meaning of a single formulaic sequence cannot be necessarily understood from the combined meaning of its constituents, and this may hinder the successful learning and using of formulaic sequences. This identified hindrance has been already observed and experienced by the researcher herself in EFL academic settings where some formulaic sequences can be challenging in their learning and storing in the mental lexicon comparing to others. Therefore, proceeding successfully on the proficiency scale to improve students' communicative competence will not be achieved unless there is a serious rethinking about what may obstruct EFL Algerian learners when it comes to learning and using formulaic sequences.

In this regard, our research attempts to shape a question directed to reveal some of the potential constraints that hinder EFL learners from mastering formulaic sequences, in addition to evaluating their effect on the communicative competence of the learners. Moreover, we intend to cast light, as we hope, on reliable findings pointed to sensitise both EFL teachers and syllabus designers about the necessity of implementing suitable and effective instructional practices, specifically in the research context in order to assure the functionality of formulaic sequences in the time of use.

2. Research Questions

This research seeks to answer the following research questions:

RQ1: How are EFL learners instructed in the area of formulaic sequences in an academically based context?

RQ2: What sort of difficulties do EFL learners encounter when attempting to integrate some formulaic sequences in their communication, notably speaking and writing?

RQ3: To what extent do these difficulties affect their communicative competence?

3. Research Hypotheses

Based on the above research questions, we propose the following research hypotheses:

RH1: EFL learners will be explicitly instructed in the assigned area.

RH2: Non-literal meaning of some formulaic sequences will obstruct learners from communicating effectively.

RH3: These difficulties will have a negative effect on EFL learners' communicative competence.

4. Research Aims

- General Aim:

This study aims to investigate if EFL learners encounter the meaning type of formulaic sequences as a difficulty when they attempt to use them in their communication. Furthermore, it seeks to evaluate the effect of the potential difficulty on EFL learners' overall level of proficiency and communicative competence. These aims will be preceded by checking the type of instructional method that learners are exposed to. At the end, this study may guide, hopefully, teachers to enhance classroom teaching operations for their learners by putting into consideration the importance of including pedagogical solutions to overcome such potential difficulty.

- Specific Aims:

In specific aims, the present study seeks to:

- develop a sense of awareness for both teachers and learners about the sort of difficulties that may hinder the functionality of formulaic sequences by focusing on their meaning type (literal/non-literal), and

- lay an emphasis on the effect of formulaic sequences difficulties on EFL learners' communicative competence.

5. Significance of the Study

The significance of this study will be redound to the benefit of EFL learners considering that formulaic sequences play a vital role in affecting their communicative competence. The growing need to learn formulaic sequences requires, at the first place, identifying some of the difficulties that impair the learning process before implementing solutions. Thus, teachers may become more knowledgeable and careful when it comes to the explicit instruction of formulaic sequences whether on the teaching or practising stage. Furthermore, this study may lead researchers to undertake further studies with the aim of finding workable solutions for the current difficulties in the local circumstances.

6. Research Methodology for this Study

The aim of the current study is not to quantify or to measure anything, but rather to pinpoint potential difficulties caused by the nature of formulaic sequences, and to end up with a final evaluation about how communicative competence is affected. Hence, a qualitative approach will be suitable for best addressing the research purpose since it helps to produce descriptive, and rich data (Leavy, 2017). Advocating the utility of a case study, Zainal (2007) noted that "A case study method enables a researcher to closely examine the data within a specific context" (p.1). Accordingly, a Case Study will be adopted as a research design because it comes under the qualitative approach, in addition to its suitability in the narrow context of the present research.

Regarding the data collection methods, it will be most beneficial to opt for a classroom observation that can yield with valuable insights with regard to the topic and aims of this research. Unlike other methods, a classroom observation will enable the researcher to get a direct access to the real learning situation. To complement the previous data collection method,

there will be a reliance on document analysis, principally students' test papers, because of its applicability in qualitative case studies, and its usefulness in ensuring a more comprehensive research as has been indicated by Bowen (2009).

The overall population of this study will be Master students (N = 195) at the section of English at Biskra University because they are supposed to have an advanced level on the proficiency scale. Unlike other levels at the section of English, Master students will be dealing with formulaic language in the Course of Language Mastery, which will serve the purpose of our research study. Therefore, the researcher is going to select, based on a purposive sampling technique, one group as a sample (n = 47) to provide assistance for collecting the appropriate data to answer accurately the research questions.

7. Choice of the Writing Style

The writing style that was adopted in this dissertation is based on the sixth edition of the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (2010). This adoption was done based on its suitability to the nature of the current study. The requirements of this manual were respected except in the case of alignment and running head. Concerning the alignment, no justification is made according to this manual; however, an agreement has been made between the researcher and her supervisor to justify the body of the text in order to be more attractive and catchy. For the running head, it was not included in the front page for the same previous reason.

8. Structure of the Dissertation

This dissertation is divided fundamentally into two parts: One is Theoretical and the other is Practical. The former consists of two chapters that are devoted to the related review of literature on communicative competence, and formulaic sequences respectively. While the latter includes only one chapter that deals with the fieldwork, data analysis, and the relevant final conclusion.

Chapter One

This chapter sets forth a theoretical overview of communicative competence. Initially, it deals with communication in terms of its definition and main types. Then, it considers the shifting from communication into competence. Afterwards, it devotes a major section to the notion of communicative competence by tackling its definition and models, in addition to ways of improving it in a pedagogical context, namely adopting a communicative language teaching approach. Finally, it discusses the relationship between communicative competence and the area of formulaic sequences.

Chapter Two

This chapter, broadly, deals with formulaic sequences as a promising field of interest. It initiates by displaying a historical account on them. Then, it reviews its definition, characteristics, main categories and functions. Additionally, a discussion about language teaching and formulaic sequences along with their pedagogical significance is presented. Thereafter, it ends up with demonstrating some learning difficulties that are caused by formulaic sequences to their learners.

Chapter Three

Fieldwork and data analysis are displayed in this chapter. At first, it addresses the adopted research methodology for the current study coupled with data collection and analysis procedures. Secondly, it deals with the analysis and discussion of the collected data. Finally, it presents the deduced conclusion followed by a set of pedagogical implications.

Chapter One

CHAPTER ONE: Communicative Competence as a Pivotal Need for Foreign Language

Learners

Introduction

1.1 The Notion of Communication

1.2 Types of Communication

1.2.1 Verbal communication

1.2.2 Non-verbal communication

1.3 The Notion of Competence

1.4 Shiftion from Competence to Performance

1.5 An Overview on Communicative Competence

1.5.1 Defining communicative competence

1.5.2 Models of communicative competence

1.5.2.1 Canale and Swain's Theoretical Model 1980

1.5.2.2 Bachman and Palmer's Framework of Communicative Language Ability 1990

1.5.2.3 Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell's Model 1995

1.5.2.4 The Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) 2001

1.5.4.5 Usó-Juan and Martinez-Flor's Framework of Integrating the Four Skills 2006

1.6 Towards the Development of Communicative Competence

1.7 Relevance between Communicative Competence and Formulaic Sequences

Conclusion

Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of communicative competence (CC) that presents the ultimate goal of foreign language learners. First, it comprises a set of definitions about the notion of communication, in addition to its two main types. Then, it reviews the differences between competence and performance as basic concepts contained under the umbrella of CC. The latter will be further dealt with by displaying a comprehensive account on it from a historical perspective. Also, the definition and most common models of CC will be tackled. Within this respect, a brief description of communicative language teaching (CLT) approach will be addressed since it is considered as a way to operationalise the notion of CC into the ground of application. At the end, light will be shed on the relevance between CC and formulaic sequences (FSs).

1.1 The Notion of Communication

From birth to death, human beings are in a continual process of conveying thoughts, beliefs and ideas through communication. The latter is relevant to different aspects of our everyday lives since it lays the foundation to socialising, maintaining relationships, and sharing information. Despite the simplicity of articulating the term “communication”, writing one inclusive definition for it can raise a difficulty due to its complex nature. As a consequence, scholars have been approaching it differently based on their respective disciplines.

From an etymological point of view, the word “communication” can be traced back to its Latin origins where it was derived from the verb “communicare”, which means to share something. This concept can be served by Merriam-Webster dictionary’s (n.d.) definition “a process by which information is exchanged between individuals through a common system of symbols, signs, or behavior”. Accordingly, communication is a process of sharing knowledge and information.

As an attempt from her to define communication, Wood (2017) stated that “It is a systemic process in which people interact with and through symbols to create and interpret meanings” (p.3). Not only this, but she went for further elaboration of her definition when she put an emphasis on the main parts, which are: systemic, process, symbols and meanings. To put it in another way, communication refers to an ongoing process that consists of interrelated elements to convey meanings through different symbols, i.e., the basis of any language.

Scholars in neuropsychology have also addressed the subject of communication; for instance, Kimura 1993 (as cited in Hauser, 1996) noted that, “The term is used here in a narrower sense, to refer to the behaviors by which one member of a species conveys information to another member of the species” (p.7). As a result, communication is not exclusively linked to human beings but also to animals.

Referring to the view of linguistics, Lindblom 1990 spotted light on another aspect of communication that can help us in the construction of a clear picture on what communication is (as cited in Hauser, 1996) . This linguist has written down the following:

Human communication... includes forms of verbal communication such as speech, written language and language. It comprises nonverbal modes that do not invoke language proper. But that nevertheless constitute extremely important aspects of how we communicate. As we interact, we make various gestures-some vocal and audible, others nonvocal like patterns of eye contact and movements of the face and the body. Whether intentional or not, these behaviors carry a great deal of communicative significance (p.7).

By contrast to the aforementioned definitions, the latest one highlighted the non-verbal communication, which includes postures, body gestures, and facial expressions. That is to say, Lindblom did not neglect the paralinguistic features of communication.

1.2 Types of Communication

Arriving at different definitions of communication leads us to the necessity of making a clear distinction between its two forms: “Verbal communication”, and “Nonverbal communication” as has been proposed by Halliday (1978) within the field of semiotics.

1.2.1 Verbal Communication

Verbal communication is not only oral as many people assume, but it can be written as well. It is what distinguishes human beings from the rest of species who can also communicate. This type of communication relies heavily on the language that serves as an external vehicle for sharing various meanings via signs and symbols between two or more people in a particular context.

Along with the previous idea, Sapir 1929 (as cited in Jackson, 2011) said that, “Human beings do not live in the objective world alone, nor alone in the world of social activity as ordinarily understood, but are very much at the mercy of the particular language which has become the medium of expression for their society” (p.103). By saying this, this scholar has solidified the importance of language as a medium of transferring ideas from one brain to another.

Likewise, Buck and Vanlear (2002) argued that, “ Verbal communication is clearly within the symbolic realm” (p.526). Moreover, they added “The sender encodes the intended message into symbols, and the receiver decodes those symbols to decipher the intended message” (p.526). Correspondingly, they referred to verbal communication as the “symbolic communication”. The latter represents the core of human interactions due to its directness and simplicity.

1.2.2 Nonverbal Communication

From the very first day of our lives, we communicate our thoughts and feelings through touches, eye contacts, body movements, gestures and facial expressions. Burgoon (as cited in

Rickheit & Strohner, 2008) asserted that these nonverbal behaviours constitute 60% of what is communicated daily among individuals. Hence, we can assume that this type is the sole means for delivering different meanings in interactions away from articulating words.

Sapir (as cited in Calero, 2005) stated that “We respond to gestures with an extreme alertness and, one might almost say, in accordance with an elaborate and secret code that is written nowhere, known by none, and understood by all” (p.2). Coupled with Sapir’s view, Calero (2005) proclaimed that “For thousands of years, mankind has used wordless messages to communicate thoughts, attitudes, ideas and emotions” (p.3). Therefore, a wordless message does not require having any particular code to be used in its transmission from a sender to a receiver.

Rimondini (2011) referred to nonverbal communication as “the implicit communication” where senders are not totally aware of what they are sending and how it will be decoded by receivers. Though researchers had distinctive labels, but they have agreed on its role in reaching a closer understanding of the receiver’s intended message. For example, Greene and Burleson (2003) mentioned that exchanging social information is more likely to be achieved due to the different aspects of nonverbal behaviours. Generally, the power of nonverbal communication is of no less important than the power of words, and it should be used in favour of delivering more comprehensible messages.

1.3 The Notion of Competence

Competence is a word of a Latin origin (*competentia*), and which means “to achieve” (Misra & Sharma, 2016). Since the 1960’s, defining this coined term has been a controversial issue for many linguists, cognitive linguists, psycholinguists and sociolinguists. As a matter of fact, this can be attributed to their belonging to different disciplines and their work within diversified contexts. Therefore, it is essential, at the outset, to explore the different interpretations of “competence” by making Chomsky’s original view towards it as a point of departure.

Chomsky's early works did not witness the use of the term "competence" although he was interested in syntactical and grammatical rules of the language (Hamad, 2004). He claimed that competence is a system of syntactic rules. It is noticeable that Chomsky set out his notions about competence in his book "Aspects of the Theory of Syntax" where he noted that

Linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows the language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of language in actual performance" (Chomsky, 1965, p.3).

Here, Chomsky was mainly concerned with idealisation, and he also made a distinction between linguistic competence and performance where he defined performance as the application of speaker's knowledge of language. Chomsky's original definition of competence has soon created a difficulty among researchers who criticised it according to their discipline orientation. However, Taylor (1988) proclaimed that this difficulty is caused by their misinterpretations of the term "competence". He went on to explain his claim by arguing that researchers misinterpreted competence when they included the idea of ability to its definition.

As a contemporary proponent to Taylor's explanation, Hamed (2004) attributed the misinterpretation, referred to it earlier, to the readers' failure of understanding Chomsky's notion in a precise and accurate way as he was expecting. Many accounts found in the literature expressed their writers' disapprovals to Chomsky's view on competence. For instance, Wales and Marshall (1996) suggested that "It is also a theory of the limitations of the mechanisms, which enable us to express our own linguistic competence" (as cited in Yeterli, Ge, Algisi, & Eylemler, 2017). In addition, Hamed (2004) clearly demonstrated Searle's position towards Chomsky's view who rejected the treatment of sentences as abstract objects separated from communication whether at the level of production or understanding.

Regardless to the variety of critics, perhaps Dell Hymes remains the major opponent of Chomsky's work on competence. Hymes (1972) introduced the concept of communicative competence, which will be discussed thoroughly in this chapter later on, in which he made emphasis on competence as a knowledge and ability rather than only knowledge. In sum, competence to Chomsky is primarily a mental phenomenon that refers to a set of stored rules in the speaker's mind. However, some researchers have disagreed with this Chomskyan sense by advocating the idea that competence is a concrete phenomenon manifested in human communication.

1.4 Shifting from Competence to Performance

Although Chomsky has been criticised for his concept of competence as a system of rules, but it is noteworthy that he himself established a dividing line between this system, and the ability to apply it. In this regard, Chomsky (1965) noted that "We thus make a fundamental distinction between competence (the speaker-hearer's knowledge of the language) and performance, the actual use of language in concrete situations (p.4). Here, he addressed the real use of language by "performance", and this indicates that Chomsky has also covered the notion of "ability" to use the knowledge of language.

Chomsky (1970) provided further arguments to add more solidity to his distinction when he stated that "A person who has learned a language has acquired a system of rules that relate sound and meaning in a certain specific way. He has, in other words, acquired a certain competence that he puts to use in producing and understanding speech" (as cited in Taylor, 1988). Therefore, it can be said that the occurring confusion about the ignorance of "ability" from the Chomskyan perspective was not worthy for that much of efforts by critics.

Nevertheless, what needs to be mentioned is that performance is considered as an imperfect manifestation of competence for Chomsky (Newby, 2011). Furthermore, there is a neglection of socio-cultural factors in the theory of performance, which opens the door for contradictory

prospects. These prospects, mainly the one of Hymes (1972), reacted against the independence of performance from socio-cultural features during the actual use of language. Accordingly, competence has been extended to communicative competence later on. Given the above, it can be concluded that the shift from competence to performance was, substantially, embedded in Chomsky' dichotomy (i.e., competence-performance).

Mentioning Chomsky repeatedly in what has been written previously is not a matter of a happy coincidence, but it implies his role as an establisher of the theoretical foundation for competence, and what has been built on it by other researchers later on.

1.5 An Overview on Communicative Competence

As soon as one reads the term “communicative competence” in the body of literature, s/he links it straightforward with Dell Hymes (1972). This linguist used the term as a countermovement against Chomsky's dichotomy of “competence” and “performance”. When the linguist Chomsky (1965) captured linguistic competence as a separate element from the sociolinguistic codes, the anthropologist Hymes (1972) asserted that no separation can be made, and both of them come in the same melting pot. Commenting on Chomsky' theory, Hymes (1972) noted in his paper “On Communicative Competence” the following: “Acquisition of competence is also seen as essentially independent of sociocultural features, requiring only suitable speech in the environment of the child to develop” (p.55). However, he believed that dropping sociocultural features away is not a result of an accident nor a simplification to the assumption.

Hymes (1972) believed that not only a native-ideal speaker should know which correct grammatical structure to use, but also how and when to use it. In other words, CC does not only involve the abstract linguistic rules, but also takes into account four elements that can be deduced from the following questions:

1. Whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible;

2. Whether (and to what degree) something is feasible in virtue of the means of implementation available;
3. Whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated;
4. Whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually performed, and what its doing entails (p.63).

As it can be observed from the above, there are four considerations that one has to pay attention to when communicating: Possibility, feasibility, appropriateness, and workability. These elements can also be lumped under the “rules of speaking” that stand as a main concern for Hymes.

Following Hymes’ view, other linguists put forth their supporting claims; for instance, Lyons (as cited in Yeterl et al., 2017) distinguished CC from linguistic competence. In this respect, he put it in this way: “ultimately they must be reconciled. The ability to use one’s language correctly in a variety of socially determined situations is as much and as central part of linguistic ‘competence’ as the ability to produce grammatically well-formed sentences” (p.160). Furthermore, Habermas (1970) mentioned that, “General semantics cannot be developed sufficiently on the narrow basis of the monological linguistic competence proposed by Chomsky” (as cited in Rickheit and Strohner, 2008,p.17). Thus, Habermas was criticizing Chomsky in terms of the narrow scope of linguistic competence that impede the development of semantics.

Exceptionally, Halliday (1978) developed his theory of “Meaning Potential” where he was concerned with what the speaker can do and mean. To illustrate his idea, it would be better to include his complete claim, which is the following:

So in an inter-organism perspective there is no place for the dichotomy of competence and performance, opposing what the speaker knows to what he does. There is no need

to bring in the question of what the speaker knows; the background to what he does is what he could do—a potential, which is objective, not a competence, which is subjective (p.38).

At this point of time, the common thing between the two concepts of Hymes and Halliday becomes clearer. As a matter of fact, both of them argued that learning a language, notably the linguistic competence, goes beyond learning its grammatical rules.

It can be concluded that language cannot be thought of solely without considering the contextual and sociocultural factors. Therefore, it comes the need to a variety of competences that are collected under the umbrella of CC.

1.5.1 Defining communicative competence.

The definitional problems that obstruct a researcher's path when trying to put an exhaustive definition of CC may be explained by scholars' different aims within the bounds of their theoretical frameworks. At this point, it becomes clear that CC has been redefined many times. Taking into consideration that Savignon (2002) mentioned some characteristics of CC, and with reference to her definition of this concept (as cited in Taylor, 1988), the most significant aspects about CC that she offered to literature can be summarised as follow:

- 1- CC is not static but rather dynamic since there is a negotiation in the meaning of messages;
- 2- CC applies to spoken and written discourse as well;
- 3- CC is context specific because it requires the ability to adapt language according to the social situation;
- 4- CC is an abstract system that includes the knowledge of both linguistics and sociocultural conventions;
- 5- CC is relative and not absolute; it relies on the cooperation of all immersed individuals in the communicative situation.

Wiemann (1977), for instance, defined such a concept as “the ability of an interactant to choose among available communicative behaviors in order that he may successfully accomplish his own interpersonal goals during an encounter while maintaining the face and line of his fellow interactants within the constraints of the situation” (p.198). This definition explains that its writer perceives a competent communicator as the one who can successfully choose the right behaviour to achieve his/her communicative goals.

In the same way of Wiemann’s notion, Larson et al., year (as cited in Galajda, 2017) defined CC as “the ability of an individual to demonstrate knowledge of the appropriate communicative behaviour in a given situation” (p.20). Once again, CC is linked to the appropriateness of the behaviour.

From another view, Duran (1983) stated, “Communicative competence is a function of one's ability to adapt to differing social constraints” (p.320). What brings attention to his definition is his focus on “communicative adaptability” as a measure of a person’s CC. Duran went on to say, “Communicative adaptability is defined as the ability to perceive socio-interpersonal relationships and adapt one's interaction goals and behaviors accordingly” (p.320). To put it in other words, a person is communicatively competent when he can adapt his goals to the requirements of the context.

Attempting to simply synthesise some definitions found in the literature since 1960’s, Tarvin (2015) noted the following, “Communicative competence can be defined as the ability to use language, or to communicate, in a culturally-appropriate manner in order to make meaning and accomplish social tasks with efficacy and fluency through extended interactions” (p.2). Though this definition cannot be considered as the perfect one, Tarvin partially succeeded in tightening up the concept of CC from different angles.

On the whole, it is needless to say that there has not been an agreement on a single definition, but the already mentioned scholars and others had some following echoes to Hymes's original notion on CC.

1.5.2 Models of communicative competence

The CC model started when Chomsky (1965) set up the grammatical competence as the first milestone within its frame. Shortly after, Hymes (1972) expanded the model when he spotted light on the role of sociocultural factors in conveying and interpreting messages that are held in different grammatical structure. Other linguists, afterwards, put efforts to elaborate the CC model, some of which are: Canale and Swain, Bachman, and Celce-Murcia et al.,.

1.5.2.1 Canale and Swain's Theoretical Model 1980. Canale and Swain (1980) perceived CC as an individual's knowledge about language, in addition to other aspects of language use (as cited in Lasala, 2014). The rules of grammar were underpinned by both linguists; therefore, they pointed out that the role of some factors such as the level of transparency and grammatical complexity did not have sufficient emphasis unlike communicative behaviours and functions (as cited in Ohno, 2011). Canale and Swain proposed their own model of CC in 1980 where it included at first three main components: Grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence.

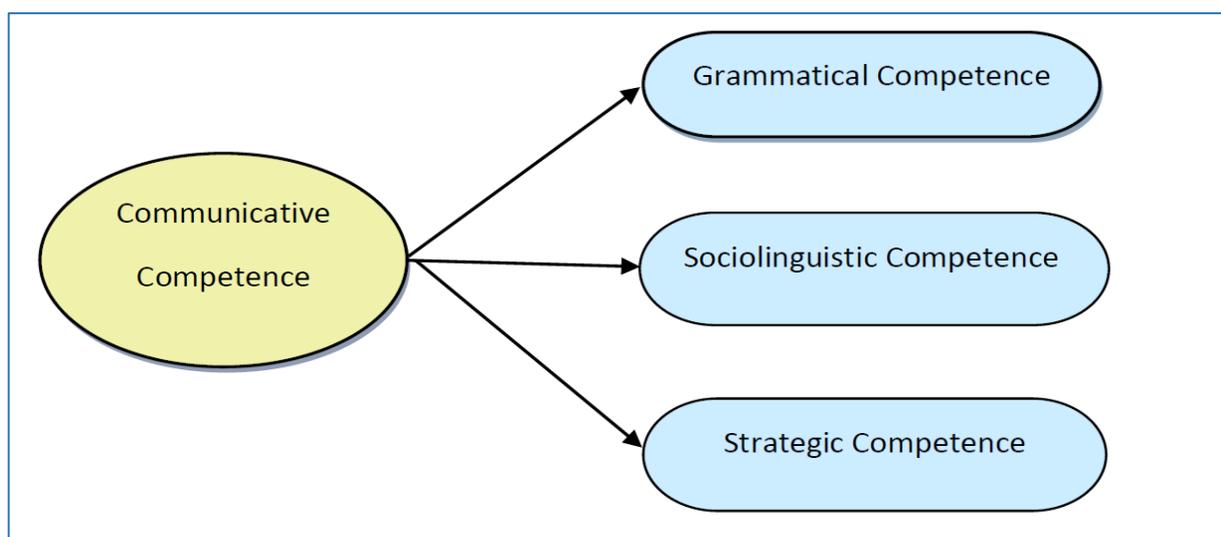


Figure 1.1 Communicative Competence Model Proposed by Canale and Swain (1980)

A later version of Canale and Swain (1980) model was elaborated by Canale (1983) into a four-dimensional model.

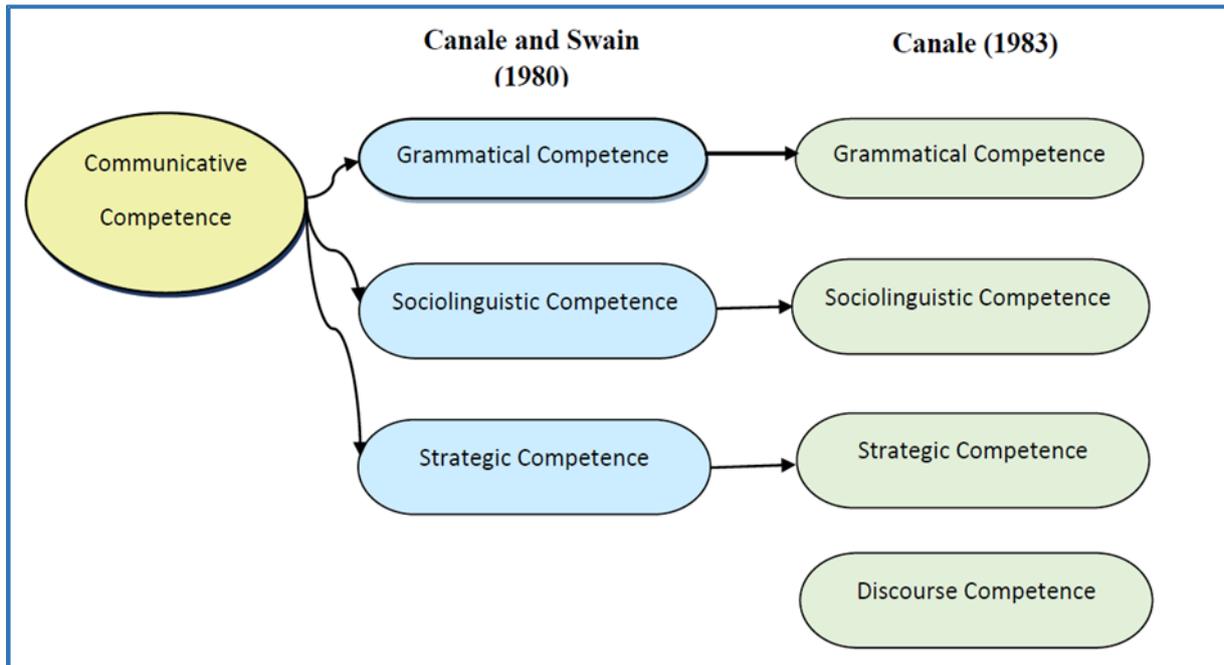


Figure 1.2 Elaborated Model of Communicative Competence by Canale (1983)

As the figure 1.2 shows, each component is distinct from one another, but all of them are interrelated. In the model of the two Canadian linguists, *grammatical competence* embodies the knowledge of grammar rules (Morphology, syntax, phonology and lexicon). Savignon (2002) further explained it as the ability to recognise, produce, and make use of different grammatical structures. While, *sociolinguistic competence* is crucial for human interaction in natural contexts, it extends beyond the linguistic code to include knowledge of the rules of the appropriate use of language (Canale & Swain, 1980).

It is believed that these rules help in interpreting the social meaning of a speaker's utterance by increasing the level of transparency between his/her literal meaning, and his/her intention. If a breakdown occurs in communication whether on the grammatical or the sociolinguistic level, *strategic competence* is called for compensation since it is made up of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies (Ohno, 2011). Finally, *discourse competence* has been added as a fourth component to CC. Canale (as cited in Bagari & Mihaljevi, 2007)

described it as the mastery of combining meanings to their grammatical forms to achieve a unified written or spoken discourse. This unity is enabled through patterns of organisation, and cohesive devices. In other words, it requires meeting the standards of cohesion and coherence. All of these suggest that each component is essential to develop the overall level of CC.

1.5.2.2 Bachman and Palmer’s Framework of Communicative Language Ability 1990.

Though the work of Canale and Swain was highly appreciated by most researchers, there was a tendency in developing a more comprehensible version. Bachman (1990) elaborated another model of CC that he called it, “The Model of Language Ability” (CLA). However, this model was slightly modified by Bachman and Palmer (1996).

Table 1.1 Bachman and Palmer’s Model of Communicative Competence (Adapted from Bachman & Palmer 1996, p.68)

Organizational Competence		Pragmatic Competence	
Grammatical Competence	Textual Competence	Illocutionary Competence	Sociolinguistic Competence
-Vocabulary	-Cohesion	-Ideational functions	-Dialects/varieties
-Morphology	-Rhetorical	-Manipulative functions	-Registers
-Syntax	-Conversational organisation	-Heuristic functions	-Naturalness
-Phonology/ graphology		-Imaginative functions	-Cultural references and figures of speech

Bachman and Palmer (1996) presented a more detailed framework of CC for the purpose of developing appropriate language tests based on the components that can be seen in table 1.1 above. That is to say that Bachman’s aim was, from the right beginning, for measurement

purposes. Moreover, he based his framework on an empirical study, and not only theoretical considerations.

According to Bachman and Palmer (1996), communicative language ability or language competence comprises two main components: organisational and pragmatic competence. The subcomponent of these two competences are listed in Table 1.1. On the one hand, *organizational competence* refers to abilities engaged in controlling formal language structures, and in turn includes grammatical competence and textual competence that corresponds to discourse competence in Canale's (1983) model. On the other one, *pragmatic competence* as conceived in this model, is the ability of performing different speech acts, using language appropriately in accordance with the sociolinguistic conventions, cultural references and figures of speech (Can, 2011). Pragmatic competence comprises sociolinguistic competence and illocutionary competence. The latter entails the knowledge and skill in using language functions proposed by Halliday (1978). It is useful to note that Bachman (1990) was the first to encompass pragmatic competence under the wing of CC, which van Dijk (as cited in Bachman, 1990) described it as the following:

Pragmatics must be assigned an empirical domain consisting of conventional rules of language and manifestations of these in the production and interpretation of utterances. In particular, it should make an independent contribution to the analysis of the conditions that make utterances acceptable in some situation for speakers of the language (p.89).

Providing this quotation, van Dijk mainly considered pragmatics responsible on the conventional rules that determine the acceptance of utterances by users of the language. In sum, the complexity of Bachman and Palmer's (1996) model is positive since it brings more clarification and comprehension to those who are interested in CC.

1.5.2.3 Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell's Model 1995. Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, and Thurrell (1995) presented another model of CC, which they believed that it is a continuation of Canale and Swain (1980) earlier work. Their framework was pedagogically motivated to enclose only relevant content specifications, and guidelines toward a communicative language teaching.

This model is substantially fifth dimensional, and it regards discourse competence as its core. Interestingly, it differs from Canale and Swain's model terminologically where linguistic competence, and sociocultural competence are used instead of grammatical competence, and sociolinguistic competence respectively.

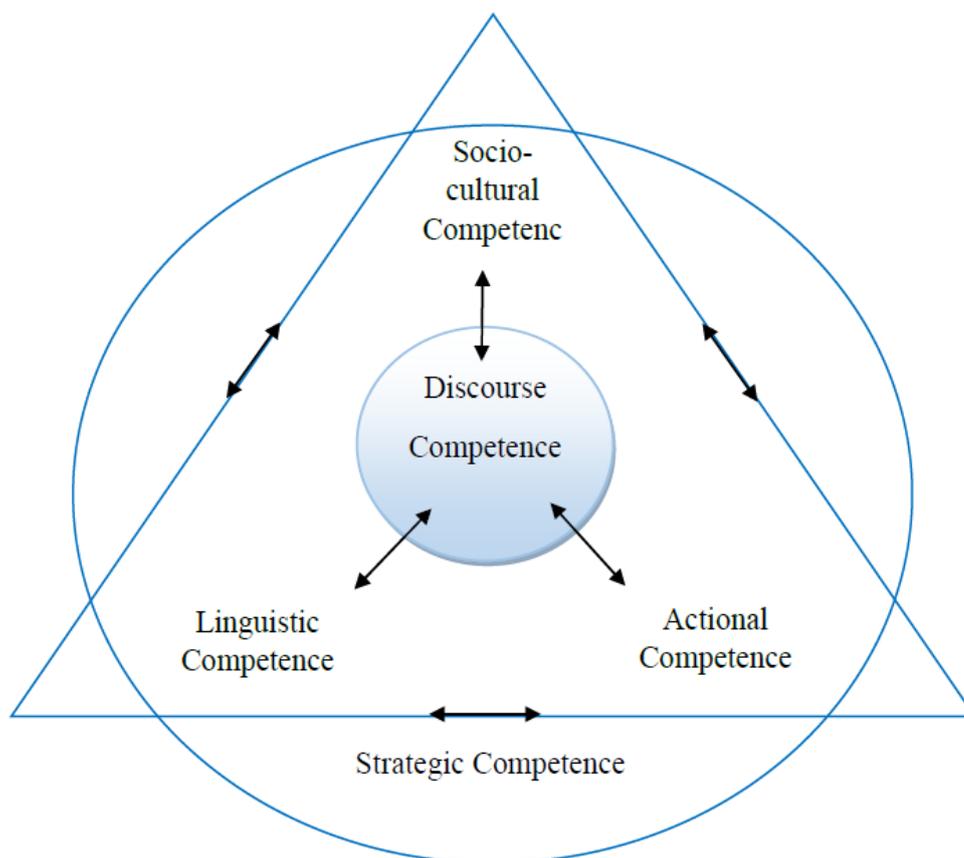


Figure 1.3 Celce-Murcia, Dornyei, & Thurrell's Model of Communicative Competence 1995

(Adapted from Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1995, p.16)

Linguistic competence according to Celce-Murcia et al (1995) “comprises nuts and bolts of communication” (p.17). Indeed it includes the basic elements of communication, such as: sentence patterns and types, morphological inflections and other elements needed for realising spoken or written communication. Another included component in the model of Celce-Murcia et al., is the *discourse competence* which is concerned with achieving a unified spoken or written text through components such as deixis, cohesion and coherence (Eghtesadi, 2017). While, *actional competence* is concerned with performing, recognising, interpreting speech acts; *sociocultural competence* is interested in the appropriateness of delivering messages within the context of communication (Celce-Murcia et al., 1995). Finally, *strategic competence*'s conceptualisation remained the same as in Canale and Swain's model, which is the knowledge of communication strategies for the avoidance of any breakdown in communication. In the light of communication strategies, Celce-Murcia et al (1995) suggested that they seek to:

- Overcome any problem in realizing plans;
- eliminate confusions and misunderstanding in communication; and
- maintain the communication.

This illustrated description of Celce-Murcia et al., (1995) ensured the importance of pragmatic competence, and it prioritised discourse competence by considering it as the essence of CC.

1.5.2.4 The Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) 2001. The Council of Europe led the development of CEFR around the 60's and 70's, and it was established in the 90's. The CEFR is used extensively in all European countries as a reference document for teachers, school directors, and syllabus designers ("Introductory Guide", 2013). Its importance lies in its use as a framework for assessing, learning, teaching of languages. The CEFR includes three basic elements: Language competence, sociolinguistic competence, and pragmatic competence. What brings the attention to this model is the absence of strategic competence, and

including discourse competence as sub-component rather than a main one (Bagari & Mihaljevi, 2007).

Linguistic competence was substituted by *language competence* only in terms of labelling. It refers to the knowledge of language linguistic resources, in addition to the ability of using them. It entails subcomponents like grammatical, semantic, lexical, and other competences. When it comes to the *sociolinguistic competence*, it includes knowledge as well as skills for using language appropriately in its social context. The last componential part of this model is the *pragmatic competence*, which covers the discourse, and functional competences. Both of these two competences are devoted to the sequencing of messages (Bagari & Mihaljevi, 2007). As a conclusion, the CEFR is designed as a scale to be applied to European languages in accordance with practical outcomes.

1.5.2.5 Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor's Framework of integrating the four skills 2006. The last model to be presented in this chapter is the one elaborated by Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor (2006). With regard to the previous models of CC, not much of attention was devoted to the intercultural competence, especially that it is becoming a necessity for EFL learners to be interculturally competent (Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor, 2006). It is clear, therefore, that their reason of developing another framework of CC is to tackle such limitations.

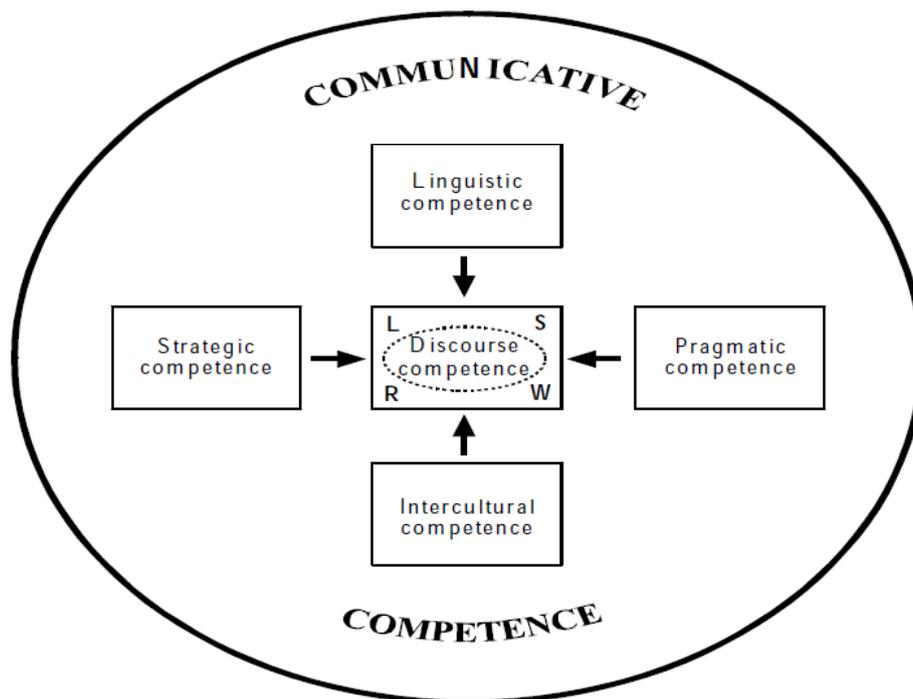


Figure 1.4 Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor's Model of Communicative Competence (Source: Usó-Juan & Martínez-Flor, 2006, p.16)

The core of this framework, *discourse competence*, endeavours to achieve coherence, and cohesion in any written or spoken discourse through the selection and sequencing of utterances. Here, (i.e., in this competence) it is worth referring to Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor's (2006) statement: "The integration of the four skills (i.e., listening, speaking, reading and writing) is explicitly accomplished within the core of our proposed framework since the fact of being able to interpret and produce a spoken or written piece of discourse is the way to achieve successful communication (p.17). To put it differently, the authors believe that the four language skills are essential for the production, and interpretation of any piece of discourse during the act of communication.

Linguistic competence's definition corresponds to grammatical competence as in the models of Canale and Swain (1980), and Bachman and Palmer (1990), which is the knowledge

of the linguistic system. According to Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor, *pragmatic competence* is seen as the knowledge of language functions, and sociopragmatic factors; whereas, *intercultural competence* incorporates the socio-cultural, and cross-cultural knowledge. *Strategic competence* serves communication in terms of its maintenance; consequently, it refers to the knowledge of communication strategies. Up till now, the data that have been in our disposal shows that Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor's (2006) model was in line with the pre-mentioned model; however, it gave importance to interculturality.

1.6 Towards the Development of Communicative Competence

As defining the term “communicative competence” from different perspectives was partially a complex task for many researchers, operationalising it is not easy too. Therefore, communicative language teaching (CLT) paved its way as a new approach for the development of CC, especially in the field of teaching second and foreign languages.

1.6.1 Communicative Language Teaching Approach

Up to the late 60's, building up a linguistic repertoire of a wide range of sentences, utterances, and grammatical patterns to use them accurately was the final destination of a teaching journey. This means that the priority was given to the grammatical competence. Afterwards, this centrality was rebuffed by advocators of CC (Hymes, 1972; Canale and Swain, 1980), and there was a shift to the knowledge and skills required for the appropriate use of grammar and other sociocultural conventions (Richards, 2006). This transition from a *traditional approach*, where the focus of language teaching was on the grammatical aspect of language, to a *communicative approach* was, according to Paulston (1992), “a reaction against the mechanical nature and boring activity of drills in the audio-lingual method” (p.97). Therefore, such transition was compulsory in order to enable EFL learners of being communicatively competent.

Towards a better comprehension for the theoretical base of CLT, Larsen-Freeman (2000), Brown (2001), and Richards (2006) gave an account on CLT principles, which some of them can be as the following:

- CC is a focus of classroom activities where language is as a means, and not as an end;
- Students are required to use language creatively as it is used in a genuine act of communication;
- Students are the centre of the teaching process, whereas the teacher is more likely to be a guide, facilitator, and an advisor;
- Fluency should be more emphasized than accuracy; accordingly, it takes into account the communicative dimensions of language (as cited in Islam, 2016).

In the same line of the last stated principles, Richards (2006) explained fluency as the “Natural language use occurring when a speaker engages in meaningful interaction and maintains comprehensible and ongoing communication despite limitation in his/her communicative competence” (p.14). Moreover, he added that fluency development is a goal of CLT. This same thought was also endorsed by (Gałajda, 2017) where she stressed the importance of fluency over accuracy. Therefore, it can be said that CLT and CC goals are in harmony. As a subsequent result of pinpointing the importance of fluency in the body of literature, it has been suggested that it can be improved through a number of complex syntactical forms that are called “Formulaic Sequences”. This may lead, in turn, to the development of CC. Yet, there are some obstacles that may hold an EFL learner from pursuing his/her goals on the pedagogical ground. It is worth mentioning here that some of these obstacles will be investigated in the current study within its limited scope.

1.7 Relevance between Communicative Competence and Formulaic Sequences

Interacting and conversing effectively with the target language in real life situations stands as an ultimate goal to EFL learners. This, in turn, explains what is to be communicatively

competent. Interestingly, CC, by its very nature, correlates between fluency and accuracy in both spoken and written products (Assassi & Benyelles, 2016). In other words, knowing the language system is not sufficient for a language user, but s/he needs to look beyond accuracy. To do so, FSs work as a facilitative tool for reaching native-like proficiency. There are some conducted studies on the relevance between CC and FSs though literature on this matter is not rich to a great extent.

At this point of time, FSs should be simply defined as fixed multiword combinations that are used mainly by native speakers in day-to-day communication. Their functions seem to overlap with CC's goals due to some reasons. For instance, they allow the sender of a message to sound competent comparing to those who use less FSs. Additionally, they help to avoid any misunderstanding throughout the communication (Wisniewska, 2015). Therefore, they became highly recommended to be used when exchanging information whether verbally or non-verbally.

Supporting what have been mentioned earlier, an investigation carried out by Assassi and Benyelles (2016) revealed that EFL learners' use of FSs has a positive impact on their CC since these sequences help them to reach speech naturalness. Furthermore, the relationship between CC and FSs has been also approved from another perspective where Rafieya (2018) asserted that "knowledge of formulaic sequences is a strong predictor of language proficiency" (p.20). In other words, a proficient speaker/writer of the language is considered a well knowledgeable with the notion of formulaicity.

In conclusion, claiming that there is a relevance between CC and FSs is demonstrated through some conducted studies as has been showed in the previous paragraphs. However, it should be remembered that this subject needs more work from those who are specifically interested in the area of FSs.

Conclusion

As a conclusion, we attempted to take advantage of the related literature and wealth of available materials to present the major theoretical considerations that form a solid basis for CC. In other words, we sought to enable foreign language learners (FLL) to get a clear idea about what would turn them into competent and successful communicators. As a matter of fact, it was shown that a CLT approach may meet learner's needs and achieve their goals. However, CC goes beyond an approach to reach other key elements that have an integral part of instruction and, in turn, would take learners a step further on the scale of proficiency. This element will be discussed at large in the following chapter.

Chapter Two

CHAPTER TWO: Formulaic Sequences as a Promising Field of Study

Introduction

2.1 Formulaic Sequences

2.1.1 Historical overview of formulaic sequences

2.1.1.1 Prior to 1970

2.1.1.2 From the 1970's onwards

2.1.2 Labelling and defining formulaic sequences

2.1.3 Characterising and identifying formulaic sequences

2.1.4 Main categories of formulaic sequences

2.1.4.1 Collocations

2.1.4.1.1 Defining collocations

2.1.4.1.2 Types of collocations

2.1.4.2 Idioms

2.1.4.2.1 Defining idioms

2.1.4.2.2 Types of idioms

2.1.4.2.3 Idioms versus collocations

2.1.4.3 Phrasal verbs

2.1.5 Functions of formulaic sequences

2.2 Formulaic Sequences and Language Teaching

2.3 Learning Difficulties Caused by Formulaic Sequences

Conclusion

Introduction

This chapter aims to highlight the importance of FSs since they play a crucial role in enhancing one's CC. First, it presents a brief historical account on the notion of formulaicity. Then, it includes, respectively, conceptual definitions, characteristics and some hints about identifying FSs. Next, it deals with the major types of FSs that are most widely shared among speakers of the English language. Additionally, this chapter displays the common functions of FSs in terms of their everyday use. Moreover, FSs are of significant theoretical interest for the fact that they can be part of pedagogical instruction in academic contexts. Therefore, a discussion about language teaching in relation to FSs will be provided. Finally, it pays attention to some of the induced difficulties by FSs.

2.1 Formulaic Sequences

The goal of a foreign language learning/teaching process is assumed to be presenting successful communicators of a language, notably the English language in our case. Therefore, FSs are gaining recently an increased interest since they play an indispensable role in establishing a smooth and efficient communication be it written or spoken. It is interesting to mention here that it has been widely accepted among linguists and applied linguists that people do not always generate sentences from scratch, but they rather reflect what they have been exposed to. In other words, people usually opt for memorising, storing and retrieving FSs as whole parts of the language in accordance with their communicative needs. However, the value of formulaicity exceeds the influence on the cognitive processes to reach the overall level of CC of EFL learners.

2.1.1 Formulaic sequences: A historical overview

To open a discussion about FSs, it seems crucial to look back to its historical development from a narrowed angle. However, what should be stressed here is the shortage of exhaustive studies that dealt with the history of FSs from their beginning until nowadays. In

this vein, Wray (2013) clearly stated that, “creating a timeline for formulaic language is far from simple” (p.316). Yet, collections of different studies can serve in making a simplified account for the development of FSs. On this account, the difficulty and complexity of undertaking this task should be appreciated, notably, by the reader.

Some decades earlier, science was still a long way from putting forth a solid foundation of FSs as a rising field of inquiry. Yet, researchers were gathering small pieces, each one from his/her own perspective, to frame the wider picture of FSs. One of the leading works refers back to Pawley (2007) who outlined eight distinct research traditions that were noted chiefly at the first half of the 19th century. As another laudable attempt, Wood (2015) re-sharpened Pawley’s work, and made it clear that the date 1970 stands as the boundary line in FSs researches. Based on the works of these two researchers, the following overview will be presented.

2.1.1.1 Prior to 1970. As a beginning with epic sung poetry, literary scholars such as Parry examined the role of formulas in Homer’s poems in the 1920’s and 1930’s. He found that these formulas (i.e., formulaic sequences) lead to productivity, in addition to fluent and rhythmic performance. Moving on to the second tradition, the concern with ritual speech and songs lead both anthropologists and folklorists to make another contribution in this development. As a pioneer figure in this era, Hymes (1962) had a work that he called “the ethnography of speaking” where he made a focus on the recurrent patterns that are used by people in their everyday performance. To reinforce this concept, we refer back to Hymes’ s original words (as cited in Pawley, 2007) who claimed the following, “A vast proportion of verbal behaviour consists of recurrent patterns” (p.7).

As a result of their interest in ordinary language, philosophers and sociologists constructed another line of thought in these research traditions. For example, Austin (1962) and Searle (1969) played an important role when they focused their attention on the strategic use of routine utterances to accomplish speech acts and discourse functions. Neurologists and

neuropsychologists also took part in the expansion of FSs research. Based on Broca's (1860) work that demonstrated the dominance of the left hemisphere in speech production, some following studies were interested in language disorders, especially aphasia. The conclusion that was drawn here is that the ability to retrieve familiar and repeated expressions existed within certain types of aphasia. To put it more simply, some formulas could be recalled by a person even under the damage of the left hemisphere of his brain.

Another important addition to this historical perspective was made through conducting experimental studies by educational psychologists such as Goldman-Eisler in 1968. As a matter of fact, she emphasised the role of formulaic FSs sequences in speech fluency. That is to say, a spontaneous speech produced by a fluent speaker requires, at the first place, having many memorised utterances in mind. By the same token, grammarians also acknowledged the played role by conventional expressions in language. As an example, Jespersen (1922) can be mentioned since he made a distinction between free and fixed expressions. Lastly, phrasal dictionaries of English were influenced in terms of handling multiword expressions and phrasal units. This influence can be referred to some researchers such as Palmer (1938) and Hornby (1942). This overall synthesis is by no means exhaustive; however, having it in mind is necessary to pave the way for understanding what is left from the emerging picture of FSs.

2.1.1.2 From the 1970's onwards. The period of the 1970's was a crossroads in the history of FSs. It was characterised by the enrolment of structural linguistics in studying conventional expressions from different aspects. Therefore, closer attention has been paid, and detailed research agendas in FSs research were established. In this regard, Wood (2015) noted, "Linguists began to establish their own schools of inquiry during the 1970s, and the 1980s through to the present have seen a remarkable expansion of effort (p.4). During this period, lexicographers assembled information about the variability of multiword expressions in terms of lexis and grammar as has being explained by Pawley (2007). He also emphasised the role of

semantics and pragmatics in affecting the growth of speech acts. Then, he continued in pinpointing the position that was occupied by FSs within the field of linguistics to the extent of integrating these speech formulas to a course in an American linguistic institute by Charles and Lily Wong Fillmore in 1977. However, the expansion of FSs research did not stop at this end, but it included the publication of reviewed articles and an edited collection of papers mainly by Krashen and Scarcella in 1983.

The end of this period, the 1970's, witnessed generating some questions in relation to FSs by linguists; some of which can be summarised from Pawley's (2007) work in the following:

- How to identify conventional expressions in a text?
- How to classify conventional expressions? And according to which criteria?
- What distinguishes the oral conventional expressions from the ordinary ones?
- How can speech producers be more fluent?
- What is the played role of conventional expressions in first language acquisition?
- How does the brain process conventional expressions?

These questions and many others yielded in promising areas of inquiry in the field of FSs. Indeed, the body of literature is immense to be synthesised in this dissertation.

2.1.2 Labelling and defining formulaic sequences

Being interested in a linguistic phenomenon requires its researcher, at the outset, to present a well-elaborated and exhaustive definition of it. However, this could not be the case of FSs. That is to say, defining FSs created a great challenge, probably, because they have been tackled from various perspectives. Additionally, they have been labelled in different ways, and this was considered as a “terminological problem” according to Wray (2013) who counted more than 40 terms in the literature comprised in the following table.

Table 2.1 Terms Used in the Literature to Refer to Formulaic Sequences and Formulaicity

(Adapted from Wray & Perkins, 2000, p.3)

Amalgams	Idiomatic
Automatic	Idioms
Chunks	Irregular
Cliches	Lexical(ized) phrases
Co-ordinate constructions	Lexicalized sentence stems
Collocations	Multiword units
Composites	Noncompositional
Conventionalized forms	Noncomputational
FEIs	Nonproductive
Fixed expressions	Petrification
Formulaic language	Praxons
Formulaic speech	Preassembled speech
Formulas/formulae	Ready-made expressions
Fossilized forms	Ready-made utterances
Frozen phrases	Rote
Gambits	Routine formulae
Gestalt	Schemata
Holistic	Sentence-builders
Holophrases	Synthetic
Prefabricated routines and patterns	Unanalyzed chunks of speech
Semi-preconstructed phrases that constitute single choices	Stable and familiar expressions with specialized subsenses

It should be pointed out that among all of these terms, “formulaic sequences” was widely used as a cover term by some pioneers in the field (Wray & Perkins, 2000; Schmitt, 2004). Similarly, it is adopted in the present research, especially that it lies heavily on sequences of the lexis rather than single words.

One of the definitions that has been quoted in much of the literature goes back to Wray (1999):

A sequence, continuous or discontinuous, of words or other meaning elements, which is, or appears to be, prefabricated: that is, stored and retrieved whole from memory at the time of use, rather than being subject to generation or analysis by the language grammar (p.214).

Considering this definition, Wray (1999) claimed that a sequence is prefabricated since it is stored and retrieved as a whole from the memory without any grammatical analysis or generation. Wray (2002) went one step further by her definition when she gave it a psycholinguistic flavour. She suggested that some units/sequences with their internal structures can be stored in the lexicon as *Morpheme Equivalents Unit* or MEU. In other words, a sequence behaves, basically, as a morpheme does. MEU was defined by Wray (as cited in Siyanova-Chanturia, 2015) as, “a word or word string, whether incomplete or including gaps for inserted variable items, that is processed like a morpheme, that is, without recourse to any form-meaning matching of any sub-parts it may have” (p.286). It seems fair to note that this definition focused on the psycholinguistic processing of sequences, and it included not only multiword units but single units as well.

In line with Wray's perspective towards FSs, Kecskes (2007) defined them as, “multiword collocations which are stored and retrieved holistically rather than being generated de novo with each use” (p.193). Perhaps what this definition brought as an addition is his indication to the “holistic nature” of FSs, which has been likewise proposed in an earlier definition by Weinert (1995) as follows:

refer to multi-word (How do you do?) or multi-form strings (rain-ed, can-'t) which are produced or recalled as a whole chunk, much like an individual lexical item, rather than being generated from individual lexical items/forms with linguistic rules (p. 182).

Despite the similarity between the previous views, a general consensus on a single working definition has not been reached by researchers. In this respect, Wood (2015) claimed that any definition of FSs should cover three items: Multiplicity, singularity of the meaning/function and prefabrication/storage for retrieval. While providing an inclusive definition of FSs was a difficult task, highlighting their key characteristics may ease the task.

2.1.3 Characterising and identifying formulaic sequences

Since the importance of FSs is acknowledged in the new trends and approaches of language teaching, it is expected from language learners to gain awareness about them. More precisely, they should be able to identify all the sequences that seem to be formulaic in nature or at least the majority of them. Correspondingly, researchers have been pointing out some characteristics of FSs.

Schmitt and Carter (2004) asserted that, “It is difficult to identify absolute criteria which define FSs. Rather it is probably more useful to discuss characteristics which are typical of formulaic sequences” (p.4). Therefore, a brief account will be conducted on what characterises these multiword expressions. To begin with, Coulmas (1979) highlighted two conditions of formulaicity: (i) a sequence must consist of more than two morphemes, and (ii) it should be phonologically coherent (i.e., uttered without hesitation or pauses). Moreover, the same researcher added that these sequences must be situationally-dependent, used repeatedly, and shared within a speech community (as cited in Wood, 2015). These aforementioned characteristics have been stressed by Weinert (1995) as well.

Apart from all of these, Schmitt and Carter (2004) believed that “relative fixedness” is a main feature of FSs, and they considered it as an advantage since fixed sequences can be processed quickly than creative generated expressions. Additionally, they overviewed other characteristics that they found “interesting”; however, we will only mention them without a

thorough explanation to each idea as the two researchers did. Their overview included the following:

- Formulaic sequences appear to be stored in the mind as holistic units, but they may not be acquired in an all-or nothing manner (p. 4);
- Formulaic sequences can have slots to enable flexibility of use, but the slots typically have semantic constraints (p. 6);
- Formulaic sequences can have semantic prosody (p. 7); and
- Formulaic sequences are often tied to particular conditions of use (p. 9).

Clearly, FSs cannot be identified in written or spoken corpora using only these characteristics; therefore, more comprehensive checklists have been elaborated, one of which belongs to Wray and Namba (2003) where they proposed 11 diagnostic criteria for assigning formulaicity to different sequences (as cited in Wood, 2015). Taking into consideration the comprised criteria in the checklists, in addition to what has been suggested by researchers in the literature, Wood (2010) attempted to pull all together to come up with a simplified summary but an exhaustive one, to a certain extent, of the main characteristics of FSs. Accordingly, He wrote the following:

Formulaic sequences are characterized by certain key features. They are multiword or polymorphemic units of language, stored in memory as if they are single lexical units, and recalled and produced as wholes. This production is marked by a degree of phonological coherence, and the unit may outstrip other output in terms of length and complexity. As well, formulaic units can be invariant in form and be used for specific situational purposes (p.42).

Regardless to the multiple clarifications provided about the definitions and characteristics of FSs, the conundrum did not stop at this end, but it extended to baffle linguists and researchers about categorising them.

2.1.4 Main categories of formulaic sequences

Although a collective agreement about the inevitable role of the so-called FSs in thinking quickly and communicating effectively grew out, no consensus about a well-defined categorisation has been reached by researchers. This can be explained by their different standpoints and interests towards the linguistic phenomenon (FSs) under investigation. However, any linguist who examines the massive data under his/her disposal, will find out that collocations, idioms and phrasal verbs represent the main categories of FSs.

2.1.4.1 Collocations. Knowing a word with its meaning is not sufficient when it comes to deepen the lexical knowledge, but it also requires knowing what it collocates frequently with. Subsequently, the area of “collocations” has gained its importance, and this was supported by Fernández and Schmitt (2015). There is no surprise that introducing the notion of collocations to contemporary linguistics in the 1950’s is accredited to Firth. This researcher used it, basically, to describe the co-occurrence of a word with another (as cited in Cortes, 2004). Since then, a number of studies have been carried out to describe and define collocations.

2.1.4.1.1 Defining collocations. The term “collocation” has its roots to the Latin verb “collocare” which means “to arrange” or “to set in order” (Rao, 2018). Despite the wide use of this term, people’s opinions are divided about its meaning, according to Duan and Qin (2012). Likewise, Wood (2015) described it as “a bit of a puzzler for many” (p.38); however, he considered that boiling down under syntagmatic relationships among co-occurring words is a common aspect among all definitions. In other words, collocations is a kind of syntagmatic relationships that necessitate a constant frequency of use. Hence, the non-exhibition of frequent co-occurrence determines the non-classification of a word string under the category of collocations. It is noteworthy that there is no existing logic behind any combination as Lewis (1997) advocated, but it is a matter of “linguistic conventions” (as cited in El-dakhs, 2015). Having said this, “arbitrariness” is one of collocations’ features design.

In the same vein, O'Dell and McCarthy (2017) defined each collocation as, “a combination of two or more words which frequently occur together” (p.6). Indeed, they supported their idea with saying that a *blond hair* is, normally, a collocation, while *yellow* does not collocate with *hair*. Knowing how words collocate is important for EFL learners. Therefore, a list of typical word combinations is presented in the table below:

Table 2.2 Proposed Typical Word Combinations for Collocations by O'Dell and McCarthy (2017)

Word Combinations	Examples
Verb + Noun	Pass up the chance
Noun + Verb	An opportunity arose
Noun + Noun	A stroke of luck
Adjective + Noun	Vain hope
Adverb + Adjective	Stunningly attractive
Verb + Adverb or prepositional phrase	Failed miserably/Foam at the mouth
More complex collocations	Taking it easy for a while

2.1.4.1.2 Types of Collocations. Regarding the importance of undertaking studies on collocations that was recognised and emphasised by researchers over time, categorising them was part of their studies regardless to their different orientations. The following categorisation of collocations is indebted to O'Dell and McCarthy's (2017) book:

- **Strong collocations:** In this type of collocations, there is a strong association between the words of the combination. For example, the word *mitigating* collocates, most of the times, with *circumstances/factors*.

- **Fixed collocations:** Fixed collocations cannot be changed, which means that no word can be replaced in the combination. Additionally, their meanings cannot be deduced from the individual meanings. For example, the constituents of *to and fro* (i.e., walking in a direction then in the opposite one for a number of times) cannot be substituted with another word.

- **Weak collocations:** They are made up of words with the tendency of collocating with a wide range of other words. For example, *broad* can collocate with *smile*, *agreement*, *accent* and many others.

In sum, EFL learners should attach collocations to their learning process due to their significant played role in developing their lexical knowledge and, consequently, their communicative competence whether at the speaking or writing level.

2.1.4.2 Idioms. Even though idioms are treated as a discrete category under the umbrella of FSs, their definitional aspects are not completely apparent. This explains using the term, on one hand, to encompass “proverbs, slang expressions, and even individual words of certain types” (Wood, 2015, p.40). On the other hand, it was restricted to word strings whose meaning is opaque. More comprehensive and conclusive definitions came after pointing out idioms acquisition as an important area in EFL teaching/learning environment due to their usefulness in communicative tasks.

2.1.4.2.1 Defining idioms. Irujo (1986) noted that an idiom “is a conventionalized expression whose meaning cannot be determined from the meaning of its part” (p.288). Irujo added more solidity to her definition through providing an example where she explained that the idiomatic meaning of *I was pulling your leg* cannot be derived nor from the meaning of *pull* neither *leg*. A more recent definition returns to McCarthy and O’Dell (2002) who claimed that, “Idioms are expressions which have a meaning that is not obvious from the individual words” (p.4). They also added that an idiom meaning can be best understood from its context.

An estimation done by Cooper (2001) indicates that any speaker of a language is expected to use over 60 million idioms through his life (as cited in Alhaysony, 2017). However, even proficient speakers of a target language lack sufficient knowledge about idioms because they are believed to be challenging by their nature. Thus, it seems necessary to describe the difficulties that are responsible for making idioms problematic. For instance, Pimenova (2011) (as cited in Alhaysony, 2017, p.72) demonstrated five challenges: (a) unknown vocabulary and unfamiliar idioms; (b) no analogous idioms in L1; (c) cultural differences; (d) lack of experience dealing with idioms; e) lack of the broad context for a given idiom. The predictability of these challenges opens the door for other researchers to search on practical problems.

2.1.4.2.2 Types of idioms. According to Wood (2015), various taxonomies concerned with the categorisations of idioms have been elaborated. As long as this present dissertation is not detailed, we will only include Makkai's (1972) taxonomy (as cited in Wood, 2015, pp.42-43):

- 1- Phrasal verbs**—verb and one or two particles, for example, *come across*.
- 2- Tournure**—a verb and at least two words (often noun phrases), for example, *take the bull by the horns*.
- 3- Irreversible binomials**—two nouns or adjectives in a fixed sequence, for example, *safe and sound*.
- 4- Phrasal compounds**—compound nouns and adjectives, for example, *high-handed*.
- 5- Incorporating verbs**—compound verbs, for example, *brainwash*.
- 6- Pseudo-idioms**—compound words or phrases in which one item has no meaning by itself, for example, *chit-chat*.

2.1.4.2.3 Idioms versus collocations. Idioms are of a no less importance than collocations. Indeed, both of them pave a learner's way to formulaic competence. However, it is agreed that their definitions appear to be a bit elusive at the first glance because there is a kind of an overlapping between the two of them (i.e., collocations and idioms). Similarly, Macis and

Schmitt (2017) remarked that this issue of overlapping exercises academic minds. Baker (2018) insisted on differentiating between idioms and collocations based on flexibility of patterning and transparency of meaning. She viewed that collocations allow variation in forms and their meaning is transparent while idioms allow little or no variation and their meaning is opaque. It is worth referring here to a list of Bruening (2018) where he made a comparison between the two categories of FSs:

Table 2.3 The Differences between Idioms and Collocations (Adapted from Bruening, 2018, p.2)

Idiom (kick the bucket)	Collocation (Cost a fortune)
Special meaning for combination of particular lexical items.	No special meaning, but items frequently co-occur.
Lexical items do not have literal interpretation.	Lexical items have literal interpretation.
Non-compositional.	Compositional interpretation.
Lexical items are (generally) non-substitutable (#kick the pail).	Lexical items are substitutable (Charge a fortune, cost a bundle).

Drawing a rough dividing line between collocations and idioms is not a simple matter, but considering what is included in the table above may assist in separating them at the theoretical ground.

To sum up, insights about idioms may help to illuminate the underpinnings of writing and speaking.

2.1.4.3 Phrasal verbs. Though phrasal verbs add definite linguistic richness to the language, they did not lie at, previously, the heart of formulaicity as their counterparts (i.e., collocations and idioms). In fact, many researchers considered them as a subcategory of idioms. Rudzka-Ostyn (2003) ironically noted that phrasal verbs do not enjoy a good reputation in foreign language learning. However, this was the case of the past decades. Nowadays, they are gaining more importance.

In his book “Fundamentals of formulaic language”, (D. Wood, 2015) simply defined phrasal verbs as an English type of formulaic language phenomenon. Then, he specified them by adding that “they are verbs combined with a preposition or particle, or both, with often nonliteral meanings, or both literal and figurative interpretations” (p.48). Perhaps the peculiarity about this definition is pinpointing that phrasal verbs are found, particularly, in the English language. A more exhaustive definition was provided by Schmitt and Redwood (2011) and it is cited below:

Phrasal verbs are multi-word units are no exception and many are opaque, making them difficult to decipher and understand. They often consist of a high frequency, monosyllabic, delexicalised verb (e.g. get, give, go, make, take) and one of a fixed number of particles (e.g. down, in, off, on, out, over, up) (p.174).

Considering these definitions, it can be understood that difficulties surrounding phrasal verbs are situated at both semantic and syntactic levels. Regarding this latter, structural categories have been proposed by Wood (2015):

- **Verb + preposition (prepositional phrasal verbs)**

Help me look after Jake’s dog for the weekend.

Other children often picked on Sebastian.

What if you run into your ex-wife at the party?

- **Verb + particle (particle phrasal verbs)**

You should bring that up at the next meeting.

Try not to give in when you see the dessert table.

Come over and let's hang out for the afternoon.

- **Verb + particle + preposition (particle-prepositional phrasal verbs)**

I am not putting up with any more outbursts from her.

Jane is looking forward to a long sunny vacation.

The kids loaded up on chocolates before we got there (p.48-49).

On the whole, there is no specific classification of FSs, but it changes over time.

Additionally, the categories that we discussed previously are basically the main ones that concern pedagogical researches on formulaic sequences. Most importantly, there are other types of formulaic sequences, such as: proverbs, lexical bundles and metaphors.

2.1.4 Functions of formulaic sequences

The fact that FSs constitute most of the English language entails that they have functions to perform essentially in terms of social and cognitive matters. Depending on the literature they have reviewed, Wray and Perkins (2000) has established a functionally-based categorisation where the focus is on two major functions.

- **Social interaction:** In a social context, FSs are used to perform various speech acts such as greeting, apologising, vowing and requesting. For example, we typically use the sequences *I am sorry* to express an apology. Therefore, they can help in achieving a smooth and fluent communicative messages. Apart from speech acts that constitute the smallest unit of communication, the common social interactional functions of FSs can be considered as shown in the following table:

Table 2.4 Role of Formulaic Sequences in Social Interactions (Adapted from Wray & Perkins, 2000, p.14)

Formulaic sequences as devices of social interaction		
Manipulation of others	Asserting separate identity	Asserting group identity
(a) Satisfying physical, emotional and cognitive needs.	(a) Being taken seriously. (b) Separating from the crowd.	(a) Overall membership. (b) Place in hierarchy (affirming and adjusting).

- Short-cut in processing:** Instead of generating sentences from the scratch, FSs are used to reduce the amount as well as the effort of new processing. According to Wray and Perkins (2000), all of us “use prefabricated sequences as a way of minimising the effects of a mismatch between our potential linguistic capabilities and our actual short term memory capacity” (p.15). In other words, we are in need to make use of prefabricated sentences that are stored in the long term memory. Major subcategories of processing functions are expressed in the table below:

Table 2.5 Role of formulaic Sequences in Saving Processing Effort (Adapted from Wray & Perkins, 2000, p.16)

Formulaic sequences as devices of reducing processing effort		
Processing short-cuts	Time-buyers	Manipulation of information
(a) Increased production speed and/or fluency.	<p>(a) Vehicles for fluency, rhythm and emphasis.</p> <p>(b) Planning time without losing the turn.</p>	<p>(a) Gaining and retaining access to information otherwise unlikely to be remembered.</p>

In addition to these two functions that were stressed by Wray and Perkins (2000), functional use, discourse organisation and precise information transfer are other functions that can be realised by FSs (Schmitt, 2010).

To conclude, the functions of FSs may vary; however, each one of them works as a link to express language users' communicative messages regardless to the context (formal or informal), and the medium of transferring (vocal or written). In general, to achieve these functions successfully means, in principle, to master FSs.

2.2 Formulaic Sequences and Language Teaching

After introducing the notion of formulaicity, it should be clear now that these multi-word combinations have an important role to play in displaying native-likeness, and reaching a

desirable level of proficiency. Consequently, they can contribute significantly in language teaching, as well as learning. In this sense, Wood (2002) emphasises that

If formulaic sequences are a key element of natural language production, it would seem that a large amount of exposure to natural, native-like discourse, be it oral or written, would be an important part of a pedagogy designed to promote their acquisition (p.9).

However, in a foreign environment where direct exposure to the target culture and language socialisation are not an option, direct instruction of FSs is highly recommended (Boers, et al., 2006; Wood, 2009; El-Dakhs, Prue, & Ijaz, 2017). In other words, learners need to get exposed repeatedly to these sequences in academic contexts. Wood (2002) supported this view when he noted that, “Repeated exposure to such input over time would encourage learners to achieve a certain level of comfort with natural expression in English” (p.10). Unfortunately, there are not much sources of input away from the teacher and some classroom materials. Therefore, there should be a radical change in the teaching approach where the ultimate goal of teaching is turning a learner to be able of performing the following tasks (Peters, 1983):

- 1- Extracting and remembering chunks from inputs they receive.
- 2- Comparing those recently learned chunks with those which had been learnt previously.
- 3- Connecting them with familiar and similar chunks in various ways including pragmatic connection, semantic connection, phonological connection, and syntactic connection.
- 4- Unpacking the chunks into some known subparts.
- 5- Storing some of those encountered chunks in the lexicon repertoire and discarding those which may seem less useful.
- 6- Trying and revising them in later stages (as cited in Khodadady & Shamsaee, 2012, p.40).

In the light of the aforementioned, a lexical approach to foreign language teaching where FSs are the building units for instruction was proposed by Lewis (1993).

Lewis (1993) believed that lexis lies at the heart of language, and that language consists of “grammaticalised lexis, not lexicalised grammar” (p.89). He further introduced the term “lexical item” that refer not only to single items but also to multi-word chunks such as polywords and collocations. In this respect, the lexical approach has emerged as a byproduct of the combination between applied linguistics and language teaching methodology (Lewis, 2000). This approach can be best understood from its methodological principles that can be summarised based on Lewis's (1993) work as follows:

1. Students should be exposed to rich and real English materials at all stages.
2. Teacher is the most valuable source of input, and he should put early emphasis on receptive skills, especially, listening.
3. All of the input, awareness-raising, training and language practice constitute language lessons.
4. Feedback and reformulation are the best responses to learners’ mistakes.
5. Teacher’s explanation is not valued more than receptive grammar practice that put emphasis on awareness- raisin and exploration techniques.
6. CC and fluency must be highlighted more than accuracy, which is the last element of competence to be acquired.
7. Non-linear recording formats are encouraged to store language with the co-text.
8. While Lexis is not another term for vocabulary but a wider concept, the lexical approach is not a revolution but a radical change of emphasis.
9. Both students and teachers need to develop their skill in chunking a text (i.e., identifying different lexical items in it).

However, there has not been an evidence of putting this approach to the ground of application by stakeholders and researchers.

2.3 Learning Difficulties Caused by Formulaic Sequences

Broadly speaking, FSs with their unique functional as well as formal characteristics have been shown to be relatively relevant to the development of a person's CC along with its main components. However, FSs may also be a source of learning difficulties even for those who are at an advanced level of English leading them to step backward at the scale of proficiency. Some of these difficulties can be mainly referred to the nature of FSs, the unfocused instruction and the context in which they are employed.

The nature of FSs may conceivably represent the major difficulty for EFL learners. In line with this claim, Wray and Perkins (2000) focused on both semantic and syntactic irregularity. Within the former, they argued that a hearer would not be able to understand some FSs without a direct explanation, and this can be attributed to their metaphorical meaning and semantic opaqueness. Concerning the latter, they asserted that it can take many forms (i.e., types of irregularities), and this will automatically end up with prioritising the structure over the message of a sequence. To restate it differently, when a learner focuses on processing the various types of syntactic irregularities, s/he will probably find himself distracted from the importance of the meaning. Therefore, both semantic and syntactic irregularity turn the holistic processing of FSs to an uphill challenge to their learners.

Away from the difficulties that are basically induced by FSs, there are other problems that are caused by external factors. In many cases, if not all of them, pedagogical instruction of FSs are not focused and direct as they should be, perhaps, because of the lack of interest and awareness about the subject matter from the part of the EFL learner. When it comes to the context wherein FSs are employed, it is required from their employer to be acquainted with the sociocultural norms; otherwise, s/he will not be able to use them appropriately, and in accordance with the foreign culture.

Finally, it can be said that despite the merits that FSs can offer, their learning process can potentially be a difficult task for EFL learners due to some challenges that comes from naturalistic characteristics or outsider factors.

Conclusion

Throughout this chapter, we attempted to bring insights about the notion of FSs starting by their definitions and ending up with their functions. We also aimed to enable FLL to understand its relevance to their CC regardless to what may create an obstacle to their full learning of FSs, and this must be given more attention by researchers.

The research methodology that underlies the present study will be provided in the next chapter. Then, interpretation, discussion and synthesis of the main findings based on the collected data will be dealt with.

Chapter Three

CHAPTER THREE: Fieldwork and Data Analysis

Introduction

3.1 Research Methodology: Theoretical background

3.1.1 Research paradigms in educational research

3.1.2 Research approaches

3.1.3 Research design(s) / strategy(ies)

3.1.4 Data collection methods

3.1.5 Data analysis procedures

3.1.6 Sampling techniques

3.2 Research Methodology for this Study: Choices and Rationale

3.2.1 Research paradigm

3.2.2 Research approach

3.2.3 Research Design / Strategy

3.2.4 Data collection methods

3.2.4.1 Observations

3.2.4.1.1 Aim and structure

3.2.4.1.2 Piloting and validation

3.2.4.2 Documents analysis

3.2.4.2.1 Aim and structure

3.2.5 Data collection procedures

3.2.6 Data analysis procedures

3.2.7 Population / Sampling technique

3.3 Study description and rationale

3.4 Results and Discussion

3.4.1 Results of classroom observation

3.4.2 Results of document analysis

3.5 Synthesis of the Findings

Conclusion

Introduction

This chapter is devoted to the field work and analysis of the collected data. First, it briefly reviews a theoretical background of research methodology. Then, it deals with the used methodology in terms of describing the adopted research paradigm, approach, design and data collection methods. Furthermore, it considers the rationale behind each methodological decision to grant the present research more credibility. Afterwards, it displays an analysis and discussion based on the collected data. Finally, it ends up with a general conclusion followed by some pedagogical implications to lay the ground for future research.

3.1 Research Methodology: Theoretical Background

Once the literature about the topic of interest is reviewed sufficiently, methodological choices should be made. Kumar (2011) simply clarified what a research methodology means in the following words, “Just as there are posts along the way as you travel to your destination, so there are practical steps through which you must pass in your research journey in order to find the answers to your research questions” (p,18). As a matter of fact, research methodology allows considering the logic behind the methods and techniques used in the context of the research study in order to permit the evaluation of the research results (Kothari, 2004). This means that the research methodology is extremely important for ensuring the systematic flow of any undertaken research.

3.1.1 Research paradigms in educational research

With regard to framing any research work, one of the philosophical underpinnings that exist in the literature of research methodology should be opted for. In other words, the researcher should have a deep understanding about the research paradigm wherein his/her research is located. A research paradigm describes the abstract principles and beliefs that shape a researcher’s view towards the world. Consequently, it can be referred to as the researcher’s worldview. Kivunja, Ahmed, and Kuyini (2017) defined it as “the conceptual lens through

which the researcher examines the methodological aspects of their research project to determine the research methods that will be used and how the data will be analysed” (p.26). In other words, it is certain assumptions about what to do in a research, and how to do it. Therefore, it can be said that a research paradigm forms the point of departure to any research.

There are four main paradigms that are well common in the literature: post-positivism, constructivism, transformative, and pragmatism. In respect to each paradigm, it comprises four elements, namely, epistemology, ontology, methodology and axiology. However, discussing these paradigms in details goes beyond the scope of this chapter. Thus, it would be more suitable to present a table that summarises the key characteristics of each paradigm.

Table3.1 Main Characteristics of Research Paradigms (Adapted from Creswell, 2014, p.6)

Post-positivism	
-Determination	-Empirical observation and measurement
-Reductionism	-Theory verification
Constructivism	
-Understanding	-Social and historical construction
-Multiple participant meanings	-Theory generation
Transformative	
-Political	-Change-oriented
-Collaborative	-Power and justice oriented
Pragmatism	
-Consequences of actions	-Problem-centred
-Pluralistic	-Real-world practice oriented

3.1.2 Research approaches

Due to the nature of different assumptions contained in paradigms, each paradigm lends itself to a specific research approach. The latter, as defined by Creswell (2014), is “plans and the procedures for research that span the steps from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation” (p.3). Methodologists agreed that there are three research approaches in terms of the mode of inquiry: (a) qualitative, (b) quantitative, and(c) mixed-methods.

- **Qualitative approach:** Creswell (2014) described it as “an approach for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem”(p.4). It involves generating data in a non-quantitative form as pointed by Kothari (2004). Similarly, Vanderstoep and Johnston (2009) claimed that it is framed in terms of producing rich narratives and textual descriptions of the phenomenon under study, which represents the primary advantage of this approach.
- **Quantitative approach:** “Is an approach for testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables. These variables, in turn, can be measured, typically on instruments, so that numbered data can be analyzed using statistical procedures” (Creswell, 2014,p.4). In this type of approach, the phenomenon under study is assigned numerically, and the findings are characterised by more validity since they can be generalised from the sample to the population (Vanderstoep & Johnston, 2009).
- **Mixed-methods approach:** A research that is associated with this approach is considered as “some sort of a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods within a single research project” (Dornyei, 2007, p.44). Perhaps what specifies this approach is the probability of bringing out the best of the two previous approaches starting by reaching a greater degree of comprehension to the research, and ending up with having more credible findings.

3.1.3 Research design(s)/strategy(ies)

After deciding about which philosophical assumptions to base the research on, and which methodology to frame the research with, the researcher must continue progressing in his/her pathway by choosing a research design/strategy. While Denscombe (2010) defined a research design as a plan of action to achieve a specific goal, Reimann (2011) made it clear that the purpose from it is to orient the use of different specific methods and techniques. This means that a research design/strategy has a direct relationship with the practical side of a research work rather than the theoretical side.

Choosing a strategy is not based on randomisation, but it needs to take into account the suitability, feasibility and other ethical considerations (Denscombe, 2010). This leads us, in a way or another, to deduce the existence of a variety of designs/strategies that are divided into three types: qualitative, quantitative and Mixed-methods.

- **Qualitative designs/strategies:** There are different qualitative designs in social sciences; however, some of them are commonly used among researchers, especially the novice ones. The following table provides initial information about them.

Table3.2 Some Qualitative Research Designs/Strategies (Adapted from Denscombe, 2010, p.5-6)

Strategy	Purpose
Case study	- Understand the complex relationship between factors as they operate within a particular social setting
Ethnography	- Describe cultural practices and traditions - Interpret social interaction within a culture
Phenomenology	- Describe the essence of specific types of personal experience - Understand things through the eyes of someone else
Grounded theory	- Clarify concepts or produce new theories - Explore a new topic and provide new insights

- **Quantitative designs/strategies:** They can range from surveys to what is known as experiments (true or quasi experiments).

Surveys: According to Creswell (2014), surveys are used to collect numeric data about attitudes and opinions of a subset representative sample with the intention of generalising the findings to the whole population.

Experiments: Unlike the previous quantitative design, experiments are mainly used to determine the effect of altering a variable on other variables (Dornyei, 2007). They can be defined as “an empirical investigation under controlled conditions designed to examine the properties of, and relationship between, specific factors” (Denscombe, 2010, p.65). It is noteworthy that one of the prime principles of experimental designs is randomisation to ensure that the effect is due to treatment and not to extraneous factors as explained by Kothari (2004). However, equating the groups through random assignment is nearly impossible in social sciences because we are not dealing with physical materials, and this was considered as a deficiency by methodologists. Subsequently, they tend to use quasi-experiments where there is no randomisation.

- **Mixed-methods designs/strategies:** Regarding this design, Dornyei (2007) noted that it “involves the collection or analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study with some attempts to integrate the two approaches at one or more stages of the research process” (p.163). In other words, it mixes qualitative and quantitative methods in a research project. One of the primary advantage of mixed-methods design is its crosschecking to the validity of findings.

3.1.4 Data collection methods

It should be noted, at the outset, that there is a difference between research methods and research methodology since the scope of the former is narrower than the latter. Research methods are all those methods/techniques used by a researcher to perform different research

operations (Kothari, 2004). At its simplest, they are instruments used to conduct a research. Though methods vary according to the nature of the study, but the goal of collecting data remains the same, and which is “to capture quality evidence that then translates to rich data analysis and allows the building of a convincing and credible answer to questions that have been posed” (Sajjad, 2016, p.202).

The importance of the terms qualitative and quantitative relies in orienting each stage from the research process. For instance, data collection methods are classified into qualitative and quantitative methods. However, we will only go through the key concepts of the four main methods without any specific classification.

- **Questionnaires:** According to Brown (2001), questionnaires present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers” (as cited in Hoadjli, 2016, p.44). They are the most employed instrument of collecting data due to some merits such as the low cost, and easiness to administer. They can be further classified into structured, semi-structured and unstructured questionnaires.
- **Interviews:** This method involves presenting oral-verbal stimuli and replying in the form of oral-verbal responses (Kothari, 2004). In other words, it demands asking questions to respondents and getting their answers. In a similar vein, Cohen et al., (2007) add that an interview enables its participants to discuss their interpretations to the world in which they live from their own point of view. That is, the value of interviews is giving the interviewees more freedom to express directly their own views. Regarding the types of interviews, they can be divided in terms of the degree of structure into structured, semi-structured and unstructured interviews.
- **Focus groups:** While interviews are characterised with individualism (i.e., one-to-one interview), a focus group “brings together a small homogeneous group (usually six to

twelve persons) to discuss topics on a study agenda” (Sajjad, 2016, p.221). In line with this definition, Dornyei (2007) advocates that focus groups are based on collective brainstorming to react to emerging issues. Thus, this method can help participants to express openly their perceptions and attitudes about a specific topic in a relaxed atmosphere.

- **Observation:** It is “a purposeful, systematic and selective way of watching and listening to an interaction or phenomenon as it takes place” (Kumar, 2011, p.140). For Dornyei (2007), observation does not provide self-report accounts to the researcher but direct information from the occurring situation. Observation, too, can be structured, semi-structured or unstructured, and this depends on the purpose of the research.

3.1.5 Data analysis procedures

Collecting data does not present the final destination of the research journey. As a matter of fact, the next step can present a challenging task to the researcher. According to Denscombe (2010), data analysis “involves the search for things that lie behind the surface content of the data” (p.247). Consequently, the data analyst is supposed to have analytical skills and a keen sense of details in order to meet his/her outlined purposes from the research. In the same line, Flick (2014) described data analysis as “the classification and interpretation of linguistic (or visual) material to make statements about implicit and explicit dimensions and structures of meaning-making in the material and what is represented in it” (as cited in (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p.195). Having said this, what should be brought into focus is the difference between analysing qualitative and quantitative data.

- **Qualitative data analysis:** Dey (1993) argues that analysing qualitative data requires the researcher to learn by doing virtually. Though an agreement has not been established about the procedures to be used by a qualitative researcher in analysing his/her data, some broad steps have been set forth by a number of methodologists (Cohen et al., 2007;

Denscombe, 2010). These steps are as follow: (1) preparing and organising the data, (2) analysing and interpreting the data, (3) reporting and representing the data. Practically, applying these steps in accordance with the purpose of undertaking the research study may lead to create a meaning from a mass of data be it visual or auditory. As with the qualitative data, there are different forms of analysis such as grounded theory analysis, narrative analysis, discourse analysis and content analysis. At this point, providing an exhaustive literature review about these forms extends beyond the limits of this chapter, and it is up to each qualitative researcher to choose the most suitable form of analysis.

- **Quantitative data analysis:** Dornyei (2007) explained that the analysis of quantitative data (i.e., nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio) is carried out through a set of mathematical operations/procedures known as statistics to obtain results on the basis of which the quantitative researcher can answer his/her research questions by accepting or rejecting his/her hypotheses. This researcher also pointed out that preparing the data for analysis necessitates codifying, inputting and manipulating the data. As far as statistics is concerned, it can be broken down into two areas: descriptive and inferential. Descriptive statistics are used for data description and examination of relationships between variables, whereas inferential statistics are used to make inferences, and to draw conclusions beyond the representative sample (Marczyk, DeMatteo, & Festinger, 2005).

Each type of data analysis has no greater importance than the other type. They are entirely used based on the nature and purpose of the study.

3.1.6 Sampling techniques

Guaranteeing the suitability of methodology and strategies to be used in an inquiry is not enough. The researcher has also to consider the population that will enable him/her to gain information. Unfortunately, the study of the whole population is often impossible and

impractical, as well due to some factors, such as: time, cost and accessibility (Singh, 2006). Therefore, the concept of sampling has been introduced.

Kumar (2011) defined sampling as “the process of selecting a few (a sample) from a bigger group (the sampling population) to become the basis for estimating or predicting the prevalence of an unknown piece of information, situation or outcome regarding the bigger group” (p.193). Needless to say, a sample must be determined before the collection of data. With regard to the sample, Kothari (2004) insisted that it should be representative, and selected without any bias in order to reach reliable findings. For this matter, there is a number of sampling methods that any researcher has to be acquainted with.

Broadly speaking, there are two methods of sampling: probability (random) sample and non-probability (purposive) sample. In a probability sample, including or excluding a member from the population into the sample is a matter of chance and nothing else (i.e., all members of the population have equal chances to be selected). In contrast with non-probability sample, members are purposely included or excluded (Cohen et al., 2007). These two methods can be further categorised as illustrated in the following figure.

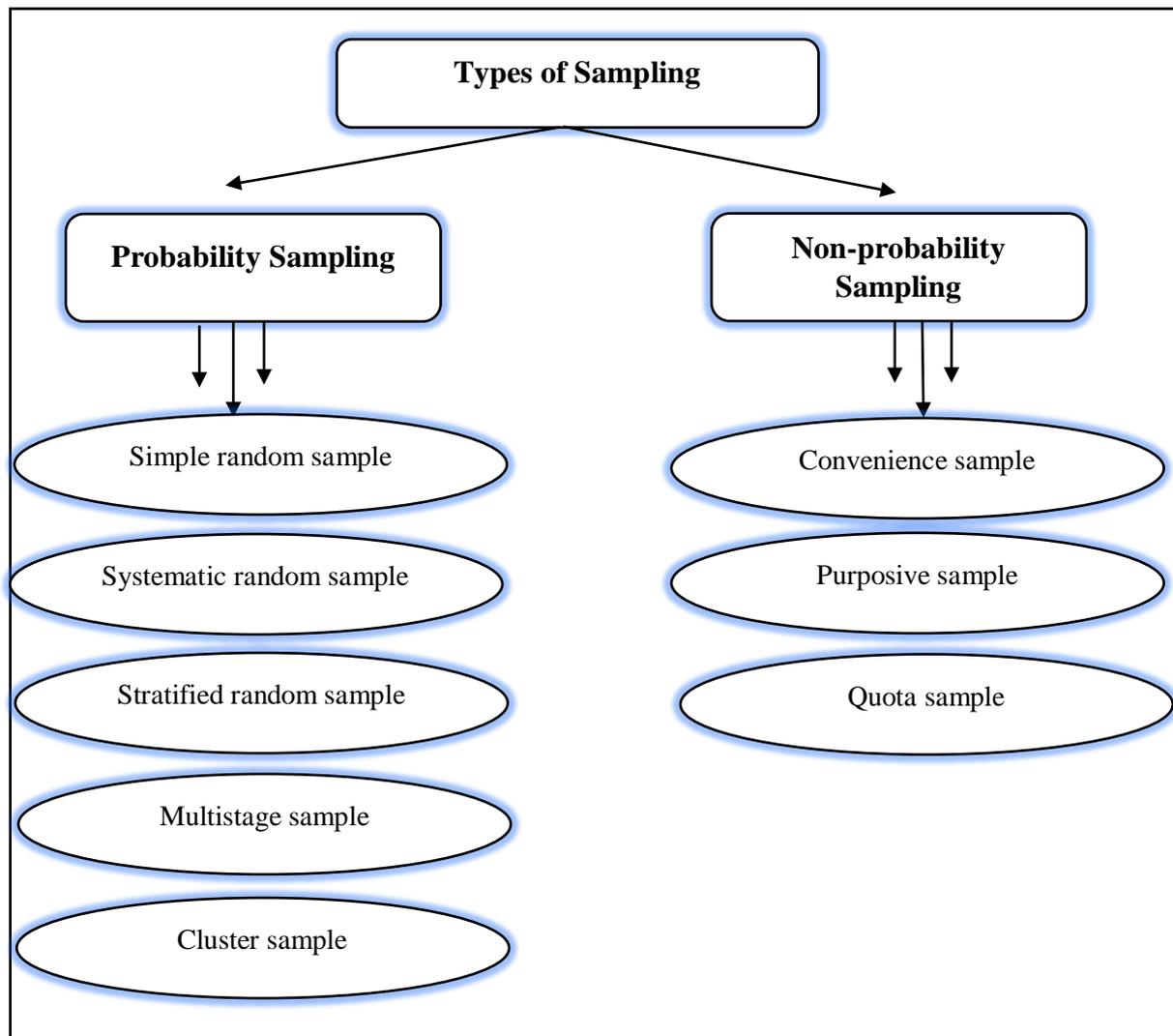


Figure5. Main Types of Sampling in Social Sciences

3.2 Research Methodology for this Study: Choices and Rationale

Conducting a study requires framing it methodologically by making a variety of decisions that depend upon the nature of the study, in addition to the researcher's objectives. For this reason, we seek to describe the rationale behind the adopted methodological decisions for our study.

3.2.1 Research paradigm

A research endeavour should be anchored by a set of beliefs and assumptions that constitute a paradigmatic base for the research methodological framework. Correspondingly, the present research is located within the constructivist paradigm. Admittedly, selecting this

particular paradigm is, primarily, attributed to our purpose of deducing meaning through our own thinking and cognitive processing to the collected data from the context. Additionally, our research is associated with constructivism because this paradigm has the ability to narrate the suitable methodology, and which, by its turn, guide us to choose the research approach, design and methods (i.e., methods of collection, analysing and sampling).

3.2.2 Research approach

The adopted research approach to conduct the current study is the one associated with the constructivist paradigm, and which is the qualitative approach. This approach is chosen for our research because it can help us in offering a unique vision and an in-depth understanding of the specific issue that we want to explore in relation to FSs. Furthermore, we reckon that this approach is the most convenient approach to be used for the kind of evaluation that we are looking to have by the end of the study. For instance, it prerequisites the selection of the appropriate research design and data collection methods. On this account, the qualitative approach better fits our research aims especially that a “how” and “what” questions have been posed at the right beginning.

3.1.3 Research design/strategy

Once the research paradigm and approach have been determined, the difficulty of our task in taking methodological decisions decreases. At the current stage, a case study is adopted as a research design within which to work. In reference to the narrow context of our research, a case study seems to serve the purpose because it emphasises getting deeper understanding of the issue under study, and it also allows collecting data in natural settings. These two advantages are in harmony with the wider picture concerning the orientation of this research.

3.2.4 Data collection methods

In spite of the fact that any research stays theoretical until the researcher decides upon its methodological framework, executing the study technically starts when data collection

methods are specified. A great emphasis is put on the accurate selection of data collection methods because they can have a direct impact on the results of the study. For this reason, some factors should be kept in view while selecting the methods to be utilised, such as: the nature of the study, time and financial resources. As far as the present study is concerned with data collection, a semi structured observation wherein the observer is a non-participant and documents analysis are included.

3.2.4.1 Classroom observation

3.2.4.1.1 Aim and structure. In pursuance of attaining the objectives of this research, a semi-structured classroom observation checklist was first employed to gain direct information from non-artificial educational settings. It is important to note that two checklists were designed and used because the learning-teaching process of the subject under study occupied both tutorial sessions and lectures. The first one was used during the lectures to ensure that teacher's instructional delivery of the content is relevant both to the students and to the purpose of undertaking this study. Therefore, this particular checklist was complementary, and it aimed to set the stage, and guarantee the functionality of the second checklist. The latter was conducted during tutorial sessions with an eye on exploring the kind of encountered difficulties by students in relation to FSs, spotting light on their involvement, and identifying the impact of potential difficulties on their CC (i.e., the oral aspect).

Designing a checklist is no less difficult than practically conducting it. Since there is no ready-made observation grid, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, that suits the issue under study, tailor-made checklists were prepared by taking into consideration the research questions and aims. The commonality between the two observation checklists is that the observer was a non-participant, and they were semi-structured. They contained a number of directive items that helped the observer to take notes whenever necessary.

With regard to the first checklist (See Appendix 5), it contained six items under one section. The main purpose of these six items is to confirm the effectiveness of the teacher's personal approach of teaching the researcher's topic of interest. In the meanwhile, the second observation checklist was divided into three sections (See Appendix 6). The first section included three items that sought to explore teacher's instructional practices and routines during tutorial sessions. The second section attempted to collect notes about the content knowledge (i.e., area of FSs), and its relevance in connection to students through three directive items. Then, the final section involved four items as a means to examine students' participation while they performed some activities.

3.2.4.1.2 Piloting and validation. The piloting stage is crucial for increasing the validity, reliability and effectiveness of the chosen data collection method prior to its full implementation during the study. However, what happens during an occurring situation cannot be replicated. Therefore, the preliminary checklist of observation (See Appendix 4) was piloted during the first actual session that was supposed to be included within the observational sessions. This piloting stage was executed for the sake of identifying potential deficiencies in the first designed checklist. A copy from the latter was handed to a fellow student of the researcher, and she was asked to accompany the researcher during this stage in order to know her position vis-à-vis the format and the content, specifically her critical comments and suggestions. Contrary to the researcher's expectations, neither the provided items nor the format were sufficiently effective. Consequently, the preliminary checklist was revised and refined into two more suitable checklists. The final version of the checklists were administered to the supervisor who expressed his approval for executing them.

3.2.4.2 Document analysis

3.2.4.2.1 Aim and structure. To strengthen the credibility of the data obtained in the classroom observation, and to minimise potential bias resulting from the first data collection method,

document analysis was used to provide another source of data that happens to be collected in live occurring settings. It is noteworthy that document analysis is particularly applicable to qualitative studies, and it can help in discovering insights that are relevant to the researcher's purpose. The present research study opted for document analysis to, first, explore students' integration of FSs in their written productions by focusing on what has been noted and considered as encountered difficulties during the classroom observation, and, most importantly, to evaluate the effect of such difficulties on their CC (i.e., the written aspect).

Documents can take many forms, and ours took the form of a written test. The test was composed of three section where each section was devoted to one of the main types of FSs. The focus was on the second activity where students were given four phrasal verbs (put up, look through, run out and get into) to be used in their literal and non-literal meaning in sentences from their own production. This activity was chosen because it examined students in terms of the semantic level of FSs, and it could help to confirm what has been hypothesised, and to draw out more fruitful insights. In other words, it could directly serve the purpose of the researcher.

3.2.5 Data collection procedures

3.2.5.1 Data collection procedure for the classroom observation. With respect to ethical considerations, the classroom observation was not carried out until obtaining written consent from the Head of Department, Head of Section and the teacher (see appendices 1,2,3). Thereafter, the final version of the checklists were used during the first semester of the academic year (2018/2019) starting from November 26th till December 10th with a total of six sessions of observation. The teacher whose class was observed showed cooperativeness, but, unfortunately, he refused the use of an audiotape recorder, and his decision was respected.

The observation took place during two different settings; however, this did not pose a challenge to the observer since she has already prepared two checklists. On the one hand, one of them (i.e., the checklist used during the lecture) was directed only towards the teacher's

instructional routines, and it was conducted in three sessions. On the other hand, the second checklist was used to observe one selected group over three tutorial sessions where the researcher could be able to pursuit her aims more adequately than observing the whole population.

3.2.5.2 Data collection procedure for document analysis. In order to obtain the documents to be analysed, the same teacher was kindly asked to hand us his students' copies of a test. Admittedly, he expressed his complete and immediate willingness to do so. It is should be pointed out that the total number of the copies to be analysed was 40.

3.2.6 Data analysis procedures

3.2.6.1 Data analysis procedures for the classroom observation. To analyse the collected data from both classrooms observations, a thematic analysis was opted for. The latter seemed to be suitable since the items of the checklists were already grouped into specific themes that bear similar assumptions. Then, a descriptive method was used to describe, explain, and interpret the major ideas held under each theme.

3.2.6.2 Data analysis procedures for document analysis. To analyse the copies that the researcher could have at hands where the focus was only on one activity, we opted for a content analysis. First, we attempted to turn qualitative data into quantitative evidence by counting the number of correct and wrong answers besides the corresponding number of students. It is worth mentioning here that the teacher's correction was mainly considered as a criteria to determine the wrong answers from the correct ones. This can be justified by his experience and knowledgeable comparing to the researcher, and this may help her to have more credible results. As a result, we were able to elicit one final table that could be used descriptively. This entails that a descriptive method was used for the description, analysis and interpretation of the deduced ideas from data under focus.

3.2.7 Population / Sampling technique

The target population of this research study included Master one students (N = 195) at the section of English at Biskra University because they are considered as the only level to be taught FSs. The elements that were actually studied constituted one group (n = 49) from the whole population, the second group in particular. This group was selected following a purposive sampling technique, and it was chosen based on its suitability for furnishing the research with the needed information.

3.3 Study Description and Rationale

Formulaic language as a promising field of study is gaining more attention by researchers who are conducting many studies on the improvement of teaching FSs via different approaches. However, we were mainly concerned in identifying certain difficulties that may impair this improvement. Wray (2000) stated, "If formulaic sequences are so difficult to learn, then unless we understand why, we are unlikely to hit a successful way of teaching them" (p.468). That was what has urged the researcher to investigate some of the induced difficulties by FSs and their effect on learner's CC. Precisely, the focus was on the semantic level to see whether non-literal meaning can constitute an obstacle to EFL learners when attempting to communicate or they can be learnt and reproduced easily regardless to their meaning type. Based on the nature of the study, in addition to the researcher's purposes, a qualitative approach was opted for, where two phases of data collection were included:

First phase

This phase integrated collecting qualitative data through two semi-structured classroom observations: One at the teaching level where the focus was only on the teacher, and the other at the practicing level where the focus was on the sample. In this phase, the researcher intended to be a non-participant observer in six sessions where one of the teachers was already teaching

formulaic language as a part of the syllabus of Language Mastery course to Master One students.

During lectures, the students were introduced to a general definition about formulaic language, its categories, and its importance in relation to CC. Here, the first used checklist took into consideration the teacher's method of delivering the content, so that the researcher can make sure that the teacher's way of instruction is not a source for the difficulties that his students may face. Throughout tutorials, the focus of the second checklist was directed towards students' engagement and participation during their practice to get insights about the faced difficulties in relation to the integration of these ready-made combinations in their oral communication.

Second phase

It also integrated collecting qualitative data through a test submitted by the teacher to his students after the end of the classroom observation. As it was confirmed by the teacher, the test covered the different categories of formulaic language, while a greatest focus was given to the semantic level. Then, a Content-based Approach was undertaken with students' copies of the test in order to check the second research hypothesis which indicates that a non-literal meaning of a formulaic sequence can constitute an obstacle to an effective communication, notably at the level of the writing skill.

After passing through these two phases, the researcher may become able to make a final evaluation about the effect of the encountered difficulties on students' CC.

3.4 Results and Discussion

In this section, the researcher attempts to present the results that were collected from the pre-specified data collection methods. Then, these results will be discussed with reference to the aim of this study.

3.4.1 Results of classroom observation

The following is completely devoted for presenting and discussing the obtained results from the classroom observation in light of what was already posed as research questions.

Classroom Observation (1)

Section One: Teacher's Instructional Delivery of the Content

It was observed that there was no confirmation or comprehension checks by the teacher, so that he can check if his students have fully grasped the content been delivered to them, or there were certain difficulties in the learning process to be detected. However, this does not reject the idea of the teacher's reliance on other criteria. In fact, he depended heavily on observing non-verbal behaviours of his students to determine if comprehension is attained, or there is a need for adding further explanations. As an example, he kept focusing, while explaining, on some paralinguistic features such as facial expressions, and body gestures as they can help him to tell whether his students were looking for more clarification about the content or not. On the top of that, he endeavoured to simplify complex and difficult materials by providing varied explanations. For instance, he used the act of exemplification to explain opaque idioms, and he even used activities to explain an idea when needed.

The teacher was noticeably stating information directly, and explaining the content explicitly. He also attempted to communicate his ideas effectively as he articulated clearly, repeated some explanations, and used the board to write important notes. During the process of teaching, the teacher was directing his students' attention towards the importance of understanding the meaning of FSs, but he did not completely neglect their syntactical forms. For example, he considered phrasal verbs to be challenging in terms of their meaning that is typically not obvious for their first-time readers. In the case of collocations, there was a greater emphasis on their syntactical forms due to their variety that needs to be considered by students.

By the end of each attended lecture, the teacher included follow-up activities that were simple and linked to FSs.

Through discussion of what has been observed, teacher's method of teaching was based on directness and explicitness, so that students could be able to keep their focus on the content been explained to them. In his attempt to determine the attainability of comprehension, he depended on the non-verbal type of communication (i.e., paralinguistic features). This behaviour may help students who prefer to keep silent even if they are not fully understanding what they are being taught. Nonetheless, this did not allow him to ignore verbal communication (i.e., linguistic features), and which requires asking direct questions such as yes/no questions (e.g., do you need further explanation?).

It appears that the teacher could succeed, to a certain extent, in simplifying the complex material since he opted for a set of ways to explain effectively, such as: exemplification, repetition and visualisation (i.e., forming a mental image in the mind for an abstract idea). Additionally, he tried to consolidate his students' understanding through a simple follow-up activity by the end of each lecture. Most importantly, the teacher showed a kind of sensibility about considering both syntax and semantics when teaching FSs. This can be proved by his insistence on the idea that no logical connection can be found between the form and the meaning of many FSs. Overall, the students had the chance to be exposed explicitly to the area of FSs in an academically-based context even if it was for a limited period of time.

Classroom Observation (2)

Section one: Teacher's Instructional Practices

In each session, it was noticed that the developed questions and activities from the part of the teacher vary among matching activities, completion tasks, improvising dialogues, written or oral productions and others. This variation of activities was also accompanied by a graduation in the difficulty scale in a way that suited the students, and fitted the area of FSs.

For instance, the students were firstly asked to do a gap-fill activity; and then there was a shift to make their own communicative productions whether solely or in peers.

Additionally, the teacher made an extra emphasis on the semantic level in relation to FSs. This became clear when he explicitly directed his students' attention towards using contextual clues included within the activities for the sake of understanding and extracting the meaning of FSs, the non-literal meaning in particular. For example, he explained that either "make" or "do" can collocate with a noun to end up with a collocation, and he provided them with basic clues about how to figure out the exact meaning of a collocation made up from one of these two verbs. Moreover, the teacher did not only let the floor for his students to participate but he aimed to foster their participation through posing integrating questions and giving sufficient allotted time for the students to think and answer loudly.

Having said the above, it seems that the activities met students' level of expectancy due to the well-order and diversity they displayed in all of the observed sessions. In addition, they were incited by the teacher, and their participation in classroom activities was welcomed. With regard to the meaning along with its types (i.e., literal and non-literal), teachers' instructional practices evoke that he was aware about the necessity of putting more emphasis on it in order to ease his students' comprehension of different FSs. However, there was not a well-defined sign of his concern about the difficulty that the type of meaning may create to an EFL learner, especially when he reaches the stage of communicating his/her ideas effectively. In other words, the primary concern of the teacher was in the process of making his students understand what he is delivering more than making them able to produce effective communicative messages.

Section Two: Content Knowledge and Relevance

Classroom activities were carefully designed based on their relevance to the content being taught in the area of FSs, and this was observed throughout all the sessions. Furthermore, the expected difficulties in the content of this assigned area (FSs), specifically on the semantic

level, worked as a hindrance to a successful communication of ideas whether the activity required written answers or immediate oral responses from the students. However, the degree of difficulty under lens in this study varied from one activity to another (i.e., based on the type of FSs). This was clearly noticed during the session of collocations where the majority of the utilised collocations held a literal and context-independent meaning. Therefore, the students gained more ability to answer some activities accurately. On another note, the instructions of activities in relation to FSs were both relevant to the content and useful for the improvement of students' CC. For instance, the students were instructed within the same activity to answer in a written form, then to speak aloud. What is more is that there was a focus on their academic productive skills (i.e., writing and speaking) through specific activities such as making informal phrasal verbs sound more formal.

In consideration of the foregoing, both the design and instructions of in-class activities attempted to incorporate the content of FSs that students have learnt, and to reinforce their CC in an academic manner. However, the efficiency of these instructions may start to be minimised if we take the factor of time into consideration. This means that the devoted time for activities was probably insufficient. More precisely, assigning three sessions for practising an entire area is logically far away to be reached if not unattainable. Therefore, it becomes nearly impossible to provide students with focused and intensive instructions that can train them for a long-term academic development of FSs use in their communicative messages.

Section Three: Students' Perception of Formulaic Sequences and their Involvement

Throughout all the sessions, the students did not show any apparent tendency to ask questions about FSs whether in connection to the semantic or syntactic level though they were encouraged by the teacher to express their ideas and concerns freely. Nonetheless, they appeared to be unable to answer adequately and communicate effectively through different instructional activities. Putting this in an illustrative way, when these students were discussing

together the answers of some activities, they could not make an agreement about the type of meaning that some phrasal verbs were holding. However, they could partly determine whether the same phrasal verbs were separable or inseparable (i.e., can be broken up by other words).

As another observation, the students tended to participate more frequently whenever an in-class activity contained instructions about FSs that are semantically transparent, and not vice versa. When it comes to meeting the teacher's objectives of integrating FSs by students to communicate their ideas, it differed from one session to another and from one type of FSs to another. For instance, in the session of collocations, the teacher showed positive feedback to his students for their ability of employing collocations appropriately in their own productions. Yet, they did not get the same feedback during the session of phrasal verbs and idioms where the teacher described some answers as artificial and not spontaneous.

Considering the above observations, students' unwillingness to ask questions during the attended sessions showed them as passive listeners, and this may be owing to the fact that they were unmotivated or uninterested in the area of FSs. It can also be linked to psychological factors such as the fear from being judged by their fellow students, shyness and others. Moreover, their incompetence in answering all activities correctly can be mainly referred to the difficulty level of instructions that increased whenever the meaning of an existing sequence in the activity became harder to be extracted holistically. This implies that a word by word translation was not suitable to understand the meaning of the sequence. Rather, it required going beyond the combined meaning of the words that constituted a sequence. Therefore, students' ability to communicate their ideas in an oral form proved to be greater when it comes to dealing with FSs that are semantically transparent. In other words, a lower level of semantic transparency can create a difficulty for students, and this may be negatively reflected on their CC. This reflection can be demonstrated through teacher's immediate explicit feedback to his students' oral production.

3.4.2 Results of Document Analysis

Students' answers on the activity have been analysed to pinpoint the sort of difficulty that most of students encountered while integrating FSs into their own written production. Besides, to evaluate the effect of this encountered difficulty on their CC, particularly the written aspect. From a broad view, the analysis of students' answers revealed that the majority of students have committed errors in using the four FSs in their own productions whether in their literal or non-literal meaning (See Appendix 8). As a matter of fact, only four students out of 40 (10%) were able to use successfully all the given FSs literally and non-literally, whereas the answers of the rest (90%) were not satisfactory. The following table transforms qualitative data into numbers, so that it may be easier for the researcher to make a sound description and fruitful interpretations:

Table 3.3 Number of Correct and Wrong Answers in the Activity

	Literal meaning		Non-literal meaning	
	Correct answers	Wrong answers	Correct answers	Wrong answers
Put up	25	15	7	33
Look through	38	2	33	7
Run out	37	3	27	13
Get into	29	11	31	9
Total number	128	32	97	63

Concerning the first FS “put up”, 25 students have succeeded in using it correctly in its literal meaning. However, only seven students were able to use it in its non-literal meaning. This means that 33 students failed in providing meaningful written sentences. The important thing to mention about this sequence is that it was not introduced during the lecture as the researcher has noted in the first classroom observation directed towards the teacher's

instructional delivery of the content. However, the forthcoming FSs were introduced during the lecture, and the students gained acquaintance with them.

In the case of the FS “look through”, students’ answers were dissimilar from the previous ones, and their results were more acceptable since 33 students out of 40 have used this sequence correctly in its non-literal meaning. The remaining seven used it incorrectly, or even neglected using it by leaving blank spaces (See Appendix 8). What has drawn our attention, here, is that most of the students have linked “look through” with words that have a relation with sheets of papers, such as: files, exams sheets, books and research papers. This means that no variety existed within the integration of this sequence in its non-literal meaning, and they were not aware about other usages of it. On the counterpart, the easiness of providing a sentence that contains “look through” in its literal meaning explains the successfulness of 38 students in doing that, especially that they have been introduced to it previously (i.e., during the lecture).

In respect of the third sequence “run out”, it seems that the facility level of integrating it in its non-literal meaning has decreased since the number of wrong answers have increased, and only 27 students out of 40 were able to use it adequately. A major part of the students have used this sequence in relation to time (e.g., time runs out!), while only few of them attempted to use it differently (e.g., oxygen is running out). One more time, the faced difficulty by students lied in dealing with semantic opaqueness rather than semantic transparency. This can be justified by the ability of 37 students to make it right when communicating their ideas literally when employing “run out”.

With regard to the last sequence “get into”, it was surprising to find out that the number of wrong answers in both cases was similar. That is to say, 11 students failed to use this particular sequence literally, and nine failed in doing it non-literally. In other words, there was not much of disparity in succeeding or failing to use the phrasal verb “get into” literally and non-literally.

Through discussion to the results, one can deduce, that direct instruction and exposure to FSs in an academic context proved to be highly required and essential for EFL learners in order to gain familiarity with them along with their both types of meaning. For instance, “put up” was not included in the content that has been delivered by the teacher during the lecture. This explains the wrong use of this phrasal verb in sentences from their own by the majority of them. Putting this matter in another way, the absence of direct instruction in the area of FSs will probably lead students to the inappropriate use of these multiword combinations or even the non-use or neglect as it was done by some students.

Additionally, students’ ability to use FSs literally in their answers was characterised by correctness and disparity, in most of the cases, unlike the non-literal use where students failed to show neither correctness nor disparity. This was mainly manifested in the total number of students’ wrong answers in each meaning. Consequently, our proposed hypothesis can be confirmed, and which indicates that the non-literal meaning of FSs stands as a major constraint to any student who is willing to integrate FSs in his/her own communication. For that reason, the students will not be able to communicate their ideas properly in the target language as was the case in the previous analysed activity. This means that their CC will be affected negatively, specifically at the level of productive skills (i.e., the writing skill in this case).

3.5 Synthesis of the Findings

In an effort to give our research findings the final look, we attempt to provide a comprehensive piece of writing that would synthesise the obtained results from the classroom observations and document analysis. Not only this, but to demonstrate their relevance and connection to the present research questions, and to confirm the proposed research hypotheses.

The departure of this research was based on the aim of pinpointing the sort of difficulties that are induced by FSs, and which EFL learners may encounter when they are in the process of communicating their ideas through spoken or written words. For doing so, we thought that it

is essential to assure that the students are directly instructed in the area of FSs, and that the teacher is by no means a contributing factor in this difficulty. Here, it should be mentioned that at the level of semantics lies this predicted difficulty. Based on the findings of the first classroom observation where the teacher along with his teaching method were the primary focus, it was confirmed that the students are receiving direct instruction in the designated area. In addition, the teacher endeavoured to direct his students' attention towards the types of meaning that a FS may hold, and this presents the central focus of this research.

After getting that kind of affirmation, we sought to move on to the next stage of this study in order to determine the difficulties that an EFL learner will encounter when trying to integrate FSs in his/her communication, principally speaking and writing. The findings drawn from both second classroom observation, in addition to document analysis indicate that the students become less able to answer an instructional activity whenever they are supposed to deal with the non-literal meaning of FSs. To put it in another way, a lower level of semantic transparency of FSs can lead to a higher level of difficulty for students. As a result, it can be assured that the non-literal meaning of FSs stands as an obstacle to an effective communication.

Lastly, this study was also concerned with evaluating the effect of the pre-specified difficulty on EFL learners' CC. Through observing students' oral responses of different activities, and analysing their written answers of the test, it was concluded that the level of correctness and disparity in the provided answers by the students varies based on the semantic transparency of FS. Besides this, students' level of engagement gets lower if the activity requires using a FS in its non-literal meaning. From here, it can be confirmed that a negative effect can be created on EFL learners' CC since the non-literal meaning of FSs can obstruct learners from transmitting and communicating their ideas effectively. Overall, the findings of this present study are highly relevant for the posed and proposed research questions and hypotheses.

Conclusion

This final chapter was mainly devoted to the discussion of the fieldwork and data analysis. Before casting light on the adopted methodology to conduct the present study, a theoretical background of research methodology was reviewed in a general and brief way. Then, the taken methodological decisions about this study in terms of research paradigm, approach, design and data collection methods were described and justified in succession. Next, the collected data were analysed, and the obtained findings were linked to the raised research questions to come up with one precise conclusion.

General Conclusion

In recent times, communicative competence has reached its hey days since EFL learners and practitioners in the educational field are gaining more awareness about its importance in relation to understanding and producing communicative messages. Therefore, researchers have been looking for solutions that may contribute in its development, one of which is formulaic sequences. The latter proved to play a crucial role in turning learners to proficient communicators of the target language.

As for the current study, it was concerned with problems that hinder the functionality of the suggested solutions in the literature. In precise terms, this study focused on pinpointing the non-literal meaning/low level of semantic transparency of formulaic sequences as a difficulty that can create certain effect on learners' communicative competence. That is to say, this difficulty was explored and its effect was evaluated in order to provide a reliable evidence rather than putting an assumption quite blindly.

This research encompasses three chapters wherein two of them were devoted to the related review of literature about the dependent and independent variables in this study. The first chapter attempted to shed light on communicative competence as a pivotal need for EFL learners by defining it, tackling its models, and displaying a simplified historical overview on it. Then, it ended up by relating communicative competence to formulaic sequences. With regard to the second chapter, it was devoted to formulaic sequences as a promising field of study. The definition, characteristics, types and functions of formulaic sequences have been dealt with in this chapter. Besides, it briefly discussed some of the learning difficulties that can be caused to the learners of formulaic sequences. Concerning the third chapter, it addressed the methodological plan followed in the conduction of this study.

To conduct this evaluative study, a qualitative research approach was adopted where two classroom observations and document analysis were employed to collect appropriate and

relevant data to the research's purpose. With regard to the findings, it revealed that even after being explicitly instructed, learners are still obstructed by the non-literal meaning when trying to incorporate formulaic sequences in their communication, namely speaking and writing. Most importantly, this obstruction reaches their communicative competence where the latter is negatively affected.

The results of this study asserted the necessity of developing instructional practices and strategies that can be suitable for prolonging learners' ability to use formulaic sequences more effectively, and, eventually, affecting positively their communicative competence. Accordingly, researchers are incited to come up with solutions to the already presented difficulty, and which can be relevant in the Algerian educational context, each researcher from his own unique perspective.

Pedagogical Implications

Lastly, some pedagogical implications can be drawn based on the analysis of the obtained data and in accordance with the aims of this study. They are as follow:

For teachers

- Teachers should give more attention to teaching the area of formulaic sequences.
- Teachers are encouraged to introduce formulaic sequences to EFL learners in an early stage from their learning process. Moreover, this inclusion demands carefulness from the teachers' part in order to avoid being a source of learning difficulties.
- Teachers are urged to devote more time for their students to practise the use of formulaic sequences after being explicitly taught.

For students

- Students are recommended to extend their practice on formulaic sequences away from the classroom context.

- Students should integrate formulaic sequences in their communication, so that they can develop their formulaic competence, in particular, and communicative competence, in general.

For researchers

- Researchers should consider conducting more studies in the field of formulaic sequences, in addition to creating practical instructional strategies that can consolidate teachers' efforts to overcome the sort of difficulties discussed earlier in this study.

Limitations of the Study

One of the hurdles of undertaking this research is the unavailability of books in relation to the second variable (i.e., formulaic sequences). That is to say, most of the references are in the form of research papers, articles and collections of previous studies. In addition, this evaluative study is confined only to one group of master students at the section of English at Biskra University, which means that no generalisability can be made.

References

- Alhaysony, M. H. (2017). Strategies and Difficulties of Understanding English Idioms : A Case Study of Saudi University EFL Students, *7*(3), 70–84. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ijel.v7n3p70>
- Assassi, T., & Benyelles, R. (2016). Formulaic Language for Improving Communicative Competence. *Arab World English Journal*, *7*(2), 163–176. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2814817>
- Bachman, L. . (1990). *Fundamental Consideration in Language Testing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bachman, L. F., & Palmer, A. S. (1996). *Language Testing in Practice: Designing and Developing Useful Language Tests*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bagari, V., & Mihaljevi, J. (2007). Defining Communicative Competence, *8*(1), 94–103.
- Baker, M. (2018). *In Other Words: A course book on translation* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Boers, F., Eyckmans, J., Kappel, J., & Stengers, H. (2006). Formulaic Sequences and Perceived Oral Proficiency: Putting a Lexical Approach to the Test. *Language Teaching Research*, *10*(3), 245–261. <https://doi.org/10.1191/1362168806lr195oa>
- Bowen, G. A. (2009). Document Analysis as a Qualitative Research Method. *Qualitative Research Journal*, *9*(2), 27–40. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.3316/QRJ0902027>
- Bruening, B. (2018). Idioms , Collocations , and Structure Conventionalized Expressions and the Analysis of Ditransitives, 1–48.
- Buck, B. R., & Vanlear, C. A. (2002). Verbal and Nonverbal Communication : Distinguishing Symbolic , Spontaneous , and Pseudo-Spontaneous Nonverbal Behavior. *Journal of Communication*, *52*(3), 522–541. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1093/joc/52.3.522>
- Calero, H. H. (2005). *The Power of Nonverbal Communication*. Los Angeles: Silver Lake Publishing.

- Can, N. (2011). *A Proverb Learned is a Proverb Earned: Future English Teachers Experiences of Learning English proverbs in Anatolian Teacher Training High School in Turkey*. Middle East Technical University.
- Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical Bases of Communicative Approaches to Second Language Teaching and Testing. *Applied Linguistics*, 1(1), 1–47.
<https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/I.1.1>
- Celce-Murcia, M., Dörnyei, Z., & Thurrell, S. (1995). A Pedagogical Framework for Communicative Competence : Content Specifications and Guidelines for Communicative Language Teaching. *Issues in Applied Linguistics*, 6(2), 5–35.
- Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the theory of syntax*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Massachusetts Institute of Technology.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research Methods in Education* (6th ed.). London: Routledge.
- Communication (n.d.) In Merriam-Webster dictionary. Retrieved from <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/communication>
- Cortes, V. (2004). Lexical bundles in published and student disciplinary writing: Examples from history and biology. *English for Specific Purposes*, 23, 397–423.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2003.12.001>
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches*. Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE Publications.
- Denscombe, M. (2010). *The Good Research Guide: For small-scale social research projects* (4th ed.). Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Dey, I. (1993). *Qualitative Data Analysis: A User-Friendly Guide to Social Scientists*. London: Routledge.
- Dictionary, M.-W. collegiate. (n.d.). Communication.

- Dornyei, Z. (2007). *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics: Quantitative, Qualitative and Mixed Methodologies*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Duan, M., & Qin, X. (2012). Collocation in English Teaching and Learning. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 2(9), 1890–1894. <https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.2.9.1890-1894>
- Duran, R. L. (1983). Communicative Adaptability: A Measure of Social Communicative Competence. *Communication Quarterly*, 31(4), 320–326. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01463378309369521>
- Eghtesadi, A. R. (2017). Models of Communicative Competence: Implications for Language Teachers and Teacher Educators. *Roshd FLT*, 31(3), 20–28.
- El-dakhs, D. A. (2015). Collocational Competence in English Language Teaching: An Overview. *Arab World English Journal*, 6(1), 68–82. <https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2834432>
- El-Dakhs, D. A. S., Prue, T. T., & Ijaz, A. (2017). The Effect of the Explicit Instruction of Formulaic Sequences in Pre-Writing Vocabulary Activities on Foreign Language Writing. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics & English Literature*, 6(4), 21–31. <https://doi.org/10.7575/aiac.ijalel.v.6n.4p.21>
- Fernández, B. G., & Schmitt, N. (2015). How much collocation knowledge do L2 learners have? The effects of frequency and amount of exposure. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 166(1), 94–126. <https://doi.org/10.1075/itl.166.1.03fer>
- Gałąjda, D. (2017). Communicative Competence. In *Second Language Learning and Teaching* (pp. 19–27). <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-59333-3>
- Greene, J. O., & Burleson, B. R. (2003). *Handbook of Communication and Social Interaction Skills* (1st ed). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1978). *Language as Social Semiotic: the Social Interpretation of Language*

- and Meaning*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Hamad, A. (2004). On The Definition of Competence in Linguistic Inquiry. *Journal Of the Islamic University of Gaza*, 12(1), 171–183.
- Hauser, M. D. (1996). *The Evolution of Communication*. Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.
- Hoadjli, A. C. (2016). *Master 1 Research Methodology Syllabus*. Biskra, Algeria: Mohamed Kheider University of Biskra.
- Hymes, D. (1972). On Communicative Competence. In *Sociolinguistics: Selected Readings*. Harmondsworth: Penguin.
- Introductory Guide to the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) for English Language Teachers. (2013). Cambridge University Press. Retrieved from <http://www.englishprofile.org/images/pdf/GuideToCEFR.pdf>
- Irujo, S. (1986). Don' t Put Your Leg in Your Mouth : in the Acquisition of Idioms Transfer in a Second Language. *TESOL QUARTERLY*, 20(2), 287–304.
- Islam, F. (2016). *Effectiveness of Communicative Language Teaching at Primary Level in Bangladesh*. BRAC University, Dhaka, Bangladesh.
- Jackson, J. (2012). *The Routledge Handbook of Language and Intercultural Communication*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Kecskes, I. (2007). Formulaic Language in English Lingua Franca. In I. Kecskes & L. R. Horn (Eds.), *Explorations in Pragmatics: Linguistic, cognitive and intercultural aspects*. Berlin/New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Kivunja, A. C., Ahmed, A., & Kuyini, B. (2017). Understanding and Applying Research Paradigms in Educational Contexts. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 6(5), 26–41. <https://doi.org/10.5430/ijhe.v6n5p26>
- Kothari, C. R. (2004). *Research Methodology: Methods and Techniques* (2nd ed.). New Delhi: New Age International.

- Kumar, R. (2011). *Research Methodology: A Step-by-Step Guide for Beginners* (3rd ed.). New Delhi: SAGE Publications Ltd.
- Lasala, C. B. (2014). Communicative competence of secondary senior students : Language instructional pocket. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 134, 226–237. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.04.243>
- Leavy, P. (2017). *Research Design: Quantitative, Qualitative, Mixed Methods, Arts-Based, and Community-Based*. The Guilford Press.
- Lewis, M. (1993). *The Lexical Approach: The State of ELT and a Way Forward* (1st ed.). Hove: Language Teaching Publication.
- Lewis, M. (2000). *Teaching collocation: further developments in the lexical approach*. Boston: Thomson Heinle.
- Macis, M., & Schmitt, N. (2017). Not just ‘ small potatoes ’: Knowledge of the idiomatic meanings of collocations. *Language Teaching Research*, 21(3), 321–340. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168816645957>
- Marczyk, G., DeMatteo, D., & Festinger, D. (2005). *Essentials of Research Design and Methodology*. (A. S. Kaufman & N. L. Kaufman, Eds.). Hoboken, New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons.
- McCarthy, M., & O’Dell, F. (2002). *English Idioms In Use*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Merriam, S. B., & Tisdell, E. J. (2016). *Qualitative Research: A Guide to Design and Implementation* (4th ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Misra, Y., & Sharma, V. (2016). Assessing the Impact of Adoption of Competency Framework on Firm Performance: The Holy Grail of HR. *SSRN Electronic Journal*, 1, 159–176. <https://doi.org/doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2843192>
- Newby, D. (2011). Competence and Performance in Learning and Teaching: Theories and

- Practices. In *Selected Papers from the 19th International Symposium on Theoretical and Applied Linguistics* (pp. 15–32). Thessaloniki: Monochromia Publishing. Retrieved from https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=fr&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=Competence+and+performance+in+learning+and+teaching%3A+theories+and+practices+David+Newby&btnG=
- O'Dell, F., & McCarthy, M. (2017). *English Collocations in Use Advanced* (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ohno, A. (2011). Communicative Competence and Communicative Language Teaching. Retrieved from https://www.u-bunkyo.ac.jp/center/library/image/fsell2002_25-32.pdf
- Paulston, C. B. (1992). *Linguistic and Communicative Competence : Topics in ESL*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Pawley, A. (2007). Developments in the study of formulaic language since 1970: A personal view. In P. Skandera (Ed.), *Phraseology and Culture in English*. New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Rafieya, V. (2018). Knowledge of Formulaic Sequences as a Predictor of Language Proficiency. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, 7(2), 64–69. <https://doi.org/10.7575/aiac.ijalel.v.7n.2p.64>
- Rao, C. S. (2018). The Importance of Collocations in Teaching of Vocabulary. *Journal for Research Scholars and Professionals of English Language Teaching*, 2(7).
- Reimann, P. (2011). Design-Based Research. In L. Markauskaite, P. Freebody, & J. Irwin (Eds.), *Methodological Choice and Design: Scholarship, Policy and Practice in Social and Educational Research* (1st ed.). New York: Springer.
- Richards, J. C. (2006). *Communicative Language Teaching Today*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Rickheit, G., & Strohner, H. (2008). *Handbook of Communication Competence* (1st ed). New York: De Gruyter Mouton.

- Rimondini, M. (2011). *Communication in Cognitive Behavioral Therapy*. New York: Springer.
- Rudzka-Ostyn, B. (2003). *Word Power: Phrasal Verbs and Compounds*. (A. A. Walt & C. van Der, Eds.). Berlin/New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Sajjad, M. S. K. (2016). Basic Guidelines for Research: An Introductory Approach for all Disciplines. In *Basic Guidelines for Research: An Introductory Approach for all Disciplines* (1st ed.). Chittagong: Book Zone.
- Savignon, S. J. (2002). *Interpreting Communicative Language Teaching: Contexts and Concerns in Teacher Education*. New Heaven: Yale University Press.
- Schmitt, N. (2010). *Researching Vocabulary: A Vocabulary Research Manual*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Schmitt, N., & Carter, R. (2004). Formulaic sequences in action: An introduction. In N. Schmitt (Ed.), *Formulaic Sequences: Acquisition, processing and use*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Schmitt, N., & Redwood, S. (2011). Learner knowledge of phrasal verbs. In F. Meunier, S. De Cock, G. Gilquin, & M. Paquot (Eds.), *A Taste for corpora*. Amsterdam / Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Singh, Y. K. (2006). *Fundamentals of Research Methodology and Statistics*. New Delhi: New Age.
- Siyanova-Chanturia, A. (2015). On the Holistic Nature of Formulaic Language. *Corpus Linguistics and Linguistic Theory*, 11(2), 285–301. <https://doi.org/10.1515/cllt-2014-0016>
- Tarvin, L. D. (2015). *Communicative Competence : Its Definition , Connection to Teaching , and Relationship with Interactional Competence*. <https://doi.org/10.13140/RG.2.1.3214.2807>
- Taylor, D. S. (1988). The Meaning and Use of the Term ' Competence ' in Linguistics and Applied Linguistics. *Applied Linguistics*, 9(2), 148–168.

<https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/9.2.148>

- Uso'-Juan, E., & Martinez-Flor, A. (2006). *Current Trends in the Development and Teaching of the four Language Sills*. New York: Mouton de Gruyter. Retrieved from <http://www.englishprofile.org/images/pdf/GuideToCEFR.pdf>
- Vanderstoep, S. W., & Johnston, D. D. (2009). *Research Methods for Everyday Life: Blending Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches* (1st ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Weinert, R. (1995). The Role of Formulaic Language in Second Language Acquisition: A Review. *Applied Linguistics*, 16(2), 180–205.
- Wiemann, J. M. (1977). Explication and Test of a Model of Communicative Competence. *Human Communication Research*, 3(3), 195–213. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2958.1977.tb00518.x>
- Wisniewska, H. (2015). Communicative Competence in Professional Discourse. *Linguistics and Literature Studies*, 3(2), 50–57. <https://doi.org/10.13189/lis.2015.030203>
- Wood, D. (n.d.). Effects of focused instruction of formulaic sequences on fluent expression in second language narratives : A case study, 39–58.
- Wood, D. (2002). Formulaic Language in Acquisition and Production: Implications for Teaching. *TESL Canada Journal*, 20(1), 1–15. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.18806/tesl.v20i1.935>
- Wood, D. (2010). *Formulaic Language and Second Language Speech Fluency: Background, evidence and classroom applications*. London: Continuum.
- Wood, D. (2015). *Fundamentals of Formulaic Language: An Introduction*. London: Bloomsbury Academic.
- Wood, J. T. (2017). *Communication In Our Lives* (8th ed). Boston, MA: Cengage Learning.
- Wray, A. (1999). Formulaic Language in Learners and Native Speakers. *Language Teaching*, 32(4), 213–231.

- Wray, A. (2002). *Formulaic Language and the Lexicon*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press 2002.
- Wray, A. (2013). Formulaic language. *Language Teaching*, 46(3), 316–334.
<https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444813000013>
- Wray, A., & Perkins, M. R. (2000). The functions of formulaic language : an integrated model. *Language and Communication*, 20(1), 1–28.
[https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/s0271-5309\(99\)00015-4](https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/s0271-5309(99)00015-4)
- Yeterl, M. D. E., Ge, Z., Algisi, N., & Eylemler, V. E. (2017). Types of competence in linguistics: a review of processes and their implications in human perception and action. *DTCF Dergisi*, 57(1), 157–170.
https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1501/dtcfder_0000001508

Appendices

Appendix 1

Consent letter for the head of department

Consent letter for the head of department

Dear head of department,

I am conducting an investigation into some formulaic sequences difficulties and their effect on EFL learners' communicative competence, as part of my Master dissertation at the level of master one students at the section of English in Biskra University. At this phase of research, I wish to conduct a classroom observation within the students of a teacher in your section.

I am seeking your consent to make one of your classrooms and the students of one of your teachers as my study group. During the classroom observation, written and audio data will be gathered and later analysed and presented in a written form as part of the final dissertation. No unwished information or student will be named or identifiable in this report.

If you consent to one of your classes being used as a study group, please sign the attached consent form and return it back to the researcher. You are entitled to withhold your consent for this project, and you may withdraw your consent at any time.

When the investigation is complete, you may request a copy of any data relating specifically to the study group.

If you have any questions or comments relating to this research, you may contact me at the following address.

FOURAR RAIHANA
ENGLISH DIVISION
FACULTY OF LETTERS AND FOREIGN LANGUAGES
UNIVERSITY OF MAHAMED KHIDER OF BISKRA
Tel: 06 97 33 01 25
E-mail: fourar.raihana@gmail.com

SUPERVISED BY:
DR. HOADJLI AHMED CHAOUKI

Yours Sincerely,

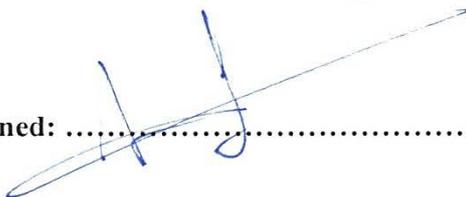
I consent the participation of one of our classes in the classroom observation and research project being carried by FOURAR RAIHANA.

Name of university: Mohamed Khider University of Giska

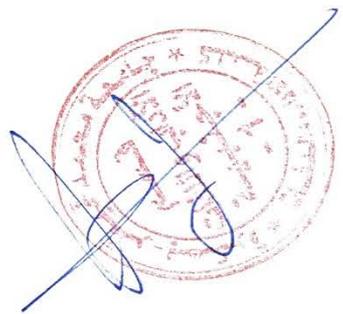
Name of the head of department: Kerbona Salim

Telephone number: 0771196136

E-mail: salimkerbona@gmail.com

Signed: 

Date:



Appendix 2

Consent letter for the head of section

Consent letter for the head of section

Dear head of section,

I am conducting an investigation into some formulaic sequences difficulties and their effect on EFL learners' communicative competence, as part of my Master dissertation at the level of master one students at the section of English in Biskra University. At this phase of research, I wish to conduct a classroom observation within the students of a teacher in your section.

I am seeking your consent to make one of your classrooms and the students of one of your teachers as my study group. During the classroom observation, written and audio data will be gathered and later analysed and presented in a written form as part of the final dissertation. No unwished information or student will be named or identifiable in this report.

If you consent to one of the classes in your section being used as a study group, please sign the attached consent form and return it back to the researcher. You are entitled to withhold your consent for this project, and you may withdraw your consent at any time.

When the investigation is complete, you may request a copy of any data relating specifically to the study group.

If you have any questions or comments relating to this research, you may contact me at the following address.

FOURAR RAIHANA
ENGLISH DIVISION
FACULTY OF LETTERS AND FOREIGN LANGUAGES
UNIVERSITY OF MAHAMED KHIDER OF BISKRA
Tel: 06 97 33 01 25
E-mail: fourar.raihana@gmail.com

SUPERVISED BY:
DR. HOADJLI AHMED CHAOUKI

Yours Sincerely,

I consent the participation of one of our classes in the classroom observation and research project being carried by FOURAR RAIHANA.

Name of university: Mohamed Khider University of Biskra

Name of the head of section: Tayeb Bouhitem

Telephone number: 0772574697

E-mail: tayebbouhitem@gmail.com

Signed:  

Date: 06/12/2020

Appendix 3

Consent letter for the teacher

Consent letter for teachers

Dear teacher,

I am conducting an investigation into some formulaic sequences difficulties and their effect on EFL learners' communicative competence, as part of my Master dissertation at the level of master one students at the section of English in Biskra University. At this phase of research, I wish to conduct a classroom observation. In the long term, I may ask to carry out a test with your class.

I am seeking your consent to make your classroom and your students as my study group. During the observation sessions, written and audio data will be and later analysed and presented in a written form as part of the final dissertation. No unwished information or student will be named or identifiable in this report.

If you consent to your class being used as a study group, please sign the attached consent form and return it back to the researcher. You are entitled to withhold your consent for this project, and you may withdraw your consent at any time.

When the investigation is complete, you may request a copy of any data relating specifically to your class.

If you have any questions or comments relating to this research, you may contact me at the following address.

FOURAR RAIHANA
ENGLISH DIVISION
FACULTY OF LETTERS AND FOREIGN LANGUAGES
UNIVERSITY OF MAHAMED KHIDER OF BISKRA
Tel: 06 97 33 01 25
E-mail: fourar.raihana@gmail.com

SUPERVISED BY:
DR. HOADJLI AHMED CHAOUKI

Yours Sincerely,

I consent the participation of my class in the classroom observation and research project being carried by FOURAR RAIHANA.

Name of university:.....*Mohammed Khaled University Beni Kwa*.....

Name of teacher:*Mostefa Meddour*.....

Telephone number:.....*0675 2139 88*.....

E-mail:.....*m.meddour@univ-beni-kwa.dz*.....

Signed:.....

Date:*25/11/2018*.....

Appendix 4

Classroom observation checklist: Piloting stage

Classroom Observation Checklist

Department: _____ Course: _____
 Section: _____ Level: _____
 Observer: _____ Date: _____
 Teacher: _____ Time: _____

Observation Number: 1 2 3 4 5 6

All items marked **Not Observed** must be explained in Comments

Section one: Teacher’s Instructional Strategies		
	Observed	Comments
1-Teacher endeavours to perceive difficulties that obstruct his learners’ comprehension by asking questions and listening to their verbal responses.	Yes <input type="radio"/> No <input type="radio"/>	
2-Teacher simplifies complex and difficult materials by providing varied explanations in order to meet the needs of all his students.	Yes <input type="radio"/> No <input type="radio"/>	
3-Teacher develops a variety of questions and activities that reflect higher and lower level cognitive skills as appropriate for the content and the students.	Yes <input type="radio"/> No <input type="radio"/>	
4-Teacher communicates clearly and explicitly, and fosters students’ participation during the classroom activities.	Yes <input type="radio"/> No <input type="radio"/>	

Section two: Students’ Perception and Involvement in the Classroom		
	Observed	Comments
1-Students participate actively in classroom activities and discussions by taking and giving turns.	Yes <input type="radio"/> No <input type="radio"/>	

2-Students are able to answer correctly different instructional activities regardless to their difficulty level.	Yes <input type="radio"/> No <input type="radio"/>	
3-Students focus on asking questions that have a relation with the content/meaning more than the form.	Yes <input type="radio"/> No <input type="radio"/>	
4-Students meet teacher's objectives by communicating effectively their ideas based on the content of the lesson.	Yes <input type="radio"/> No <input type="radio"/>	

Observer's signature: _____

Date: / /

Supervisor's signature: _____

Date: / /

Opinionnaire

1-Do you think that the statements are relevant?

Yes

No

If no, please explain:

.....
.....

2- Are there any ambiguous statements?

Yes

No

If yes, please specify them:

Section(s) n°..... Statement(s) n°.....

3- Are there any unnecessary statements?

If yes, please specify them:

Section(s) n°..... Statement(s) n°.....

4- Do you think that the layout is appropriate?

Yes

No

5- Do you have any further suggestions?

.....
.....
.....

Appendix 5

Classroom observation checklist (1)

Classroom Observation Checklist

Department: _____ Course: _____
 Section: _____ Level: _____
 Observer: _____ Date: _____
 Teacher: _____ Time: _____

Observation Number: 1 2 3 4

All items marked **Not Observed** must be explained in Comments

Teacher's Instructional Delivery of Content	
Items	Observed
1- Teacher endeavours to perceive difficulties that obstruct his learners' comprehension by asking questions and listening to their verbal responses.	Yes <input type="radio"/> No <input type="radio"/>
Comment:	
2- Teacher observes non-verbal behaviours to determine if comprehension is attained or to add further explanations.	Yes <input type="radio"/> No <input type="radio"/>
Comment:	
3- Teacher simplifies complex and difficult materials by providing varied explanations in order to meet the needs of all his students.	Yes <input type="radio"/> No <input type="radio"/>
Comment:	
4- Teacher delivers the content explicitly, and communicates his ideas clearly during the lecture.	Yes <input type="radio"/> No <input type="radio"/>
Comment:	
5- Teacher directs his students' attention towards the importance of the meaning of different formulaic sequences.	Yes <input type="radio"/> No <input type="radio"/>

Comment:	
6- Teacher includes follow-up activities in order to consolidate and monitor students' overall understanding of what has been taught.	Yes <input type="radio"/> No <input type="radio"/>
Comment:	

Overall Comments:

.....
.....
.....
.....

Observer's signature: _____

Date: / /

Supervisor's signature: _____

Date: / /

Appendix 6

Classroom observation checklist (2)

Classroom Observation Checklist

Department: _____ Course: _____
 Section: _____ Level: _____
 Observer: _____ Date: _____
 Teacher: _____ Time: _____

Observation Number: 1 2 3

All items marked **Not Observed** must be explained in Comments

Section one: Teacher’s Instructional Practices	
Items	Observed
1- Teacher develops a variety of questions and activities that imply a graduation in the difficulty scale as appropriate both for students and the area of formulaic sequences (FSs).	Yes <input type="radio"/> No <input type="radio"/>
Comment:	
2- Teacher directs his students’ attention towards the importance of extracting the implicit meaning of some formulaic sequences (such as idioms) based on contextual clues in the developed activities.	Yes <input type="radio"/> No <input type="radio"/>
Comment:	
3- Teacher fosters students’ participation during classroom activities in order to enable them to communicate effectively.	Yes <input type="radio"/> No <input type="radio"/>
Comment:	

Section two: Content Knowledge and Relevance	
Items	Observed
1- Classroom activities are chosen based on their relevance to the content being taught in the assigned area (FSs).	Yes <input type="radio"/> No <input type="radio"/>
Comment:	

FORMULAIC SEQUENCES DIFFICULTIES AND COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

<p>2- The observed difficulties of learning the content (FSs), especially on the semantic level, impede learners from being communicatively competent whether in the speaking or writing skill</p>	<p>Yes <input type="radio"/></p> <p>No <input type="radio"/></p>
<p>Comment:</p>	
<p>3- The explicit instruction of FSs is relevant and useful for the reinforcement of students' communicative competence, notably speaking and writing.</p>	<p>Yes <input type="radio"/></p> <p>No <input type="radio"/></p>
<p>Comment:</p>	

<p style="text-align: center;">Section three: Students' Involvement</p>	
<p style="text-align: center;">Items</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Observed</p>
<p>1- Students tend to ask more questions that have a relation with the content/meaning of formulaic sequences more than their form.</p>	<p>Yes <input type="radio"/></p> <p>No <input type="radio"/></p>
<p>Comment:</p>	
<p>2- Students are able to communicate and answer correctly different instructional activities regardless of their difficulty level.</p>	<p>Yes <input type="radio"/></p> <p>No <input type="radio"/></p>
<p>Comment:</p>	
<p>3- Students tend to participate more frequently in classroom activities in relation to FSs that are semantically transparent.</p>	<p>Yes <input type="radio"/></p> <p>No <input type="radio"/></p>
<p>Comment:</p>	
<p>4- Students meet teacher's objectives by integrating some formulaic sequences to communicate their ideas.</p>	<p>Yes <input type="radio"/></p> <p>No <input type="radio"/></p>
<p>Comment:</p>	

Observer's signature: _____

Date: / /

Supervisor's signature: _____

Date: / /

Appendix 7

Sample of students' test

University Mohammed Khider- Biskra-
 Faculty of Letters and Languages
 Department of Foreign Languages
 Division of English

Class: Master I (G1 & G2)
 Course: Language Mastery
 Date: 18/12/2018

09.08
 12

TEST 02

I. Idioms

1. Choose from the box a corresponding idiom to the following sentences. (02)

As dry as a bone, all's fair in love and war, as thick as two short planks, have second thoughts, I am all fingers and thumbs, as red as a lobster, put my foot in it, it's the thought that counts, better safe than sorry, as thick as thieves, I have all my fingers green

- I really get her embarrassed; I asked her if Jane was her mother, but she said Jane is her sister.
 > Idiom: *Put my foot on it* ✓
- I reconsidered lending him the money as my wedding is to be next April.
 > Idiom: *Have a second thought* ✓
- I can't believe I didn't know the answer – I looked really thick and dull.
 > Idiom: *As thick as two short planks* ✓
- I can't do up these tiny buttons; I feel awkward and clumsy.
 > Idiom: *I am all fingers and thumbs* ✓

1/8

2. Use the following idioms in a meaningful conversation. (02)

- It never rains but it pours

A: *What a horrible day! I didn't wake up early so I missed the bus also I lost cell phone*
 B: *Oh darling! It never rains but it pours* ✓

- It takes two to tango.

A: *The tea party was perfectly organized, you should be so tired after the guests had left*
 B: *You know, it takes two to tango. Maria did the decoration and I made the cake I wasn't alone don't worry* ✓

- First come, first served

A: *Are you sure that you don't have any free seats for tonight's movie?*
 B: *Unfortunately sir, you know that it is an exclusive movie, you would better come earlier. First come, first served* ✓

- Spend a penny

A: *Susan what's wrong with you, I feel like you are not at ease?*
 B: *Yes you get it, I have to spend a penny* ✓

II. Phrasal verbs

- Use the following phrasal verbs in their literal and non literal meaning in sentences of your own. (04 pts)

1. Put up

Literal: ... I ^{own} put that vase up so the decoration looks better now.

Non-literal: The guests enjoyed staying here... we were very welcoming and we put them up with pleasure.

2. Look through

Literal: ... I could have an accident today... the snow falls heavily so I couldn't see through the glass.

Non-literal: This homework is out of 12... so I should look through each paragraph in it.

3. Run out

Literal: ... He run out from the house after knowing that his father will punish him.

Non-literal: ... I went to work by bicycle today... my car run out of fuel.

4. Get into

Literal: ... I had a fight with my brother because he got into my room without permission.

Non-literal: I don't read newspapers because I don't want to get into political issues.

III. Collocations

Complete this passage by choosing the best collocation from the choices below. (04 pts)

Courses and qualifications

When she was a small child, Amelia's teachers identified her as having unusual intelligence and remarkable mental agility, and they put her on a special programme for (1) **b** children. Amelia (2) **b** a scholarship to (3) **b** a local grammar school. By the age of eighteen, she was a straight A student, and she (4) **C** a place at one of the country's most prestigious (5) **C** of learning to read English Literature.

In the first academic year of the English Literature programme, the core subjects were *The development of the novel and Contemporary poetry*. Amelia had a large number of set texts to read. It was hard work but she loved it. Her professors were all (6) **C** scholars and her courses were taught by some of the world's leading authorities in the field. She completed her studies with considerable success and graduated from university last year. In the meantime, her parents have decided that it is time they made up for their lack of (7) **b** education and they have signed up for a number of evening courses. Eventually they hope to meet the entry requirements for university entrance and to be able to complete a degree as (8) **b** students.

1. (a). gifted **b** endowed (c). capable
2. (a). had **b** won (c). gained
3. (a). attend **b** join (c). enroll
4. (a) secured (b). ensured **c** guaranteed
5. (a). sittings (b). settings **c** seats
6. (a). remarkable (b). distinguished **c** great
7. (a). official **b** formal (c). certified
8. (a). mature **b** grown up (c). prime

Appendix 8

Samples of students' answers

II. Phrasal verbs

- Use the following phrasal verbs in their literal and non literal meaning in sentences of your own. (04 pts)

1. Put up

Literal: Put up your report right now, otherwise you are fired.

Non-literal:

2. Look through

Literal: Look through the window, it is snowing now.

Non-literal: Remind ^{me} latter to look through the report after my meeting.

3. Run out

Literal: The tiger run out after the poor girraffe. she is so dead!

Non-literal: Time is running out! could you please hurry.

4. Get into

Literal: Jack got into her problem even though we warn him several times.

Non-literal: Get into the car now or you will stay with your aunty!

II. Phrasal verbs

- Use the following phrasal verbs in their literal and non literal meaning in sentences of your own. (04 pts)

1. Put up

Literal: My father put his phone up not to let my little sister play with it.

Non-literal: He put has putten up the wrong answer.

2. Look through

Literal: The mother looks through the window everytime her children are playing outside.

Non-literal: She is looking through her book to get more arguments for her research.

3. Run out

Literal: She was running out of the house because she was disappointed.

Non-literal:

4. Get into

Literal: Ann got into the party and had much fun.

Non-literal: I got into the problem without being aware.

II. Phrasal verbs

- Use the following phrasal verbs in their literal and non literal meaning in sentences of your own. (04 pts)

1. Put up
 Literal: she put the dictionary up
 Non-literal:

2. Look through
 Literal: Harry look through the window
 Non-literal:

3. Run out
 Literal: she runs out from the danger
 Non-literal:

4. Get into
 Literal: he gets into the wrong way
 Non-literal:

II. Phrasal verbs

- Use the following phrasal verbs in their literal and non literal meaning in sentences of your own. (04 pts)

1. Put up
 Literal: You should put that up on your wall, it will break it
 Non-literal: You should put your best foot up about who will win the game

2. Look through
 Literal: Do not look through the window, you can fall down and get hurt
 Non-literal: I wish I can have the ability to look through people to understand them more

3. Run out
 Literal: My little brother is always full of energy, he can run out all day
 Non-literal: We run out of milk, I will go to buy some before going to school.

4. Get into
 Literal: Do not get in his hot sauce, it is so creepy
 Non-literal: Do not get into things that you can not handle

ملخص

إتقان الصيغ النمطية التسلسلية يمكن أن يمهد الطريق لمتعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية للوصول إلى مستوى مقبول من ناحية التواصل. رغم ذلك، يمكن أن تنشأ صعوبة كبيرة عن طريق هذه الصيغ نظراً للمعنى الذي تحمله. بناءً على ذلك، هدفت هذه الدراسة إلى تسليط الضوء على جدية هذه الصعوبة من خلال تقييم تأثيرها على الكفاءة التواصلية للمتعلمين في سياق أكاديمي، لا سيما الجانب الشفوي والكتابي. بالإضافة إلى ذلك، سعت إلى تحديد كيفية تدريب المتعلمين في مجال الصيغ النمطية التسلسلية. لدراسة هذه القضايا نظرياً، تم اعتماد نهج بحثي نوعي، واستخدام تصميم دراسة الحالة. فيما يتعلق بالوسائل البحثية، تم استخدام الملاحظة وتحليل المستندات على التوالي. مجتمع البحث لهذه الدراسة هم طلاب ماستر في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية في جامعة بسكرة، حيث تم اختيار مجموعة واحدة كعينة. كشفت النتائج أنه على الرغم من أن متعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية تلقوا تعليمات مباشرة في مجال الدراسة المعين مسبقاً، إلا أنهم قد واجهوا صعوبة عند التعامل مع المعنى غير الحرفي لهذه الصيغ. علاوة على ذلك، فإن التأثير الناشئ عن هذه الصعوبة على كفاءة التواصل لدى الدارسين تم اعتباره سلبياً لأن المتعلمين أصبحوا غير قادرين على إدراج الصيغ النمطية التسلسلية بشكل فعال في خطابهم الشفوي والكتابي. طبقاً لذلك، يُوصى الباحثون بتطوير استراتيجيات تعليمية تساعد على إتقان الصيغ النمطية التسلسلية وتحسين الكفاءة التواصلية مع الأخذ بعين الاعتبار لمختلف الصعوبات السالف ذكرها.