N° d'ordre :
N° de série :

Dissertation submitted in the fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

MAGISTER

OPTION: COMPARATIVE STYLISTICS

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Theme

TEXTUAL FEATURES AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF SIMPLIFIED TEXTS IN SECONDARY SCHOOL FIRST YEAR TEXTBOOKS
Case: <u>My New Book of English</u> and <u>At the Crossroads</u>

Submitted publicly on 30/01/2007

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Academic year: 2006/2007

For my parents and my family

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

GENERAL   INTRODUCTION

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

The General framework of our work is the study of textual features and pedagogical implications of simplified texts in Secondary School First Year textbooks. This work examines the textual characteristics, and pedagogical usefulness of simplified texts in Secondary Education First Year coursebooks, namely My New Book of English (henceforth: MNBE) and At the Crossroads (henceforth: ATC), as compared to those of authentic texts. The aim of this research is to compare simplified and original texts applying Honeyfield's (1977) criterion of variation in word frequency distribution, and Swaffar's (1985) characteristics of authentic texts. It will demonstrate to what extent simplified texts for Secondary School learners lack stylistic features of authentic texts. This work also takes issue with the pedagogical effectiveness of simplified texts for learners. Most of the passages included in MNBE and ATC have been analyzed on the basis of the characteristics of structure, conjunctions, redundancy, collocations, and high and low frequency vocabulary. Also the topic and the author's intent have been considered.

A text in a coursebook plays an essential role in foreign language acquisition, particularly in the all important learning of new words and other rhetorical structures associated with various types of narrative and expository writing; so, on the basis of the importance of the coursebook text, our choice is set on the analysis of the stylistic features and quality of the simplified text in MNBE and ATC as compared to those of authentic English. Both MNBE and ATC are Algerian textbooks which have been designed to be used by First Year Secondary School pupils. MNBE and ATC contain several texts which are given in their simplified or adapted version. These texts are used for training pupils to read and acquire the structures and vocabulary associated with standard English.

The corpus of study is constituted by the two textbooks. First, My New Book of English has been removed from the syllabus after being used from 2001 till 2005. It contains a variety of short and long texts. Some texts are given in a simplified version, which are likely to be of an appropriate level for most of the pupils. These texts are composed of short, simple sentences and ordinary vocabulary. The book also contains some additional sections such as games, proverbs and fairy tales; they are included just

for learners' fun and leisure. The book finishes with three appendices; the official syllabus, list of activities and keys. In <u>MNBE</u> the simplified text is presented with its original version. The units are defined in terms of meaning rather than of grammar. Some techniques from structural methods have been valued.

The texts selected for the present study are taken from the beginning, the middle and the end of the book for pedagogical reasons to be explained and developed later (see chapter three, p.45). These texts are divided into different genres; they are either fiction (Narrative, satire) or non-fiction (journal, articles, and essays from newspapers and magazines).

As for <u>At the Crossroads,</u> the new textbook that was introduced during the school year 2005 – 2006 complies with the relevant Ministry of National Education Curriculum as set in January 2005. <u>ATC</u> is led by two methodological principles: Competency-Based Teaching method and Learner-Centered approach. It has been also noted that grammar is presented in a deductive way; the pupil is given the relevant rules straight away.

In <u>ATC</u> emphasis is put on project work. It is positioned at the end of the unit. Pupils are expected to re-use the functions and skills acquired earlier. Learning through projects is based on the constructivist theory of learning (Piaget, 1971) which the learner-centered method points up. The units are defined in terms of meaning and themes. Most of the texts are not presented in their original and authentic version, but are adapted and simplified. These texts are given in either descriptive or narrative type.

Furthermore, the syllabus for 1 AS (1st year secondary level) Human sciences is to be covered in 75 hours of teaching. However the time devoted for 1 AS technological streams is only 50 hours. <u>MNBE</u> follows the objectives set by the PROGRAMME D'ANGLAIS published by the Ministry of Education. In order to develop English language skills effectively, <u>MNBE</u> has been designed along functional structural lines.

<u>ATC</u> has been designed for Secondary Education First Year pupils to replace <u>MNBE</u>. It was published in 2005. The book contains five units. They are distributed on the basis of 20 hours teaching load per unit. The texts given in the book are either used for reading or as models for writing. The book does not include only literary texts but

also scientific ones. <u>ATC</u> also follows the objectives as set by the Programme of the Ministry of National Education in January 2005.

Teachers of English in secondary schools are constantly recommending their students to read. Which text does suit better the EFL students learning, the simplified or the unsimplified? Some specialists and EFL teachers maintain that a simplified text cannot help the student acquire an authentic reading experience. Honeyfield (1977) says that learners using graded readers develop reading strategies that are inappropriate for reading unsimplified English. Swaffar (1985) also claims that simplified texts do not have the characteristics of authentic messages, because they are designed to teach language, rather than to communicate.

The reaction against simplified texts usually expressed by the users is that simplified texts are not communicative because they are written only to teach language. The purpose of a reading text is both to practise the language and to 'socialize' (communicate and interact within the group). That is, the simplified text does not provide the learners with knowledge to use in varying situational contexts for varying purposes.

In both <u>MNBE</u> and <u>ATC</u> the lexical choice, high and low frequency words and redundancy in the passages have been considered. It has been noted that the lexical choice and the sentence structure hinder the flow of ideas.

Problematics

We are interested in considering whether the simplified text in <u>MNBE</u> and <u>ATC</u> is stripped of its essential content, namely authorial clues and stylistic features characterizing the original text. A consideration of variation in word frequency distribution and stylistic features in simplified texts as compared to those in authentic ones will raise highly questionable pedagogical values of text simplification. To this end, we also examine whether the simplified text facilitates or hinders the learner's comprehension and development of reading skills.

Research Questions

In order to solve the points considered, we have identified a number of research questions to which we intend to find answers:

1. Does the simplified text in <u>My New Book of English</u> and <u>At the Crossroads</u> have the stylistic characteristics of authenticity?

2. Does variation in word frequency distribution in simplified texts resemble to that in authentic texts?

3. If the simplified text does not have the characteristics of the original does it help train EFL learner to read and understand a more advanced, or non-simplified text?

Hypotheses

The focal point of the present dissertation is to investigate the extent to which the simplified text shares the stylistic characteristics with an original one and the degree to which a simplified text hampers foreign language learning. For this purpose we set these hypotheses that we see as appropriate answers to the formulated research questions. These hypotheses will be confirmed and proved later in this paper.

1. Simplified texts do not have the characteristics of authentic texts because they are designed to teach language, not to achieve a social purpose.

2. The word frequency distribution in the simplified text is not as varied as that in the original.

3. Simplified texts will not help prepare the students for reading authentic ones.

Methodology

The approach to our domain of investigation is done through corpus analysis (constituted by the texts found in the textbooks studied). This study is based on five simplified texts from <u>MNBE</u> and three other texts from <u>ATC</u>, and the original version of each. All the texts selected for this work have been analyzed in terms of Honeyfield's (1977) criterion of variation in word frequency distribution and Swaffar's (1985) characteristics of authentic message. Under the heading of language, the word

frequency has been examined for the variation that Honeyfield states. The collocations, redundancy and discourse markers have been analyzed, too. Under the heading of topic, the author's intent and the information given; all these three features have been identified, and studied seeing that they are included in Swaffar's stylistic characteristics of authentic texts.

In order to establish the distribution of frequency of words in a text, all the words included are categorized according to frequency. To perform this, a computer programmer called RANGE (see chapter three, pp.47-48) has been used. RANGE was established by Nation, I. S. P. & Heatley, A. (2003).

In this work all the texts have been examined using *West's General Service List* (West, 1953) referred to as the GSL 1st and 2nd 1000 words, and Averill Coxhead's *Academic Word List*, referred to as the AWL, as the three base lists, to show the percentage and distribution of high and low frequency of words from the GSL and AWL in texts.

RANGE can apply these three distinct word lists to any text, and can sort out the text words into three categories of headwords from each list, and another category of words outside the three lists, making four categories altogether. Headwords are defined as the chief words in each word family, deriving from the same root. RANGE can do this by frequency within a text. It can also mark each word according to the category with which it matches up.

Expected results

Given that this study is necessarily limited to secondary school first year textbooks; it should be considered as a preliminary investigation into an analysis of stylistic features and pedagogical usefulness of simplified texts in EFL textbooks approved by the Ministry of Education. Findings will reveal that the simplification process shortens the text considerably, which has the effect of reducing the possibilities for word frequency variation. Another result is that the information given in the original text is more detailed than in the simplified text. Also the result shows that simplified texts are less readable than regular ones, when the authorial cues and the information have been significantly altered. However, well-written simplified texts display a

considerable level of variation to the learner, preserving not only the stylistic features of original ones, but also the content.

Organization of work

This work comprises four chapters. The first chapter outlines for the reader preliminaries concerning EFL instruction in Algerian Secondary Schools: the Ministry's guidelines and objectives and the prominence given to textbook as a resource used in secondary school EFL instruction. It then discusses methodologies that define and outline the textbook content, and text genre that determine the stylistic features of the text presented to the learner.

Chapter two is devoted to the theoretical debates raised in the present dissertation. It first acknowledges the critical theories discussing the stylistic characteristics and pedagogical usefulness of text simplification in comparison with those of authentic messages. It will also discuss the arguments for and against using simplified texts in the classroom and the problems created for learners as a result of using such texts. These theories have been developed by Honeyfield (1977), Swaffar, J. (1985), Willis, J.D. (1990, 1993, 1994) Widdowson, H.G. (1983), and others.

Chapter three delineates the materials, methods, concepts used in this work, and outlines parameters adopted for computer lexical listing occurring in both simplified and original texts. It addresses the use of West's General Service List and Academic Word List for assessing word frequency distribution to determine the degree of resemblance and deviation of simplified text to and from authentic one. Five simplified passages from MNBE and three other texts from ACT are selected with their original version. The comparison has been carried by using a computer program, to analyze the distribution and occurrence of high and low frequency words in each text.

Chapter four presents and examines findings which compare the treatment of variation in word frequency distribution and Swaffar's stylistic features of authentic text in the simplified texts with original texts. The data and results obtained from corpora of lexical items, their frequency in distribution and other stylistic features in both simplified and authentic texts serve as a basis for comparison. Findings concern the degree to which the textbooks' treatment of reading texts suggests an informed consideration and a systematic attention to exposing learners to more authentic material,

or at least to well-written simplified texts without distorting real meanings and uses of authentic ones.

This work concludes with a consideration of its limitations, a short summary of its findings and pedagogical implications, and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER ONE

SITUATION ANALYSIS

1.1 Introduction
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1.3 AME and Secondary School Textbooks
1.4 Textbooks and Learning Impact
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CHAPTER ONE

SITUATION ANALYSIS

1.1 Introduction

English is a required subject in Secondary School curricula. The Algerian Ministry of Education (hereafter: AME) has established a broad outline of the objectives to be achieved in teaching and learning English as a foreign language. The teaching and learning of English in Algeria is aimed at meeting the pupils' future needs and requirements; they are expected to use English for academic and vocational purposes. AME sets and defines the national curricula aims and objectives for all school levels, and specifies the subjects offered and the minimum number of hours allotted per year for each subject. The Ministry's prescribed syllabus is also the focal point of the approved textbooks which are used in the classroom. The approved textbooks are required to be used in Secondary Schools for teaching English as the primary, if not the sole, English language resource.

1.2 AME Syllabus Guidelines for EFL Instruction: Objectives and Content

The various syllabus guidelines (methods, objectives) which have been set by the AME, all call for developing the four language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing in standard English. Reading and listening are considered as active skills in which the learner extracts meaning from a text. "*A crucial characteristic of both reading and listening is that they are both motivated activities: that is, we always listen and read for a clear and specific purpose.*" (Teacher's book, 1985: 6).

Specifically mentioned objectives are acquiring such functions of discourse as 'describing people' or 'narrating a past event.'

 e.g., '*Okonkwo was well known throughout the nine villages. He was tall and huge'* (ACT: 41)

The guidelines also include several language forms which are associated with the function. For example, narrating a past event is expressed by past simple tense and time markers (e.g., last year, yesterday)

In the mid-eighties and nineties, the textbook contents and types of activities have been designed along functional structural lines in order to *"provide the pupil with an instrument of communication"* and make *"the pupil go through a progressive acquisition of carefully selected and graded grammatical structures."* (Teacher's book, 1985: 3)

However, like traditional methods as the structural approach and the audio-lingual method applied in the seventies and the beginning of eighties, the communicative functional method does not describe language through concepts of grammar and vocabulary. Another negative effect of this approach is that it also emphasizes presentation and explanation of language forms and usage in materials selected in relevance to function criteria as argued by Richards and Rodgers (1986: 65): The Functional method is:

> *"rather than describe the core of language through traditional concepts of grammar and vocabulary .....(attempt) to demonstrate the systems of meaning that lay behind the communicative uses of language."* [1]

In 2005 the Algerian Ministry of National Education has conducted a profound reform at the level of secondary school. Among the reform objectives is the desire to improve the efficiency of the teaching methods. Within the framework of the new curriculum laid down in January 2005, a Competency-Based Approach has been adopted. This new pedagogical approach is defined as a process which places the learner at the centre of teaching / learning by making him an active participant instead of being only a knowledge recipient (difference with the communicative approach). Competency-Based Teaching is believed to improve efficiency of education. In this way the learner is expected to become an effective language user in real-life situations outside the classroom and acquire the ability to criticize, propose opinions, and find

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(1) Richards, J.C., & Rodgers, T.S. Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. New York: Cambridge University Press, 1986, p.65.

solutions to complex problems. The new Secondary School First Year textbook (ATC) complies with Competency-Based Approach as described in the syllabus.

> *"This will help them understand the ways in which the book 'translates' the syllabus. Such purposeful cross-referencing is precisely what we had in mind when we devised the present Teacher's Book. Its aim is to make 'teaching' and learning from At the Crossroads, less daunting, more fruitful and certainly more interactive."*
>
> (Teacher's Book, 2005: 3)

The competency-based approach is associated with the constructivist theory of learning. The theory of constructivism is based on Piaget's (1971) views in psychology. Piaget (1971: 16) points out:

> *"One [-] needs to explain in detail how, in the field of knowledge as in that of organic epigenesist[1], this collaboration between genome and the environment actually works."*

Piaget focuses on the interaction between our innate abilities and the environment. Therefore, as far as language acquisition is concerned, constructivists emphasize the dependence of language acquisition on cognitive development. This approach gives more importance to the interaction between innate capacities and input or environment.

1.3 AME and Secondary School Textbooks

The textbooks that are allowed to be used in Secondary Schools must be those approved and authorized by the Minister of Education. The textbook approval process is obviously a complicated one, with strong cultural and political overtones, concerning EFL textbooks. The textbooks conformity with AME guidelines is required in the authorization process. The prescribed functions, language forms and types of exercises must be included in EFL textbooks. Textbook designers take pains to observe these restrictions. It is obviously not easy to include dialogues and reading passages in compliance with the prescribed syllabus.

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(1) Piaget's genetic epistemology, a developmentalist approach, is one of the first comprehensive treatments on the question of tracing biological roots of knowledge.

1.4 Textbooks and Learning Impact

The textbook is almost the sole English corpus to which Secondary School learners are exposed. Secondary School learners seldom have the opportunity to use English among themselves outside an academic setting. The learner's corpus is therefore narrowed. Willis (1999: 14) distinguishes between the EFL learner's corpus and the pedagogical corpus. The pedagogical corpus refers to the classroom instruction: *"the texts, spoken or written, which make up the learner's basic experience."*[1] The learner's corpus means exposure to English outside the classroom. In spite of several years of intensive English study, Arabic, Berber and French remain the only languages spoken at home, work, and for social life. English is not truly a second language; its main use is in school, particularly as a foreign language subject in the National Education curriculum.

1.5 Teaching Methods Applied in Secondary Schools since 1970

1.5.1 The Structuralist Approach

The structuralist approach was used in the sixties and seventies given the urgent need for teaching and learning another or other languages. The structuralist method has been used and maintained until 1985. This approach is based on a behaviourist view of language acquisition and learning (skinner 1957)[2]. It assumes that explanation of language can be given only within a psychological and physiological context. It was the result of a strong reaction against the Traditional Grammar Approach, though both assume that language is primary form, disregarding its functions.

The structuralist method is based on teaching the major elements of morphology and syntax of the language. Additionally, the grammatical structures and other material to be taught are exhaustively described and coordinated in an increasing order of complexity. Fries has explained graduation in learning the language patterns as follows:

> *"Language is structural. We break the language down into separate*
> *items and give the pupils practice in using each item. Our unit of*

(1) Willis, J. D. Syllabus Design and the Pedagogic Corpus. In Vocabulary Learning in a foreign language. British Council, 1999, p.14.

(2) B. F. Skinner's entire system is based on operant conditioning. The organism is in the process of "operating" on the environment.

teaching is the sentence, not the word. The different sentences form the structure of the language. We present each structure systematically and step by step."

Fries (1945: 28)

The student is taught to use correct forms automatically, rather than by applying grammatical rules. Where explanation is necessary, it can be carried out by relating new structures to one that has already been taught. For example, the pupil who has learnt the use of *'must'* he can be taught the use of *'have to'* by relating the latter to the former. The teacher illustrates these items by using visual aids or by means of oral drills. The learner repeats the item until he is able to respond accurately and automatically. The reason for this is that this method is based on the assumption that foreign language learning is a matter of memorization, habit formation, and stimulus –response.

"Language is a habit. Language teaching in the early stages is habit teaching. We encourage our pupils to form correct patterns, and these can only be learned by constant practice. It is very difficult to correct habits".

(Coursebook, **Practice and Progress**: 8)

However, the application of this method during more than ten years has shown several drawbacks and deficiencies, among them, emphasis is put on grammatical structures as individual patterns rather than on meaning (e.g., the modal *'must'* is taught only as a form of command in separate instances of language).Also language presented in texts is artificial because it is combined so as to include examples of the grammatical structures.

"… the last ten years' teaching experience in Algerian secondary school has shown that while students achieve relative mastery of the grammatical structures and patterns taught and perform with more or less success when it comes to doing transformation exercises, they are much less successful when they have to understand a written passage or write an essay. This can be best illustrated by the results of the baccalaureate exams"

(Teacher's Book, 1985: 4)

Because all these weaknesses have been identified concerning the application of the structural method, another approach, namely communicative functional method has been adopted in the mid eighties.

1.5.2 The Communicative Functional Approach

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT: hereafter) has been applied in Algeria in the mid eighties as a replacement to the earlier structural method. This method is partly based on the theories of British functional linguists, such as Firth and Halliday, as well as American sociolinguists, such as Hymes (1967) and Labov (1972), and the writings of Austin (1975) and Searle (1969) on speech acts.[1]

CLT focuses on the functions of language and considers them as being more important than its form. Scholars like Jacobson (1960) and Halliday (1973) have defined categories of communicative function. As to Halliday he has devised seven functions that language may be said to achieve: (i) instrumental, i.e., the use of language for expressing specific needs and desires; (ii) regulatory, i.e., the use of language for giving instructions, orders and suggestions; (iii) interactional, i.e., the use of language for maintaining social relationships between people, such as asking about someone's health; (iv) personal, i.e., the use of language to express feelings and emotions; (v) heuristic, i.e., the use of language to get things by asking questions; (vi) imaginative, i.e., the use of language for formulating hypotheses and making suppositions; and (vii) informative, i.e., the use of language for constructing affirmative or negative statements.

The CLT approach to language teaching and learning is also influenced by sociolinguistics, a linguistic field which investigates the different functions of language in society. Sociolinguistics assumes that language acquisition and language learning involve acquisition and learning of norms of social behaviour which allows individuals in a given community to communicate effectively. Hymes writes:

> *"The acquisition of such competency is of course fed by social experience, needs, and motives, and issues in action that itself a renewed source of motives, needs, experience."*
> Hymes (1972: 275)

In contrast to the structural approach of language teaching which laid emphasis on grammatical explanation and drilling pupils in dialogues and structures respectively, the functional communicative teaching made use of information gap exercises,

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(1) Searle describes speech acts (also known as communicative acts) in terms of structure   and process.

simulations and role plays aimed at prompting pupils to interact in the foreign language, and to help them develop their communicative competence.

> *"To this end, an attempt will be made through the materials and activities to show the students what they can do with language forms and to provide for the immediate use of the language, they will rake notes, draw diagrams, complete maps and tables, pair work, group work, role play will also be encouraged."*
>
> (Teacher's book.1985-1986: 3).

Unfortunately, the communicative method to language teaching has also produced some negative effects. The first concerns the total neglect of grammar. Grammatical structures have been subordinated to categories of functions (Wilkins, 1976)[1]. The question a syllabus designer has to answer is: what grammatical forms have to be used to help the learner fulfil a specific language function, such us describing a person. Another drawback of communicative language teaching is to make pupils speak in the foreign language 'at all costs'. This obsession is to be criticized for certain classroom situations that usually lacked structure and consistency of topics.

1.5.3 Competency-Based Teaching (CBT)

In traditional educational teaching approaches, the unit of progression is time and it is teacher-centred. In a CBT approach, the unit of progression is mastery of specific knowledge and skills and is learner-centred. Ashworth & Morrison (1991) clarifies well this point:

> *"The effect on education of a competency-based approach has tended to involve a change in emphasis from process to outcomes."*
>
> (Ashworth & Morrison, 1991: 256-60).

That is, a focus on achieving the desired behavioural result (acquiring a competency or skill)

Two key terms used in competency-based training are:

 Skill — a task or set of tasks fulfilled to a specific level of competency or proficiency which often use motor functions and typically require the manipulation of

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(1) In "Notional Syllabuses" [Oxford 1976], Wilkins questioned the synthetic approach, which had been a feature of many language syllabuses in the 1960s and early 1970s.

instruments and equipment. Some skills, however, such as counselling, are knowledge and attitude-based.

Competency[1] — a skill fulfilled to a specific standard under specific conditions.

Competency-based approach assumes that students can actively construct their knowledge by understanding and assimilating new information with prior knowledge. Grabinger (1996) explains that:

> *"An important assumption about constructive learning is that learners bring their own needs and experiences to learning situations, and that background can be very helpful to learners as they construct new knowledge"*
> (Grabinger: 1996: 675)

CBT also pays special attention to assessing the learners' ability to use their knowledge in various life situations.

> *"At the crossroads offers the learners the opportunity to assess their progress on a unit- by unit basis in a section called CHECK YOUR PROGRESS"*
> (Teacher's Book, 2005: 16-17)

Competency-based teaching approach is also combined with Project- Based Learning (PBL: hereafter). The new syllabus assumes that PBL enhances the quality of learning and prepares pupils to higher level cognitive development through their involvement in finding out solutions to complex problems. It also trains them to create positive communication and collaborative partnerships in the classroom.

> *"One of the most distinctive features of the Competency-Based Approach is its integration of project work as part and parcel of learning strategy."*
> (*ibid*: 26)

Although competency-based teaching enhances exposure to specific, real-life situations, this exposure can work to inhibit the development of problem-solving abilities necessary for the acquisition of skills and their transfer to learning situations.

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(1) Competence is the application of knowledge and the interpersonal, decision-making, and psychomotor skills expected for the practice role(National Council of State Boards of Nursing, Inc., 1996)

1.6 Text and Genre in <u>MNBE</u> and <u>ATC</u>

Most of the texts included in the two textbooks are excerpts from known novels such as <u>Things Fall Apart</u> by (Chinua Achebe)[1] and <u>Hard Times</u> by (Charles Dickens)[2], short stories as the <u>Writer's Notebook</u> by (W. Somerset Maugham), and extracts from scientific essays, and other texts which are purely adapted articles from Newspapers. These texts are of various genres and types:

> *"Each unit of the textbook turns around a broad topic selected for its general interest and for the functional language it generates communication in Unit 1, arts (literature) in Unit 2, journalism (reporting) in Unit 3, science and technology in Unit 4 and the environment in unit 5. These topics are made thought provoking through the treatment of related teenage issues like sports, life, food, health, the internet and leisure."*

(ATC: Teacher's book, 2005)

1.6.1 The Novel

This literary genre is found in 'Okonkwo', <u>Things Fall Apart</u> by Chinua Achebe in <u>ATC</u> (p.41) and 'Camping out in Rainy Weather' by Jerome K. Jerome in <u>MNBE</u> (p.70). The Novel explores the problems of man in relation to society and environment. It is generally quite lengthy and narrates fictitious events happening over a period of time, and involves characters in different settings. This genre also reflects clearly the writer's ideas, preoccupations and points of view. Walter Allen (1964) emphasizes this point saying that the novelist makes a working model of life as he sees it, his conclusions about it being expressed in the characters he invents, the situation in which he places them and in the very words he chooses for those purposes. The important elements of the novel are: scope, theme, character, setting, plot, and narrative manner. It also includes the author's point of view, style, and time presentation. The novel genre has evolved from the realistic representation of life to the impressionistic form of narrative which treats the problems of modern times.

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(1) Achebe, Chinua. Things Fall Apart. New York; Anchor Books, Random House Inc. 1959.

(2) Dickens, Charles. Hard Times. London: Penguin Popular Classics. 1994

1.6.2 The Short Story

A short story is a piece of narrative fiction which tends to be less complex than a novel. Usually, a short story emphasizes only one incident, has a single plot, a single setting, a limited number of characters, and covers a short period of time. While the novel is primarily structured on a conceptual and philosophical framework, the short story is intuitive and lyrical. The novel exists to reaffirm the world of 'everyday' reality; the short story exists to 'defamiliarize' the everyday.

1.6.3 Scientific Essays

Scientific essays are included in <u>ATC</u>, example being, 'Telecommunications', <u>Hutchison Encyclopaedia</u>, 2001. The language of science and technology is expository, since practitioners are interested in the transmission of specialized knowledge. The scientific text has its own distinctive discourse characteristics. The scientific essay has a clearly stated theme, which appears at the beginning of the text. Its discourse follows a pattern of structures that is different from that of fiction writing. It is characterized by four major aspects:

- Impersonal style[1] (i.e., a style which does not refer to any person.) Impersonal style is used because scientists write about objects and mechanisms rather than about people and their attitudes (sager et al, 1980, ch.2)

- A wide range of nouns and adjectives with a tendency to use a nominalized structure of language.

- The use of scientific terminology, which is usually derived from Latin vocabulary such as *'adrenaline' 'hormones', 'malaria', 'carbon diocide' 'aquatic'* and etc. (ATC: 114, 133)

- Also the present tense is used to discuss data or to describe an apparatus; it is also employed to convey the notions of relevance and generalization.

- Definition, classification are the usual rhetorical techniques which are used to develop argumentation and systematic exposition.

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(1) Scientific writing is usually done in an impersonal style. Information and facts are more important than personal opinions or attitudes. This style is also used to put a certain distance between the writer and the arguments proposed and thus makes them more objective

e.g., Definition of a disease: '*Malaria is one of the oldest diseases …Malaria attacks and destroys the red cells of the blood and causes anaemia***.'** (ATC: 114)

1.6.4 Journalism

'I Want to Do a Ton' in <u>MNBE</u>, (p. 76) and 'A Tunnel under the Sea' (p.42)   are newspaper articles. The first is an extract from <u>Daily Mail</u> (1987), UK. Journalism writing treats various aspects of life, politics, and culture, reviewing new theatre plays, art exhibitions, everyday life, crimes and other 'fait divers'[1]. Journalism style tends to be plain and spare. It addresses readers directly. It develops meaning by building upon the readers' sequential reaction. Journalism language is informal, frank and ironic. It mixes primary narrative with tales and digressions to amplify and reframe events.

Journalism language usually makes use of the past tense and the perfective aspect, which is a narrative style, similar to story telling. Coordinate and relative clauses are the most frequently used type of complex sentence as in:

e.g., '*his license was endorsed <u>but</u> he was not ordered to take a driving test <u>and</u> his age was not mentioned in court.'* (MNBE: 76)

As far as its pragmatic aspect is concerned, the language of journalism involves cohesive passages, each of which constituting a semantic unit.

e.g., '*<u>A motorist</u> of 96 was fined £7 yesterday for speeding – <u>his</u> first offence for 70 years <u>motoring</u>.'* (MNBE: 76)

In this passage two rhetorical devices are at work, namely repetition and reference. As concerns repetition the key word 'motorist' is repeated by the word 'motoring'. With respect to reference there is the use of anaphoric pronoun 'his' which refers to the motorist.

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(1) Fait divers means news in brief. It can mean an incident.

The table below represents the text categories included in <u>MNBE</u> and <u>ACT</u>.

Text categories	Fictional	Factional	Non-fictional
Text genres	Novel Short story	Letter/essay Advertisement Travel journal	Scientific report /Newspaper report Instruction/Menu/Timetable/ Biography
Text structure		Text type	
Introduction/ Body (development) Conclusion		Narrative text / Exposition text /Argumentative text Informative text/ Instructive text	
Stylistic features		Repetition / Alliteration /Anaphora / Variation / Parallelism	
Point of view		Personal-third person /first person narrator Impersonal	
Imagery		Metaphor, symbol, simile, connotation, personification, example, pleonasm, collocation	

Table 1.1 representing genre categories in <u>MNBE</u> and <u>ATC</u>

1.7 Conclusion

AME's prescribed syllabus and textbooks are considered in this chapter to determine the extent to which the textbooks' treatment of texts (dialogues, reading passages, and practice exercises) reflects systematic attention to their real meanings and uses. To that end, this can provide information on EFL syllabus and textbook contents to allow identifying the material to which learners are exposed. This can also help to understand the different methodologies that underlie the textbooks, namely <u>My New Book of English</u> and <u>At the Crossroads</u>, subject of our inquiry. Also a definition of text genre in the two textbooks, though short and brief, will help to determine the stylistic

features characterising each text. This will facilitate finding out the degree of resemblance and deviation of simplified texts to and from authentic ones.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Although simplification is generally considered a good candidate for a text modification for improving reading and comprehension, many researchers argue against its use in the classroom. Green and Olsen found that readability–adapted (i.e., simplified) materials are not significantly easier for children to understand than the original texts. Other language specialists discourage the use of simplified texts, claiming that they are inferior as models of language and lack essential cues for interpretation present in most authentic texts (Haverson, 1991)[1]. These objections may be valid in the sense that authentic texts provide practice in fluent and provoke in readers the sense of success and accomplishment that comes with understanding real, English language texts. However, other language researchers claim that learners, who are not given simple understandable texts, may feel they are simply labouring through mounds of unfamiliar or confusing text. They add that with teacher's help, pupils can use well written simplified-appropriate texts to learn content area knowledge as well as vocabulary, grammar and other rhetorical devices. Widdowson (1976) has shown that authenticity is a result of the relationship between the reader and the text, not of the text itself. He claims that it is impossible for non-simplified text to be authentic in a second language context. He advocates that authentic text has no place in language classroom because the learners are outside the community for which the text was intended (Widdowson 1998: 711). Hence he suggests that appropriate simplified texts can be selected for EFL learners. Hu and Paul Nation (2000)[2] also suggests that non-simplified texts hinder comprehension because where there is more than one unknown word in 50 the learners will not be able to guess the meaning of the unfamiliar word.

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(1)Haverson, W. "Adult literacy training." Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language. Ed. M. Celce-Murcia. New York: Newbury House, 1991, 185-194.

(2) Hu, M. and Nation, I.S.P. (2000) Unknown vocabulary density and reading comprehension. Reading in a Foreign Language 13, 1: 403-430.

2.2 Text and authenticity

Halliday defines the text as follows:

> *"Text is something that happens, in the form of talking or writing, listening or reading. When we analyze it, we analyze the product of this process, and the term 'text' is usually taken as referring to the product …*
>
> (Halliday, 1994: 311)

In lay usage (i.e., non-specialist usage). The term text is usually used exclusively to written material and more specifically to a coursebook; when we talk about text in this work, we mean it in the technical sense in which it is used in discourse analysis, with a much larger significance than the popular meaning of the term. Therefore, a text means any stretch of language in use, of any length, whether spoken or written. In this sense, **Three Men in a Boat** by Jerome K. Jerome is a text; our present dissertation is a text. But so is a bill, a receipt, an advertisement or a note on a door reading: closed. Also an exchange of greetings: 'Hello', 'Good morning!'

However Stubbs (1996) definition of text is different from that of Halliday. He says,

> *"By text, I mean an instance of language in use either spoken or written: a piece of language behavior which has occurred naturally, without the intervention of the linguist. This excludes examples of language that have been invented by a linguist merely to illustrate a point in linguistic theory."*
>
> (Stubbs, 1996: 4)

The description of text given so far presupposes authenticity. This means that we normally expect a text to be authentic, that is to say that it is an original message uttered as a communicative event and not created or written for some specific purposes, However, some academics (notably Widdowson) have tried to argue that a text is no longer authentic once it is taken out of its original setting and selected for classroom use for pedagogical purposes. Thus, in the textbook materials, there is no authentic text. Therefore, teachers might as well write their own texts for classroom use; these will be authentic given that they are language learning texts. They propose that any text that serves a useful purpose is authentic in this sense. But although there is some truth in their view that taking a text out of its original environment changes its status, there is

still a distinction between the so-called authentic text and the simplified one. This difference is usually evident in the fabric of such a text.

2.3 Definition and types of simplified text

Simplified texts are the texts which are written for second language learners. Texts can be linguistically simplified by substituting frequently occurring vocabulary for infrequently occurring words, shortening sentence length, and restructuring sentences to reduce their complexity. The goal of linguistic simplification is to improve readability (i.e., the average length of words and sentences). When simplifying a text for EFLs, the purpose is to eliminate overly complex language that might prevent a pupil from understanding the main ideas of the text.

There are several types of simplified texts. Some are adaptations (the original text is clanged from fictional story or novel and simplified for classroom use) or abridgements (keeping the original text with its main content but changing difficult grammar and vocabulary). An adaptation of an original text involves shorting it, by cutting out paragraphs, omitting characters, removing events, and many of the authorial cues characterizing the original. Abridgement refers to eliminating subplots and details; it focuses on replacing words and syntactic structures with supposedly simpler versions. For abridgements, simplification operates at sentence or multi-sentence level by using easier or already known words instead of more difficult ones, for example replacing low frequency words by high frequency ones, such as *'accompany'*, *'alter'*, *'perform'* by *'go with'*, *'change'*, '*do'*. This can take place not only at the individual word level but at the phase level; this may make a change in the collocational relationships. Such simplifications can also involve the use of redundancy and repetition to help the learner (reader) to deal with unfamiliar items. Another kind of simplified texts has a basis in fact and is in effect a report. It may include biographies, newspaper reports, and historical events and so on.

2.4 Uses of simplified texts

Simplified texts can be used in two different ways. The first approach is called extensive reading and the second is intensive reading. The first way to using simplified texts is to practise the skill of reading. Simplified texts are mostly used for the practice

of fluent reading with the pedagogical aims of building word recognition automaticity[1] and making the learner focus on the message rather than language. The second approach, is to use simplified texts in a language and emphasis is put on form and reading activities. It usually involves pre- and post-reading activities such as comprehension questions and vocabulary activities. The aim is to examine meticulously the text to extract grammar, vocabulary, stylistic features and so on. In addition to these two approaches, EFL learners are encouraged to develop discrete reading skills[2] such as learning to scan and skim the text.

2.5 Simplified text and language control

Simplified texts are written in accordance with what EFL learners can do with language at certain ability levels. This is why many simplified texts are designed by EFL teachers who have an intuitive impression for what an appropriate level might be. Too much new vocabulary is usually avoided in simplified texts. Also careful attention is given to anaphora (backward reference: persons are often referred to as 'he' or 'she' after they are presented by name) to avoid ambiguity and facilitate reading and comprehension, so that learners do not have to see back to understand who or what is referred to. For example,

(1) a. *Zineddine Zidane is prone to provoking revisionist hints because the virtues <u>he</u> represents are not only in the general population but especially so in football.*

When we restructure sentence (1) a. into (1) a' below, we need to check that the pronouns continue to refer to the same antecedents**.**

(1) a'. *The virtues <u>he</u> represents are not only in the general population but especially so in football. Hence, Zineddine Zidane is prone to provoking revisionist hints.*

Our salience-based pronoun system resolves <u>he</u> to Zineddine Zidane in the original text, but incorrectly to someone else in the restructured text. We therefore need to replace <u>he</u>

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(1) Automacity in reading is defined as a process of instantaneous word recognition upon which fluency and comprehension depend.

(2) By discrete reading skills we mean inference, deriving word meaning from context, summarizing main ideas, and prediction.

by Zineddine Zidane (its antecedent in the original text). We then check whether the Zineddine Zidane in the second sentence would, if replaced by the pronoun <u>he,</u> still be interpreted correctly. Therefore we can correctly simplify sentence (1) a to (1) a" as follows:

(1) a''. *The virtues Zineddine Zidane represents are not only in the general population but especially so in football. Hence,* <u>*he*</u> *is prone to provoking revisionist hints.*

In the sentence above 'he' clearly refers back to Zineddine Zidane.

2.6 Objections to simplified text

2.6.1 Introduction

The common objection to simplified texts is that they are not authentic. Supporters of this view suggest that learners should read authentic texts because then they can appreciate the beauty of the language and access the ideas the author is conveying. Furthermore, they suggest that simplified messages do not faithfully represent the language naturally. They argue that using authentic texts brings a context to and unifies the concurrent thematic and structural studies of the language. Some researchers (e.g., Honeyfield, 1977; Yano, Long and Ross, 1994; Young, 1999) propose that certain kinds of simplified texts can hinder rather than enhance comprehension. They propose that learners read authentic level material, so they will get massive exposure to new words and new language and thus pick them up incidentally. Moreover, they say that simplification reduces the opportunities EFL learners have with original text for practising guessing from context. Another objection to simplification texts is that it strips away authorial clues, the stylistic features and cultural clues of the original text. In discussing the different views denying authenticity to simplified texts, we are going to see whether linguistically simplified text tends to be impoverished input given that controlling vocabulary, grammar and sentence length in textbook text forces learners to rely on a limited source of target language in the process of learning, or it is appropriate for classroom use.

2.6.2 Authenticity and pedagogical implications

Honeyfield (1977: 431-440) demonstrated that artificial, simplified texts lacking stylistic features of authentic texts are less than useful preparation for students learning to read in the real world. He added that two principal aspects of text simplified, namely simplifying language and simplifying content, make the text differ significantly from the authentic message in the areas of information distribution and common structure. (1977: 431-440). For example, if a clause is joined to a non-subject NP, the discourse structure is invariably disturbed. We consider:

(2) a. *Dr. Knudson found that some children with the eye cancer had inherited a damaged copy of chromosome N• 13 from a parent, who had necessarily had the disease.*

In the sentence (2) a. the information given is as follows:

Dr. Knudson, children, damaged copy, parent, eye cancer

When we simplify the sentence the order is as either of (2) a'. or (2) a''.

(2) a'. *A parent had necessarily had the disease. Dr. Knudson found that some children with the eye cancer had inherited a damaged copy of chromosome N• 13 from a parent.*

(2) a''. *Dr. Knudson found that some children with the eye cancer had inherited a damaged copy of chromosome N• 13 from a parent. The parent had necessarily had the disease.*

When sentence (2) a. is replaced by (2) a'. the information order is:

Dr. Knudson, children, damaged copy, parent, eye cancer

But when it is replaced by (2) a''. the information is as follows:

parent, disease, Dr. Knudson, children, damaged copy

There is now a conflict between preserving the discourse structure[1] in terms of anaphoric links and preserving the discourse structure in terms of rhetorical relations. The non-restrictive relative clause has an elaboration relationship with the referent NP. To maintain this elaboration relationship, the dis-embedded clause needs to be the

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(1) Discourse structure subsumes notions such as segmentation, relations between segments (informational and intentional), anaphoric relations, modal subordination, discourse topic, thematic progression, etc.

second sentence, as in (2) a". However, this ordering significantly disrupts the relative salience of different entities that is more or less preserved by the ordering (2) a'. This conflict between picking the ordering that preserves anaphoric links and the ordering that preserves rhetorical structure[1] is unavoidable as the simplification process places a noun phrase that was originally in a non-subject position in a subject position, hence distorting the features of the original message.

In a so-called normal text (word used by Honeyfield, meaning authentic), there will be a random distribution of high and low frequency vocabulary and variations in sentence length, all of which a text keeps its unique and authentic aspect. He claims that simplified texts, by removing low frequency words from the original, flatten and homogenize it, causing a distortion of authentic English in which the communicative structure is confused. This means that EFL learners using simplified texts in classroom develop "Reading strategies that are inappropriate for reading unsimplified English." Honeyfield (1977: 435-440). He concludes that these factors may restrict the effectiveness of simplified texts in promoting learning a foreign language. Therefore, learners that are restricted to a study of language presented in simplified text may miss important aspects of the language mentioned in the original because *"concocted texts exemplify the grammar not as it is but as the course writer believes it to be"* (Willis, 1993: 92)

In discussing simplified text, Yano, Long, and Ross (1994) argue that linguistic simplification of written texts can be really self-defeating because the true long-term purpose of a reading activity is not comprehension of a given message, but learning of the language in which text is written, and the development of general reading comprehension skills which are transferable and not specific to any particular text. Therefore simplification of original texts poses a threat to successful language acquisition. This means that linguistic modifications found in simplified text may assist EFL learners in the immediate comprehension of the passage, however, as far as their applicability in second and foreign language teaching is concerned, they can hardly be used as efficient reading sources of learning a foreign language because they lack the linguistic features that the learners need to acquire. Hence, the simplified text

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(1) Rhetorical Structure Theory can be seen as a particularly elaborate development of coherence relations (Mann and Thompson 1988)

> *"seems artificial because the intention is to draw learners' attention to items of structural usage than the authentic features which are characteristic of 'real' text, or what makes texts 'hang together'"*
>
> (MC Donough and Shaw, 1993: 104)

Janet Swaffar also advocates the use of authentic texts for classroom use. She says,

> *"For purposes of the foreign language classroom, an authentic text... is one whose primary intent is to communicate meaning, in other words, such a text can be one which is written for native speakers ... Or it may be a text intended for language learner group. The relevant consideration here is not for whom it is written but that there has been an authentic communicative objective in mind."*
>
> (Janet Swaffar, 1985: 17)

This means that simplified texts do not have the stylistic features of the original because they have an intent which is to teach language, rather than to communicate.

Swaffar makes concrete suggestions for using authentic texts with various strategies to enhance critical thinking and conceptual skills. She notes that reading tasks need to be based on authentic text in order for learners to tap into their cognitive abilities because *"...sophisticated language can only develop from sophisticated thought."* (Swaffar, 1991: 252-79)

Swaffar proposes

> *"I think all students of normal intelligence are quite capable of undertaking sophisticated readings, that is, able to read for aesthetic and cultural features of texts in systematic fashion"*
>
> (Swaffar, 1992: 238)

Therefore, presenting learners with a variety of authentic passages may give learners partial control of the learning process and make them able to examine how new and prior knowledge (schemata)[1] can be manipulated in various situations. Learners are given a chance to be aware of how past knowledge can work or be altered in authentic text. Swaffar points out that,

> *"... regardless of the learners language level, prior knowledge impacts heavily on how well a text is comprehended or presented in a student composition"*
>
> Swaffar cited in Barbara F.Freed (1991: 252)

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(1)Mental networks of related concepts that influence understanding of new information.

This view suggests that authentic texts are needed in the classroom to provide opportunities for learners' participation. Learners differ in knowledge and styles of learning, so authentic text may activate and engage an individual learners' prior knowledge and skills to understand a particular linguistic feature because manipulating the text will help grasp meanings. Willis proposes that

> *"Just as lexicographers and grammarians clarify and systematize their knowledge about the language by analysis of text, so learners can make use of similar techniques to formulate and test hypotheses about the way language items are used"*.
>
> (Willis, 1990: 68)

So in classes where learners vary in abilities, the authentic text may also challenge them regardless of their proficiency level.

Furthermore, Brown (1994) suggests

> *"Generalization is a crucially important and pervading strategy in human learning. To generalize means to infer or derive a law, rule, or conclusion, usually from the observation of particular instances."*
>
> (Brown, 1994: 91)

Hence, the authentic text may present learners opportunities to make generalizations about grammar and vocabulary for themselves and see how prior language usage knowledge may be used or adapted in new situations.

2.6.3 Authenticity and vocabulary

Willis (1993) suggests that learners presented with authentic text may be given more meaningful context rather than learning lexical items in non-authentic context.

> *"The use of authentic text makes it likely that not only structure and necessary choice but also the typical behaviour of words and phrases will be captured and ... highlighted for the learner."*
>
> (Willis, 1993: 92)

Furthermore, by having this opportunity to work with words in authentic texts, learners

> *"are discovering the language... they discover words and they assign these words to classes... At the same time learners are discovering the classes to which words might belong and assigning the words in their lexicon to these classes"*
>
> (Willis, 1993: 84)

Therefore, simplified texts which have relatively few unknown words reduce the opportunities for EFL learners to examine and discover relationships held with lexical items.

2.6.4 Text and Stylistic Features

Another objection to simplified texts refers to the view that the simplification of a text strips away authorial clues, the style and cultural features of the authentic text. The argument suggests that the original text is toned down to distort those stylistic features of the original. Johns, in his example of a text simplification exercise involving the choice between the active or passive voice, Johns demonstrated that

> *"Simplification is liable to destroy those very features of the original text"*
> (Johns. 1994: 294)

John's example enforces the need for authentic text and need for that text to be used in the classroom in its original state to avoid the loss of stylistic features, which may be essential in the original text.

In terms of language learning even if simplification may facilitate the learner's understanding, it has a crucial weakness in that comprehension is achieved by removing items that learners need to learn (Long, Ross, 1993; Yano et al., 1994)

Furthermore Rutherford (1987: 172) proposes, what is needed is *'simplification …but of the task, not the text.'[1]*

Simplified texts when stripped of essential stylistic features do not contribute to building proficiency in the real life language. Swaffar (1985) claims that authentic passages which fulfil the communicative function have the following stylistic characteristics: authorial cues, repetition, redundancy, and discourse markers. She adds that simplified texts do not have these characteristics because they are intended to classroom use. This means that the lexico-grammar items and discourse markers are not like those of the original text.

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(1) Rutherford, W. E., "Second Language Grammar: Learning and Teaching." Longman. 1987. p. 172.

2.7 Simplified and Authentic Text

Research seems to suggest that it is only when a critical reading ability threshold is attained that learners will be able to read and understand a non-simplified text. This view suggests that EFL learners may feel the authentic text is irrelevant at their present stage of learning and do not understand the context within which new language is found, then it will be nearly impossible for them to understand the meanings of the unknown words. Hu and Nation point out that a text including more than one unfamiliar word in 50, the chance the learners will be able to grasp the meaning of the unknown word is at best minimal. According to Nation (2000) it is easier and less troublesome to give learners a simplified text first, and later as their abilities progress, let them read it in the original version. Comprehending unmodified authentic texts usually lies outside the beginning or intermediate learners of proximal development (i.e., potential ability).Therefore, learners cannot deal with authentic texts competently and confidently in a native-like way until they reach advanced level. According to Widdowson in Johns (1994: 294),

> *"The use of simplified texts is often recommended as a way of ensuring that the language is authentic in purpose yet within the learner's grasp"*.

Henry Widdowson who has probably thought harder about authenticity than anyone, early questioned the call *"for the learner's immediate exposure to genuine instances of language use"* which he saw as partly based on confusing *" the ends of language learning with the means by which they are achieved"* (1979: 151)

Hence, equating *"authentic"* with *"written by and for native speakers"* is itself a logical fallacy. Widdowson (1979) explains that authenticity does not reside in texts but is *"a quality which is bestowed upon them"* (p. 165). The *"right interest low vocabulary books"* correspond to Widdowson's *"simple accounts"*: *"genuine instances of discourse, designed to meet a communicative purpose…."* (Widdowson, 1978: 89)

So, what makes texts written by and for native speakers authentic is that they are instances of communication between writer and intended audience. Thus, when a writer communicates with an intended audience of language learners at a given level of proficiency, the resultant text is authentic.

Widdowson (1979) distinguishes between two different ways, or levels of simplification: the first one implies replacing complex words and structures with approximate equivalents that already exist in the learner's own interlanguage[1] leaving out those that are not known to the learner, thus bringing the original message into the scope of the learner's linguistic competence. The second method implies making explicit the propositional content of the original and bringing it into the scope of learner's communicative competence. For example,

Original text: ***Kenya was the scene of a major terrorist attack on August7 1998, when a car bomb blast outside the US embassy in Nairobi killed 219 people.***

 Simplified text***: Kenya was the scene of a big terrorist attack on August7 1998. A bomb explosed outside the US embassy in Nairobi. It killed 219 people.***

In the simplified text the low frequency words (i.e., the complex words) are replaced by approximate equivalents that already exist in the learners own prior knowledge the word 'blast' is replaced by 'explosed' and the word ' major' by 'big' to bring the original text into the scope of the learner's linguistic competence and facilitate comprehension.

2.8 Conclusion

This chapter presents different views advocating the use of original and authentic texts instead of simplified ones in the classroom. The arguments developed in this chapter underline the need for the reading text to be introduced in the classroom in its original version to avoid the loss of stylistic and language features the learners need to be exposed. It also discusses how authentic texts might increase the learner's participation and enable him to self- discover language features. The   argument also suggests that using authentic text make the learners gain access not only to the stylistic characteristics but also to the cultural foundations of a text. This chapter also considers the problems that the use of original text creates for EFL learners. Learners feel uncomfortable and unwilling to take risks when presented with unfamiliar or confusing texts. An original text may provide too much information and confuse learners and thus

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(1) Selinker (1972 proposed and elaborated the term **interlanguage** to explain the unique utterances of L2 learners. It is regarded as a separate linguistic system which results from a learner's attempts to produce a target language

may hinder comprehension. However, there are numerous simplified texts that are good and very readable. The argument states that simplified texts are not written to faithfully represent authorial clues but to give the EFL learner the opportunity to comprehend and understand the message.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

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CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The focus of our work is to determine which stylistic feature occurs more frequently in the simplified text and that which is shared less by the original one. Adopting such an approach enables us to quantify high and low frequency words and their variation according to the General Service List (West, 1953) and the Academic Word List (Coxhead, 2000) in the simplified text as compared to the original one. That is the stylistic features are graded in terms of frequency that characterize and distinguish the simplified text from the original, and then attempt to make descriptive and explanatory statement and state their pedagogical effectiveness. This suggests that after we have quantified the texts selected for the present study, and then expressed results, we make statements about the stylistic overall 'image' of these texts, and their effectiveness in the learning process.

3.2 Word Frequency and Learning

Although the language makes use of a big number of words, not all the words are equally useful. According to specialists the intermediate learner needs to know the 3000 or so high frequency words of the language. Nation (1990)[1] suggests that these high frequency words are learned, the next step for the teacher is to make the learners develop strategies to comprehend and learn the low frequency words of the language. So it is more efficient to manage the learning of vocabulary through guessing from context. Learning from context is so effective that some works suggest that first language learners acquire most of their vocabulary in this way (Sternberg, 1987)[2]. It has long been recognized that EFL learners, particularly beginning ones "*will certainly need a close acquaintance with the most frequent words*" (Willis, 1999:3). However it is pedagogically useful to help learners develop strategies for dealing with low frequency

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(1) Nation, I.S.P., 1990, *Teaching and Learning Vocabulary*, Newbury House, New York.

(2) Sternberg, R. J. (1987). Most vocabulary is learned from context. In M. G. McKeown, and M. E. Curtis (Eds.), the nature of vocabulary acquisition, (89-106). Hillsdale, N.J.: Erlbaum.

words, such as guessing from context rather than spending time learning individual words (Nation: 1990). Learners will need additional words beyond the most frequent occurring ones noting that the most frequent words make *"no more than the basis of usable competence"* (Willis, 1999:3)

3.3 Definition of Items

3.3.1 Collocation

Collocation is the relationship between two words or group of words that often go together and form a common expression *'fierce look'*, *'hard worker'* and *'substantial amounts'* are examples of collocated pairs of words. All words have their own, unique collocation fields. Thus collocations can be defined in numerous ways (see Moon 1997: 43), but for pedagogical purposes it is more practical to restrict the term to the following: two or three word groups which occur together throughout spoken and written English utterances.

Types of collocations

Verb + Noun	*'do something'*
Adjective + Noun	*'generous behaviour'*
Adverb+ Adjective	*'exceedingly rich'*
Adverb + Verb	*'scarcely bear'*
Noun + Noun	*'wood fire'*
Verb + Adjective + Noun	*'put some money'*
Adverb + Adjective + Noun	*'little free time'*

3.3.1.1 Why is collocation important for learners?

"students with good ideas often lose marks because they don't know the four or five most important collocations of a key word that is central to what they are writing about," (Hill 1999: 5). Thus learning collocations, apart from increasing the mental lexicon leads to an increase in written accuracy and spoken fluency. Exposure to

authentic written language makes the learners aware of the variety and density of this stylistic feature and helps them acquire more and more collocations.

3.3.2 Discourse markers

Discourse markers are words or short *"lexicalized phrases"*[1] that organise texts. This organization is achieved by showing *"how the speaker intends the basic message that follows to relate to the prior discourse."* Discourse markers help to create cohesion and coherence in a text by building a relationship between the different ideas that are expressed in the text. Some relationships noted by Schriffin (2001:55) are: causal *(Therefore, thus)*, conditional *(If x, then y)* temporal *(then),* adversative *(however)* and additive *(and, in addition).* Understanding discourse markers allows us to better examine the stylistic features of a text. These markers may be able to report that the text is well organized or not. There are four types of discourse markers used in combining English sentences:

3.3.2.1 Coordinating conjunctions

Conjunction	Meaning	Conjunction	Meaning
For	Reason	but	Contrast Concession
and	Addition	or	Choice
Nor	Negative Addition	yet	Concession
		so	Result/ Consequence

Table 1.1 Coordinating conjunctions

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(1) Discourse markers are defined as single words or lexicalised phrases that are supposed to have a function of organising discourse structure and that include 'oh', 'because', 'I mean', etc.

Coordinating conjunctions are discourse markers that join two independent clauses, which are set off by a comma.

e.g., He *was tall and huge, <u>and</u> his bushy eyebrows <u>and</u> wide nose gave him a severe look*. (ATC, p 41)

3.3.2.2 Connectors (Adverbials, Conjunctive adverbs)

Connectors are discourse markers that also join two independent clauses, but with a semicolon (;) or a period (.). They can occur in three positions in a sentence: initial (beginning) position, medial (middle) position, and final (end) position. Good writers/speakers use the position of discourse markers to give particular emphasis to the element that immediately precedes the connector. They also make sure that they vary the position of the discourse markers to avoid monotony. The punctuation is different, depending on the position of the connector.

A. Initial (beginning) Position: The connector is positioned at the beginning of the second clause.

e.g., *All public inscriptions were written in black and white. <u>So</u> all the buildings looked like one another*. (ATC, p 46)

B. Medial (middle) Position: The connector is positioned in the middle of the second clause, usually between subject and verb. In this case, the subject is emphasized and contrasted.

e.g., *My main   interest, in fact, was in what they used their computers for.* (ATC, p 71)

C. Final (end) Position: The connector is positioned at the end of the second clause.

e.g., *George spends his free time reading twentieth century American short stories; Harry is more interested in sports and physical exercise, on the other hand.*

Meaning Relationships expressed by **connectors:**

Result	Contrast	Addition	Emphasis
Therefore Thus, hence Consequently As a result	However In contrast On the other hand Rather	In addition Moreover Furthermore Besides	In fact As a matter of fact
Concession	**Time**	**Similarity**	**Negative/ Condition**
However, Nevertheless, still	First, Second, Afterward, Later	Similarly Likewise	Otherwise
Negative Emphasis	**Main Idea**	**Example**	**Conclusion**
On the contrary	On the whole, In general, Generally	For example For instance	In conclusion, To conclude In summary To summarize

Table 1.2 Connectors

3.3.2.3 Subordinating Conjunctions

Subordinating conjunctions are discourse markers that join a dependent (subordinate) clause to an independent (main) clause.

EX.: *He was called the Cat because his back would never touch the earth.* (ATC, Hard Times, pp 19-20)

Again, the subordinating conjunctions are used to signal different meaning relationships.

Reason/ Cause	Contrast	Concession (unexpected result)	Time
Because, Since, as, Now that	While, whereas	Although, Even though, even if, Though	After, before, When, since, While, as, As soon as, Until, whenever
Purpose	**Condition/Result**		**Similarity**
So that, Such...that	If..., (then), whether (or not), when, In case that, Unless		Just as

Table 1.3 Subordinating conjunctions

3.3.2.4 Phrasal linkers (Prepositions or ADJ + PREP combinations)

Phrase linkers are transitions that are often used at the beginning of a sentence.

Contrast	Reason	Addition
In contrast to, Unlike	Because, due to As a result of	In addition to
Similarity	**Concession (unexpected result)**	**Time**
Similar to, like	Despite, in spite of	Before, after, until, during

Table 1.4 Phrasal linkers

e.g., a. ***Because of all that rain, all your food looks like soup.*** (MNBE, p.70)

*b. **After supper you find your tobacco is damp and you cannot smoke.***

(MNBE, p.70)

3.3.3 Redundancy and Cohesion

A text becomes redundant when it represents information that learners already have, either because they knew the information before reading the text or because it was presented earlier in the text. This provides coherence and readability which require a certain level of redundancy. The presence of overlapping information or cohesive

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linkers between sentences creates redundancy, which contributes to the coherence of a text by adhering to the given-new contract, presenting readers with new information in the context of familiar or given information (Horning: 137-141). For a text to be readable there must be some overlap of information within the text and some overlap between the text and learner's prior knowledge. Redundancy is characterized by amplification, repetition, or restatement.

e.g., 1- *Most people find camping a pleasant activity, especially young people who do not have much money to spend on hotels. And camping is great as long as the weather is fine.* (MNBE, page.70) Repetition of the word *'camping'*

2- *Rainwater is the chief article of diet and supper. The bread is two-thirds rainwater, the beefsteak-pie is exceedingly rich in it, and the jam and the butter and the salt, and the coffee have all combined with it to make soup. After supper you find your tobacco is damp and you cannot smoke.* (MNBE, page.70)

Here, the effect of rainwater is amplified.

Cohesion and redundancy are related to one another in various ways. First, cohesive links create redundancy. Where a pronoun refers back to a noun in a preceding sentence or sentences, redundancy is created. Indeed, each kind of cohesive links contributes to the redundancy of the text as a whole. Referential ties of pronouns and antecedents are the simplest example. Ties of substitution, where synonyms are substituted for a particular noun, again provide more than one source for the same information. Even ellipsis, because learners are expected to fill in the missing information, contributes to the redundancy which derives from the reader's prior knowledge. Finally, conjunctions, the other category of cohesive tie, make explicit important meaning relations in the text. These connections in meaning are a form of cohesion which contributes importantly to readers' ability to get the author's full message.

e.g., 1- *In 1872 rules for teachers were very strict and they had very little free time for themselves, only one evening or two at the very most. They had many tasks to perform everyday such as filling lamps, cleaning chimneys, sharpening pencils. They could have one evening free or two to go to church or pay visits to their fiancés.* (MNBE, page 80)

The pronoun 'they' refers back to the noun 'teachers' in a preceding sentence, so redundancy is created.

e.g., 2- *Rainwater is the chief article of diet and supper.* (MNBE, page70)

Here the word 'diet' overlaps with 'supper'

3.4 Methodology

This work is based on five simplified texts from <u>MNBE</u> and three other texts from <u>ATC</u>, and the original versions of each. These texts are taken from the beginning, middle and the end of the two textbooks to represent adequately the wide range of texts included in the corpora. These texts will be referred to in the work as MNBE TXT SIMPLIFIED and MNBE TXT ORIGINAL, and ATC TXT SIMPLIFIED and ATC TXT ORIGINAL. The comparison uses a computer programmer called RANGE (Nation and Heatley, 2003) to study the distribution of high and low frequency words in both simplified and original texts (see tables 2 and 3). Under the heading of language, the word frequencies are examined for the variation that Honeyfield (1977) specifies; and the length of sentence, collocations, redundancies and discourse markers. Under the heading of content, topic, the author's intent and the information given are all analyzed.

The RANGE programme was developed by Paul Nation and Alex Heatley of Victoria University, Wellington (2003). It can use three different word lists, called base lists, to any written passage, and can classify the text vocabulary into three categories of headwords from each list, and another additional category of words outside the three lists. Thus they make four categories. The three base word lists which come with the programmer are the first and second thousand words from West's General Service List (West, 1953), referred to from now on as the GSL, and the Academic Word List (Coxhead, 2000) referred to as AWL. In this work the simplified text and its original version are analyzed by applying the GSL first and second 1000 words, and the AWL as the three base lists. RANGE is used to compare the vocabulary of up to two different texts at the same time, it is used to find the coverage of a text by the GSL and AWL word lists and to analyze the distribution of high and low frequency words in both simplified text and its original version. That is to compare against the GSL and AWL vocabulary lists to see what words in the passage are or are not in the two lists, and to determine what percentage of the items covered by the lists. It may also be used to see

what common vocabulary is found in these texts and to what extent the simplified text shares the same word variation with the original one. It provides a visual profile of distribution of these words in a text. RANGE is also used to provide a measure of text readability 1 by passing the text to be compared against the word frequency lists. Examples of two texts which have been profiled in this way can be seen here:

- <u>A Tunnel under the Sea</u> (Simplified text)

- <u>A Tunnel under the Sea</u> (Original text)

Both examples have been profiled by using 3 word lists:

$$1- 1^{st} \quad 1000 \quad GSL$$

$$2- 2^{nd} \quad 1000 \quad GSL$$

$$3- AWL$$

The first example text is, **A Tunnel under the Sea** is a simplified text taken from <u>MNBE</u> (p 42). About 86.32 percent of the words are in the 1st and 2nd thousand word lists and only one word (0.85 %) in the <u>AWL</u>, and 15 words are not in either list (not included in the GSL and AWL lists). The second text, "A Tunnel under the Sea" is the original text, and only about 85.14 percent of the words are found in the 1st and 2nd thousand word lists, four words (2.70 %) in the AWL. There are 18 Words not in either list, over 12.16 % of the total, so we can say that the original version clearly presents much more difficulty for the learner, and the simplified distorts the stylistic features of the latter. The words such as ANNOUNCED, FORECAST, HAMPER, SEA-BED, and STRAITS are included in the original text but not in the three base word lists and the simplified text, though their importance in contributing to the whole meaning of the text and their relevance to the topic. As a measure of readability, these percentages could be used as an objective way of gauging readability.

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(1) Readability has been defined by Klare as "the quality and style of writing as it relates to ease of reader comprehension and understanding."

3.4.1 RANGE Process

This programmer is designed for PCs (Personal computers). From the programmer we need:

1- The programmer range. Exe

2- Base word lists (BASEWORD1.txt, BASEWORD 2 txt,

BASEWORD3 txt)

3- Text files in ASCII[1] (DOS)[2] formal.

Here is an example of how to use Range.

Range. exe (The programmer)

Base word 1. Txt (GSL1)

Base word 2 txt (GSL2)   (the baseword lists)

Base word 3 txt (AWL)

Indo1 . txt

Indo 2. txt   (the texts to be analyzed)

The steps to follow to run range are:

1-We double click on the range icon in windows explorer

2-We open the file menu in RANGE and choose the heading open.

3-We select the text file we want to run the programmer over.

4-We click the button process files.

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(1) ASCII: American Standard Code for Information Interchange

(2) DOS: Disk Operating System

5-Then we look at the results file. The results file will be the name we choose plus range. Txt

3.4.2 The Word Lists

Three wordlists are used in this analysis. The first (BASEWRD 1.txt) includes the most first frequency 1000 words of English. The second (BASEWRD 2. txt) includes the second 1000 most frequency words, and the third (BASEWRD 3. txt) contains words which are from a wide range of subjects. All of these three base lists include the base forms of words and derived forms. These lists are the General Service List of English words by Michael West (1953) for the first 1000 and second 1000 words, and the Academic Word List by Coxhead (1998, 2000) containing 570 word families. The word forms in the base lists are grouped into word families under a headword. For example, the headword ACCEPTS has the following family members ACCEPTABILITY, ACCEPTABLE, ACCEPTED, and ACCEPTING and ACCEPTS. In the base lists the family members have a tab in front of them. The headword occurs just before the family members.

3.4.2.1 The General Service List (GSL) (West, 1953)

The GSL includes 2000 headword and was developed in the 1940. The frequency figures for most words are based on a 5,000,000 word written corpus. In spite of its age and some errors, it still remains the best of the available lists because of its information about the frequency of meanings, and West's careful application of criteria other than frequency and range. West made use of ease or difficulty of learning; necessity (words that express ideas); coverage (It is more efficient to learn a word that covers a different idea), stylistic criterion and emotional words. The lists include both American and British spellings. Apostrophes are considered as spaces, so I've is counted as two items, as is he's.

3.4.2.2 The Academic Words List (AWL)

The Academic word list was established by Averil Coxhead (2000) at the school of linguistics and applied language studies at Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand. The list contains 570 word families, examples being *accommodate, access, consult*. The list does not include words that are in the most frequent 2000 words of

English. The <u>Academic Word List</u> consists of ten sublists based on the words in the corpus of different subject areas. The word families of the <u>Academic Word List</u> were established according to several criteria such as range (over 94% of the words in the AWL occur in the academic corpus) frequency (the AWL families occur over 100 times in 3.500,000 word Academic corpus) and other criteria such as representativeness1 and so on. Proper nouns such as the names of people, places and animals were not included in the list.

3.5 The Texts

This work is based on a corpus of five texts from <u>MNBE</u>, and three others from <u>ATC</u>, and the original version of each. All the texts will be examined on basis of the following stylistic characteristics; high and low frequency words, redundancy, collocations and discourse markers.

3.5.1 My New Book of English (MNBE)

Most of the texts in <u>MNBE</u> are presented in both simplified and original versions to use the simplified text *'as a way of introducing the topic and some difficult key words before doing the original version'*. (MNBE: 6) Five texts are selected from this book. For the most part, pupils have been exposed to intensive reading of short texts. These texts are presented in both simplified and original versions. The texts are ordered according to the communicative functions and themes set in the syllabus. The texts chosen from the book fulfil various functions such as describing a place, narrating a past event and giving instructions. Frequency information provides a rational basis for making sure that learners get the best return by using the simplified text for their learning progress. This also will help us to determine whether simplified texts share or distort the stylistic features of original ones.

The texts selected for this study are:

    1-'A Tunnel under the Sea' (unknown author, MNBE, p. 42)

    2-'The Telephone Call' (W.S Maugham, MNBE, pp. 66-67)

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(1) For Paul Nation, representativeness means that the corpus used should contain a wide range of useful types so that the biases of a particular text type do not unduly influence the resulting list.

3-'Camping out in Rainy Weather' (Jerome K. Jerome, MNBE, p.70)

4-'I Want to Do a Ton' (MNBE, p. 76)

5- 'Rules for Teachers 1872' (MNBE, p. 80).

3.5.2 At the Crosswords

The reading passages in <u>ATC</u> are presented only in their adapted versions. <u>ATC</u> includes both literary and scientific texts. <u>ATC</u> texts encompass several distinguishable genres depending upon the communicative purposes they tend to fulfil. As far as genre is concerned, these texts are either literary extracts (setting and plot) or scientific reports about health and other technological subjects. They fulfil the functions of describing, narrating, suggesting and comparing. <u>ATC</u> consists of five units. The texts chosen for the present study are taken from the unit two, and unit four. These texts are:

1- Okonkwo (simplified), ATC, p. 41

Okonkwo (original), Chinua Achebe, <u>Things Fall Apart</u>, pp.

2-Coketown (simplified), ATC, p. 46

Coketown (original), Charles Dickens, <u>Hard Times</u>, pp 19-20.

3-Telecommunications (simplified), ATC, p. 103

Telecommunication (original), <u>Hutchison encyclopaedia</u>, 2001, p.1041.

3.6 Conclusion

In closing this chapter on methods, materials and concepts, we can briefly say that technical advances and other resources such as frequency words lists and the computer programme RANGE developed by Paul Nation are making the exploitation of texts a more mainstream activity in stylistics. The word, just like the sentence is a central element for any text analysis. It can be expected that systematic study of high and low frequency words, redundancy, and collocation proves to be important for classifying and discriminating various types of text. This enables us to reveal the similarities and dissimilarities between simplified texts and authentic ones in the subsequent chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR

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CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter all texts are analyzed and examined using the GSL first and second 1000 words, and the AWL, to show the percentage and distribution of high and low frequencies of words. However, because the GSL was elaborated using corpora, of English texts written by native speakers, high frequency words are measured as frequency in the experience of a native speaker. The comparison between simplified texts and original ones reveals that the proportion of words in the first 1000 word list is not the same. For example, the percentage of words in 1st 1000 GSL word list included in the text, **Camping out in Rainy Weather** drops from 82.24% in the simplified text to 72.13% in the original one, whereas the proportion in the AWL is zero percent, which rises to 1.64% in the original. This shows a discrepancy in word frequency distribution between the simplified text and the authentic one. Other features of language are also examined in this analysis. The collocations, the discourse markers, and the information, have been considered in this analysis to distinguish between the simplified text and the original one.

4.2 MNBE Text Analysis: Aspects of Language and Content

4.2.1 Text 1 Analysis: "A Tunnel under the Sea" (MNBE, p.42)

The figures in table 1.1 show what proportion of a text is covered by certain numbers of high and low frequency words. The figures in Table 1.1 also refer to the stylistic features of both the original text and the simplified version. The text is of journalism style.

Linguistic features	Original text	Simplified text
Words	148 words. 71.74% in 1st 1000 14 words outside lists of which 6 proper names	117 words. 77.92% in 1st 1000. 11 words outside lists of which 6 are proper names
Structures	-Use of subordinate clause (participle clause and relative clauses)	-Use of simple and short sentences. Some sentences contain coordinate clauses.
Collocations	-Sea-bed, wait days, actual cost	-Long bridge, European union
Content/ topic	Spain and Morocco announced the construction of tunnel.	Spain and Morocco are going to build a tunnel.
Information	-It will be useful -The cost is estimated at 8 billion us dollars	-It will help travellers reach their destination very quickly -It will cost approximately 8 billion dollars.

Table 1.1 distribution of high and low frequency words in "**A Tunnel under the Sea**" (MNBE, p.42)

Commentary of Text 1

The results derived from the Range analysis of the text, shows a random distribution of high and low frequency words in the original text. The original text contains 148 words with 71.74% of the words within the first 1000 words, and 4.35% within the AWL. It also includes 14 word types (e.g. *announced, forecast*) outside the GSL and AWL lists of which six are proper nouns (*Gibraltar, Morocco, Spain, Spanish, Tangiers, Tarifa*). Here all the base word lists are represented with averages showing the random distribution of words. However, the simplification of the text has a little flatter profile; the number of words is reduced to 117, with most words of the text are within the 1st 1000 words. The first base word list represents 77.92% of the text, but the 2nd 1000 shows only 6.49%. In the simplified text, it is notable that the base list 3, which represents the AWL shows an insignificant percentage of only 1.30. This shows that some technical words such as *construction, estimated* and *technically* are removed

from it. The number of unknown words is eleven; some of these are proper names like *Morocco*, *Spain* and *Tangiers.*

Other aspects of language simplification are represented in table 1.1. It is clear that the simplified text is shorter than the original. Thus some of the content is missing from it. Some sentences and expressions have been paraphrased to simplify vocabulary, as for example, in '*might hamper sailing'*, which becomes '*it could be dangerous for the ships sailing there.'* The discourse Markers *originally* and *besides* are used in the simplification, but not in the original. The conjunction *besides* is used to link the meaning of two sentences in order to avoid confusion that appear on the embedded sentence in the original text. The original sentence: '*...that would cost eight times more than a tunnel and might hamper sailing in the straights'* is divided into two simple sentences in the simplified version. Therefore it becomes: '… *the cost was too high. Besides* (conjunction of addition), *it could be dangerous for the ships sailing there.*' Collocations, which Honeyfield and Swaffar regard as tokens of authentic language, appear in the original, examples being, *sea-bed*, *wait days, actual cost*. These words are always found together, but there are examples of simpler collocations in the simplified version too, for instance, *long bridge*, *European Union*. The analysis has also shown that some information is missing in the simplified. For example, the measurements of length and depth of the tunnel are not given in the simplified text.

4.2.2 Text 2 Analysis: "**The Telephone Call"** (MNBE, pp. 66-67)

Table 1.2 shows that the distribution of high and low frequency words in the simplified text is nearly similar to that of the original version. The text is a piece of narrative fiction.

Linguistic features	Original text	Simplified text
Words	332 words 81.71% in 1st 1000 GSL list 12 words outside lists of which 2 proper names	218 words 82.24% in 1st 1000 GSL list 8 words outside lists of which 2 proper names

Structures	Sentence length 29 words in one sentence - Most of the text is built up on direct and indirect speech -Five Quantifiers are used: one, everyone,every, nobody, noone -Subordinate clauses are used. - Some sentences include more than two clauses -Participle relative and time clauses are used	Sentence length 17 words in one sentence -Most of sentences are short -Direct and indirect speech is used in simpler way. -Five Quantifiers are used: a lot of, every, one, every body, every one -One sentence includes 3 clauses; main clause +participle relative clause + purpose clause.
Discourse markers	-Presently, when, at last, then and is used 13 times.	-But as, but, and is used 7 times
Collocations	-Local operator, small town, phone call frame house, dressing gowns	-Local operator, small town, phone call
Redundancy	- Operator (5 times) - Major (5 times) -Abused (2 times)	-Hotel (3 times) -Woman (4 times) -Speak (3 times) -Operator (5 times) -Major (5 times) -More… more (twice)
Content/topic	Spending the night in a small town in Texas	Spending the night in a hotel in a small town in Texas
Information	- A lot of people driving across the continent usually stop at this hotel. - A woman in one of the rooms put in a call to Washington. - She abused the local operator.	- It was a convenient stopping place for people driving across the continent, and the hotel was full. - A woman in one of the rooms was making a phone call to Washington. -She insulted the local operator.

Table 1.2 distribution of high and low frequency words in **"The Telephone Call"** (MNBE, pp. 66-67)

Commentary of Text 2

The text simplification is a little shorter than the original. The original text contains 332 words, but the simplification is reduced to 218 words. In the original 81.71% of the text is composed of first 1000 high frequency words, and the

simplification shows almost the same percentage (82.24%). So, the simplified text has almost the same distribution of words as the original one. The results for base list 3, which represents the AWL, are between 2.44% for the original and 1.87% for the simplification. Coxhead (2000) finds that in general the AWL has a very low coverage of fiction, so this is not surprising. In the simplified version the structure has been altered to reduce the number of subordinate clauses and to make the main verbs easier to identify. In the original the sentence: '*when the operator told her she couldn't trace him, flew into a temper and said that everyone in Washington knows Major Tompkins'*; this sentence has been divided into two in the simplification: '*The operator told her that she couldn't get any Major Tompkins in Washington.' 'The Woman was furious.*' This shows that the number of subordinate clauses is reduced and low frequency words are substituted by high frequency verbs. '*trace'* has been substituted for '*get'* and the phrase '*flew into a temper'* for '*furious.*' Concerning collocations their number is reduced in the simplification. The collocations, *dressing- gowns*, *stopping place, frame house* are removed from the simplification. The information given in the original is more detailed than in the simplified text. But it does not differ over the two versions.

4.2.3 Text 3 Analysis: "Camping Out in Rainy Weather" (MNBE, p.70)

Here are some figures and features showing the difference between the stylistic features of the original text and the simplified version. This will be very useful in our treatment of the pedagogical implications in the end of this chapter.

Linguistic features	Original text	Simplified text
Words	233 words 72.13% in 1st 1000 GSL list 13 words outside lists such as *beef-steak, jam, speechless*	184 words 82.24% in 1st 1000 GSL list Only 3 words outside lists.
Structures	-Sentence length -35 words in one sentence and 34 words in another. -The text contains embedded sentences which include more than 2 clauses.	-Sentence length -29 words in one sentence but most sentences are average length. -Some sentences are embedded.(Reason clause is used 3 times)

	-Use of 6 subordinate clauses(time, reason, result clauses are used)	-Two relative clauses are also used
Discourse markers	And, as, instead of, just as, at last, after	And, but, after (but is used twice to link two sentences)
Redundancy	-The word 'rain' is repeated	-Rain is repeated 3 times -The auxiliary *'to be'* is exaggeratedly repeated (11 times)
Collocations	-Rainy weather, severe colds, wood fire.	-Easy collocations are used young people, wood fire
Content / topic	-Camping out in rainy weather is not pleasant	-Most people find camping a pleasant activity
Information	-Camping out in rainy weather is not pleasant -You are wet through and there is a good two inches of water in the boat and all the things are damp -You find your tobacco is damp and you cannot smoke - None	- Camping is great as long as the weather is fine - It stars to rain, then you are in problems -This information is removed from the simplified version. -You are exhausted and you manage to sleep somehow

Table 1.3 distribution of high and low frequency words in **"Camping Out in Rainy Weather"** (MNBE, p. 70)

Commentary of Text 3

The word count is almost the same in the original and the simplification. In the simplified version difficult words have been paraphrased, for example the word '*speechless'* becomes '*lost your voices.*' In the original only 72.13% of the text is composed of 1st 1000 high frequency words; however the simplified version contains 82.24%. This shows a much flatter profile for the simplification. There are no results for the AWL in the simplification. So the effect of simplification process has been to reduce the proportion of unknown words. It is clear that the simplification is only a little shorter than the original, but some of the content is missing from it. The information, '*you are wet through and there is good two inches of water in the boat and all the*

things are damp' is missing in the simplified version. The topic in the original is clearly stated at the beginning of the text '*camping out in rainy weather is not pleasant'* but it is confusing in the simplified version when beginning the text with '*most people find camping a pleasant activity'*, then later adding '*when the weather is fine.'*

4.2.4 Text 4 Analysis: "I Want to Do a Ton" (MNBE, p.76)

The analysis of the stylistic characteristics of text 4 may be well illustrated in the following table. This table shows that high and low frequency words are less varied in the simplified version. The text is also of journalism style.

stylistic features	Original text	Simplified text
Words	334 words 75.43% in 1st 1000 GSL list 24 words outside lists of which 5 are proper names e.g., Folkestone, Richard	167 words 83.16% in 1st 1000 GSL list Only 7 words outside lists such as *compelled*, *disqualified*. No proper names
Structures	- Sentence length 44 words in one sentence - Direct speech is used -Some sentences contain more than 2 clauses - The whole text consists of 11 short paragraphs	- Sentence length 26 words in one sentence - Direct speech is used but less than in the original - No more than 2 clauses -The whole text is reduced to 2 paragraphs
Discourse markers	After (time conjunction) 'But' is used 5 times to link clauses	This (demonstrative) when(time conjunction) later (time conjunction) after (time conjunction) 'and' is also used to link clauses
Collocations	-Driving test, radar trap, safest drivers, medical check- ups, middle sixties	-radar trap, mid-sixties, good health
Redundancy	- The first singular pronoun is used 15 times (this shows the prevalence of direct speech in the text)	- The first singular pronoun is used only once (direct speech is avoided) though some sentences are kept in this mode.

Content/ Topic	- A motorist of 96 was fined £ 7 yesterday for speeding. (The offence and punishment are clearly stated in the topic sentence of the 1st paragraph)	- Mr D., a man of 96 was caught by a radar trap doing 41 miles an hour ….
Information	- Mr D., a widower, was caught by a radar trap… (this information is given in 3rd paragraph) - Mr D., a retired docks executive did not appear in court - "Mind you, I'm still a bit annoyed about being caught. On that particular stretch of road, 30 mph is absurd"	-Mr D., a man of 96 was caught by a radar trap (this information is given in the first paragraph) -He did not appear in court -none

Table 1.4 distribution of high and low frequency words **"I Want to Do a Ton"** (MNBE, p. 76)

Commentary of Text 4

As the simplification is very much shorter than the original, the profile of word frequency distribution is likely to be less varied than that of the original. The original contains 334 words of which 75.43% in 1st 1000 GSL list, but the simplified version is composed of only 167 words of which 83.16 in the first 1000 GSL list. The first singular personal pronoun is repeated 15 times in the original text. This reveals the prevalence of direct speech in the original text but the direct speech is avoided in the simplification though some sentences are kept in this mode. Concerning the topic and content, they are clearly expressed in the original text; the Motorist's offence and punishment are stated in the topic sentence of the first paragraph. However, in the simplification the punishment inflicted on the motorist is missing from it.

4.2.5 Text 5 Analysis: "Rules for Teachers" (MNBE, p.80)

Table 1.5 contains the results obtained from the analysis of the distribution of high and low frequency words in both the original passage and the simplified version. This shows that the profile of word frequency distribution is likely to be less varied than that of the original.

stylistic features	Original text	Simplified text
Words	215 words 65.25 % in 1st 1000 GSL list 12 words outside lists such as *courting liquor* and *goodly*	128 words 80.46% in 1st 2000 GSL list Only 4 words are outside lists
Structures	- The whole text consists of a set separated instructions for teachers - It contains simple sentences and complex ones (three relative clauses are used) - Tense used: future with will, present simple. This generally characterizes the function of instructing	- The entire text in the simplification is composed of one paragraph. - Two relative clauses are used. - Past simple is used to show that the instructions date back to 1872. - Obligation is expressed by 'had to'
Discourse Markers	- Instructions are numbered from 1 to 9.	- The third plural person (they) is used to refer back to 'teachers'
Collocations	-Individual taste, remaining time goodly sum, public halls	-Free time, Alcoholic beverages, personal life
Redundancy	- Teacher (repeated 4 times) - Teachers (repeated 4 times) - The conjunction of coordination 'and' is used 4 times	- Teacher (repeated 3 times) -Teachers (only once) - 'And' is used only once.
Content / Topic	- Rules for teachers (from the office of the principal)	- In 1872 rules for teaches were very strict.
Information	- After ten hours in school, the teachers may spend the remaining time reading the bible or other good spooks	-They (teachers) had very little time for themselves

	(this information is more detailed than in the simplified version) - The teacher who performs his labor faithfully will be given increase in pay.	-Not mentioned

Table 1.5 distribution of high and low frequency words in **"Rules for Teachers"** (MNBE, p. 80)

Commentary of Text 5

The original text contains 215 words and has been shortened in the simplified version to 128 words. Thus it contains more variation. In the original only 65.25% of the text is composed of first 1000 high frequency words, whereas in the simplified version the percentage is 80.46. It is also noticeable that the proportion of words outside lists, for example, drops from 8.51 % in the original to 4.60 % in the simplified version. This may account for the necessity of avoiding unknown words. Collocations, which Honeyfield and Swaffar regard as indications of authentic language, appear in the original, examples being *goodly sum*, *remaining time*, *individual taste*. These words are usually found together, but there are also simple collocations in the simplified text, for example, *free time*. Concerning the information given, it is more detailed in the original than in the simplification but it is essentially the same.

4.3 ATC Texts: Aspects of Language and Content

4.3.1 Text 1 Analysis: "Okonkwo" (ATC p.41)

Table 1.6 shows discourse level problems that could arise from syntactic and lexical simplification in the text "Okonkwo" in ATC .The text is a piece of fiction. It draws the portrait of "Okonkwo" in Things Fall Apart by Chinua Achebe.

stylistic features	Original text	Simplified text
Words	538 words 70.79% in first 1000 GSL list 41 words outside list of which four are proper names.	239 words 74.44% in first 1000 GSL list 18 words outside list of which five are proper names.

Structures	- Sentence length 31 words in one sentence -The whole text consists of 5 paragraphs - Most of sentences are long and complex; they include coordinate, subordinate and relative clauses.	- Sentence length 23 words in one sentence -The simplification is reduced to 3 paragraphs -Most of sentences are short -There are five embedded sentences, which include either coordinate or subordinate clauses.
Discourse Markers	- As, that (demonstrative) when (time conjunction) sometimes (frequency adverb) -'he' (anaphoric reference) is used 25 times to refer back either to Okonkwo or Unoka	- In addition, In his day, In fact (emphasis conjunction) -'he' as anaphoric reference is used 12 times to refer back to either Okonkwo or Unoka
Collocations	-personal achievements, great wrestler, bush-fire, bushy eyebrows, severe look, substantial amounts, dazzling beauty	-dark complexion, fierce look, handsome man, gentle look (simple collocations)
Redundancy	-The name of Okonkwo is repeated five times -Unoka is repeated five times	- Same -Only twice in the simplification
Content / Topic	Okonkwo portrait (more detailed)	Okonkwo portrait (less detailed)
Information	- Not mentioned - Unoka was a debtor, and he owed every neighbor some money - He was lazy and was incapable of thinking about tomorrow	- Okonkwo was a very hard worker - None - He was lazy and incapable of bringing food to his wife and children

Table 1.6 distribution of high and low frequency words in **"Okonkwo"** (ATC, p. 41)

Commentary of Text 1

Some of the content is missing from the simplified version. For example, '*he had no patience with his father* and *Unoka (his father) was a debtor'* are omitted in the simplification. The names of characters (Okonkwo and Unoka) are repeated in the simplification, although there is more redundancy in the original .The clue to the original meaning is provided by the anaphoric reference 'he' as a discourse marker. It's

used 25 times to refer back to either 'Okonkwo' or 'Unoka'. The same discourse marker is used in the simplification but less than in the original because some of the original content is missing. Other discourse markers, *as*, *that* (demonstrative), *when (time marker)* are used in the original and *in addition*, *in fact* in the simplified text. The collocations are considerably reduced in the simplified version. For example, '*personal achievements', 'great wrestler', 'substantial amounts'* are removed from the simplified version. But we find different collocations in the simplification, such as '*handsome man', 'dark completion'*.

4.3.2 Text 2 Analysis: "Coketown" (ATC, p.46)

Table 1.7 shows the distinction between the original text ,"Coketown" in <u>Hard Times</u> by Charles Dickens, and the simplified version in terms of Swaffar's authentic characteristics and the distribution of high and low frequency words.

stylistic features	Original text	Simplified text
Words	479 words 67.95 %in 1st 1000 GSL list 44 words outside list such as *pavements*, *edifice* and *jail*	208 words 73.39 % in 1st 1000 GSL list 18 words outside lists such as *textile*, *infirmary* and *vast*
Structures	The text contains sentences with subordinate, coordinate and relative clauses	Most of sentences are short and simple though there are some which include coordinate clauses
Discourse Markers	- 'It' (third singular person) is used as an anaphoric reference, it refers back to coketown; it is used ten times in the text - 'and' (conjunction of coordination) is used 26 times to link clauses	- 'It' (third singular person) is used only four times - so (result conjunction)
Collocations	-Tall chimneys, ill smelling dye, steam engine, melancholy madness (synonymy) religion persuasion, public inscriptions	-Tall chimneys, ill smelling dye, textile factories, public inscriptions,(same collocations are found in the original)
Redundancy	- Fact (repeated 10 times) - Like (repeated 6 times) - Work (repeated 3 times) - Smoke (repeated 2 times)	- Fact (none) - Like (same) - Work (mentioned only once) - Smoke (mentioned once)

Content / Topic	Coketown was a town of machinery and tall chimneys (Polluted city)	Coketown was a town of machinery and tall chimneys (Polluted city)
Information	- Coketown was a town of machinery and tall chimneys. - It had a black canal in it, and a river that run purple with ill smelling dye -You saw nothing in Coketown, but what was severely workful. -The infirmary night have been the jail, the town hall might be either. - The M'choakumchild school was all fact	-Coketown was a town of machinery and Tall chimneys - It had a black canal in it, and a river that run purple with ill smelling dye - You saw nothing in Coketown but some rare facilities. - The infirmary stood next to the townhall -The library was opposite the M' choakumchild school. (Library is not mentioned in the original)

Table 1.7 distribution of high and low frequency words in **"Coketown"** (ATC, p. 46)

Commentary of Text 2

The original text shows a profile which represents a much more random distribution of word frequencies. All base lists are represented, showing a random distribution of words. In the original only 67.95% of the text is composed of 1st 1000 high frequency words, and 18.80% words outside the GSL and AWL lists. The simplification process has shortened the text considerably, which has had the effect of reducing the possibilities for frequency variation. We find that the simplified text is composed of 73.39% of 1st 1000 high frequency words and only 0.81% of the AWL words. The original text contains long and embedded sentences with subordinate and relative clauses, whereas most sentences in the simplification version are short and simple. This reveals that an effect of the simplification has been to shorten the sentences. Instead of the original description by the writer of the: '*M'choakumchild school was all fact, and the school of design was all fact, and relations between master and man were all fact*' the simplified version has given the location of school, which says, '*the library was opposite the M'choakumchild school*'. The same collocations are repeated in the simplified text, for instance, '*ill-smelling dye*', '*tall chimneys*', '*public*

inscriptions', but the difficult ones are removed from it such as '*religions persuasion'*. The information given in the original is more detailed than in the simplification. The author's intent is to give a horrible picture of Coketown city, with a clue as to the cause embedded in the description. But the focus in the simplified version is to describe Coketown as an industrial city though there are some indications of its horrible aspects.

4.3.3 Text 3 Analysis: "Telecommunications" (ATC, p.103)

Table 1.8 presents the profile of word frequency distribution of both the original text and the simplified version. Also the analysis has revealed that the structure of the text has been altered in the simplified text to reduce the number of passive form sentences.

Stylistic features	Original text	Simplified text
Words	236 words 49.66% in 1st 1000 GSL list 43 words outside lists (29.66%) Most of them are technical words.	201 words 59.85% in 1st 1000 GSL list 29 words outside lists of which most are technical words.
Structures	-Sentence length 30 words in one sentence (numbers are not counted) -The texts contains 9 passive patterns	-Sentence length 21 words in one sentence -There is only one passive pattern in the simplification
Discourse Markers	Today, such a, and (conjunction of coordination) is used 7 times	However, today, by the year 2050.
Redundancy	-Used (repeated 3 times) - Invented (4 times) -Telegraph (3 times) - System (3 times) - Communication (4 times)	- Used (repeated twice) - Invented (once) - Telegraph (once) - System (once) - Communication (5 times)
Content / Topic	-Today it is possible to communicate internationally by telephone cable or by satellite or microwave link.	-Humans have wanted to communicate through space

Information	- Not mentioned	-Men used drums to send and receive messages
	-The first mechanical telecommunication systems were a semaphore and heliograph, invented in the mid 19th century.	-Removed from the simplified version
	-In the USA Samuel Morse invented a signaling code which is still used, and a recording telegraph.	-Italian inventor Guglielmo Marconi used Heinrich Hertz's discoveries about electromagnetic waves. It was the telegraph and it was the ancestor of the radio.

Table 1.8 distribution of high and low frequency words in **"Telecommunications"** (ATC, p. 103)

Commentary of Text 3

The text genre is purely scientific. It is therefore clear that it contains technical words. The original text is composed of 6.21% of the AWL words and 29.66 % of words outside GSL and AWL lists, of which 15 words are technical. However in the simplification the percentage of words outside the three base lists is reduced to 21.17%. This reveals that some difficult technical words have been removed from it, such as *geostationary*, *heliograph*. The entire text in the original is built up on passive form sentences, whereas active form is preferred in the simplification. The structure has been altered to reduce the number of passive form sentences and to make the main verbs easier to identify. For example, the sentence *'A solution was put forward in 1945 by the science –fiction writer Arthur c. Clarke'* has been altered to become *'in 1945, science fiction writer Arthur c. Clarke, suggested a solution'*. The word 'Communication' is repeated in the simplification, which is an example of redundancy, although there is more redundancy in the original. The information given in the original text is a little more detailed than in the simplification, but it is essentially the same. *'Using drums as means of communication'* is not included in the original text.

4.4 Summary

The research question of this study was whether simplified texts and original ones reveal similar patterns of variation of word frequency distribution, and of stylistic

features of authentic messages. The results will be discussed below with reference first to the MNBE texts, and then to ATC texts.

4.4.1 MNBE Texts

The analysis of MNBE original texts, using the GSL/ AWL base lists, shows a random distribution of high and low frequency words and this of course cannot be taken as a model for frequency distribution in authentic text. By contrast, the simplified texts analyzed according to the same GLS/ AWL base lists, look a little flatter and homogeneous. Two simplified texts analyzed with GSL and AWL shows a good deal of variety, and can almost compete with the original ones. The word count in the original is much bigger than in the simplification. Difficult words have been paraphrased and substituted by simple ones. Also some of the content has been omitted by cutting out some paragraphs and removing some events. So even if a simplified text conveys meaning, if it does not communicate the same meaning as the original, it cannot be called a good simplification of the original. Therefore, we can agree with Honeyfield (1977) that when the simplified text is not true and effective, it is flat and homogeneous (word variation not provided). We cannot agree with him when the simplified text is well-written and appropriately graded. The MNBE texts contain authentic cues in their collocations, and they have discourse markers.

For the text structure, one of the most principal linguistic operations involved in the production of propositions is the association, by the writer, of a subject (S) with a predicate (P). This determines the distinction made within the English verb phrase between the so-called "contiguous," or simple forms, as in *he goes, he went,* etc., where the relation between subject and predicate is direct and immediate, and the "non-contiguous," compound forms, where the relation between subject and predicate is mediated by various types of auxiliary and combinations, for example, *he has gone, he didn't go, he might have gone, etc.* This distinction then constitutes the basis of our study of the macroscopic distribution of the two distinct "patterns" of predication, S_P and S_AUX_P, and the various verbal forms which realize them, across selected texts in MNBE.

In order to comprehend fully the formal distinctions utilized in the concordances, and to understand the objective or subjective values that can be attributed to the

following utterances, we consider the following sets of sample utterances, which all conform to the S_P pattern

1. 'A Tunnel' (MNBE: 42)

a. Original: *Spain and Morocco <u>announced</u> the construction of a tunnel under the straits of Gibraltar.*

a'. Simplified: *Spain and Morocco <u>are going to</u> build a tunnel under the straits of Gibraltar.*

2. '**The Telephone Call'** (MNBE: 66)

b. Original*: Everyone <u>went</u> to bed early. At ten o'clock, a woman in one of the rooms <u>put</u> in a call to Washington, and in the frame house, you <u>could hear</u> plainly every word she <u>said</u>.*

b'. Simplified: *At ten o'clock a woman in one of the rooms <u>was making</u> a phone call to Washington. As the hotel <u>was made</u> of wood, everybody <u>could hear</u> clearly every word that the woman said.*

In the original utterance (a) the simple verb form '*announced*' is used, not to narrate events in sequence, but to characterize the subject of the predication in various ways. Discourse characterized by these forms, which can conveniently be subsumed under the general term "reporting," tends to be factual, objective and positive.

However, the simplified utterance (a')   exhibits the expression of the writer's subjectivity. This utterance falls within the broad linguistic categories of aspect, mood and modality, and illustrate the S_AUX_P pattern 'S+ are going + infinitive + object'.

It is the same with the utterances (b) and (b').In the original the utterance is an example of narration, i.e. of the representation of events in sequence. On the other hand, the simplified utterance realizes the S_AUX_P pattern and, in various ways, expresses the writer's subjective, often explanatory, evaluation of the situation referred to. This illustrates the realization of aspect in English, by which we mean the various ways in which the writer represents the degree of completion of a process with respect to some reference point. The various aspectual marker of English (*be + ing)* as in '*was making'*

is found in the simplified utterance. This is a trace of the writer's involvement in the utterance and not a feature of the situation being represented.

4.4.2 ATC Texts

As the <u>ATC</u> simplified texts are very much shorter than the original, the profile of word frequency distribution is likely to be less varied than that of the original. But shortening to simplify we do sometimes lose the opportunity, as in <u>ATC</u> texts, to build up a climate of suspense over several paragraphs, which culminates in a dramatic event. An unintelligible dramatic build up which loses the learner is worse than a shorter understandable version. The information given in the original text is more detailed than in the simplification but despite the reduction in detail the main points are clearly conveyed, even with some modifications. The collocations in the original are particularly unusual. The original texts 'Okonkwo' and 'Coketown' contain some unknown collocations such as *'dazzling beauty'*, *'substantial amounts'* and *'religious persuasion'*.

1.9 representing the distribution of high and low frequency words in all sample texts in MNBE and ATC

Text book	Text Title	Text type	GSL 1st 1000 words	GSL 2nd 1000 words	Academic word list	Words outside the lists
MNBE	A Tunnel under the Sea	Simplified	77.92%	06.49%	1.30%	14.29%
		Original	71.74%	08.70%	04.35%	15.22%
	The Telephone Call	Simplified	82.24%	8.41%	1.87%	7.48%
		Original	81.71%	8.54%	2.44%	7.32%
	Camping out in Rainy Weather	Simplified	82.24%	14.95%	0.00%	2.80%
		Original	72.13%	15.57%	1.64%	10.66%
	'I Want to Do a Ton'	Simplified	83.16%	7.37%	2.11%	7.37%
		Original	75.43%	8.00%	2.86%	13.71%
	Rules for Teachers	Simplified	80.46%	11.49%	3.45%	4.60%
		Original	65.25%	20.57%	5.67%	8.51%
ATC	Okonkwo	Simplified	74.44%	11.28%	0.75%	13.53%
		Original	70.79%	12.36%	1.50%	15.36%
	Coketown	Simplified	73.39%	11.29%	0.81%	14.52%
		Original	67.95%	9.40%	3.85%	18.80%
	Telecommunications	Simplified	59.85%	13.14%	5.84%	21.17%
		Original	49.66%	14.48%	6.21%	29.66%

Table 1.9 the distribution of high and low frequency words in all sample texts

4.5 Pedagogical implications

There is a general feeling that the simplified texts that have been specially prepared for EFL learners are not as true and adequate as authentic material intended for native learners. Manipulation of the simplified text is seen as practice in vocabulary and grammar, but it is not a useful way of introducing new vocabulary and acquiring knowledge and experience of the world.

Most texts presented in the two textbooks for the secondary school first year pupils are not only limited in context, but also, to a certain extent, unauthentic. They are simplified in style, structure and vocabulary for schematic presentation. Very often, the authorial voice and point of view are glossed over or taken for granted. As a result, the potential for *'deep processing'* may be limited. In Widdowson's words, a simplified text does not *'realise the meaning potential of language to create alternative contexts of*

reality; it simply manifests language usage, puts it on show disposed in a way that makes minimal demands on thoughts' (Widdowson, 1984: 169)

However, The analysis conducted on some <u>MNBE</u> and <u>ATC</u> simplified texts reveals that if the learner is exposed to a consistent and well-graded simplification he can respond to that text in an authentic way, by learning some new ideas and by being critical about the ideas in the text. Interpretation of the results thus obtained shows interesting stylistic features of authentic language in some simplified texts. The word frequency distribution is nearly as varied as in the original. Also the preservation of essential stylistic features of authentic text in the simplification has been shown in these texts. Collocations, which Swaffar regards as indications of authentic messages, appear in the simplification. This feature is highly regular in some simplified texts in both <u>MNBE</u> and <u>ATC</u> corpora.

Analysing the relation between collocation types and genres in the Corpus, we found that collocations (i.e. collocations of 2 words or more) are as frequent in "informative/formal" as in "imaginative/informal" genres. However, the difficult collocations are removed in the simplified text. 'Bushy eyebrows', 'substantial amounts', 'dazzling beauty' are not found in the simplified version of "Okonkwo" text. Since collocation is "text sensitive" (Hoey, 1991: 22) pedagogical studies of vocabulary acquisition have shown that learning through reading an authentic text is not only possible, but is almost certainly the means by which native speakers learn the majority of their vocabulary (see Saragi, Nation, & Meister, 1978). For such learning to occur, however, the reader must understand approximately 95% of the running words in the text (Nation, 1990) in order to infer meaning. While such high level of comprehension poses no problems for native speakers, they are clearly out of reach for most foreign-language learners when they are using authentic texts. Therefore well-written simplified versions of authentic texts are used to artificially raise the level of reading comprehension for students of English. As a result, pupils can make vocabulary gains with each text they deal with in the classroom. This helps the learner develop a deeper and more accurate understanding of word meaning. The use of simplified texts for implicit vocabulary learning does, however, have limitations. While these simplified texts are an excellent means through which pupils learn high-frequency lexis, they are not likely to include much of the low-frequency lexis that is typically present in authentic readings. For example, in the text "Camping out in Rainy Weather" we found

that the simplified version contains 82.24% of first 1000 high frequency words, but the original is composed of only 72.13%. This shows that the learner is not exposed to low-frequency lexis in the simplified text. He is not motivated therefore to guess from context.

Though a simplified text may serve the purpose of paraphrasing the text in an easier language, but it has a crucial weakness in that it excludes the necessary authorial cues and cultural features of the text. Comprehension is achieved by removing words and complete sentences which contribute to the meaning of the whole text, and those learners need to learn. The simplified texts which have few unknown words will certainly reduce the opportunities for EFL learners to ensure that comprehension and guessing can occur.

4.5.1 Potential benefits of simplified texts

Some specialists do think that there are advantages in using simplified texts for pedagogical purposes. They make English more accessible by stages and increase students' exposure to it. EFL textbooks should not include literary texts in their original version since the learners perceive literature as something too difficult to understand, in the context of both language difficulty and the meaning of the text. If EFLs are overwhelmed by the difficulty of a text (either because of linguistic complexity, the inherent difficulty of the subject matter, or a combination of both factors), they will be unable to learn the content it presents. Thus, one of the most salient benefits of text simplification is the potential for increasing comprehension and discarding frustration, leading to greater academic success and self-confidence. Linguistic simplification will presumably make learners enjoy greater access to the concepts of a text instead of being completely caught up with the difficulty of language. For example, simpler vocabulary would allow a learner to focus on the essential meaning of the passage without being overly frustrated by unknown words. Learners would also enjoy greater ability to focus on comprehension. They would be able to read more fluently. Shorter sentences, with fewer subordinated clauses, might also be easier for students to parse. Also a well simplified text should help to make explicit many of the implicit references and background knowledge required for complete understanding. Text simplification might help to alleviate the difficulties learners with difficulties have when relying on imprecise or incorrect background knowledge. The original text usually comprises low

frequency words which are obscure and inaccessible to learners with low or some level of proficiency in English. In the original text 'Okonkwo portrait' we find that it contains 41 words outside the three base lists. The usage of the words like *blessedness, cowries, dazzling, fare, improvident, mournful* in the original text don't help learners to understand the central idea of the text. Hu and Nation point out that a new message containing more than one word in 50 makes the text difficult to understand. Whereas the original text 'Okonkwo' includes 3.82 words in 50, thus it will be impossible for EFL learners to understand the meanings of the unknown words.

4.5.2 Potential drawbacks of simplified texts

On the other hand, some simplified texts distort the original version, making it potentially difficult to comprehend. These simplified texts fall short of maintaining the original of the subject matter, resulting in inaccurate content. Moreover, to become language users, pupils need to be introduced to texts in their complete original versions, instead of being exposed to predominantly simplified texts. A text that is simplified may prevent students from being exposed to the vocabulary and text structures that they will eventually need to learn. More importantly, restructuring text with easier words does not necessarily improve comprehension. Although texts should be easy enough for students to understand, tasks that are too easy never provide learners with the opportunity to see what they can do, and thus may end up undermining confidence in the long term. If students only read texts that they can read easily, there is no reason to practise and apply strategies; readers will only apply strategic thinking if they read authentic texts. 'Coketown' for example, in its original version is no-place and it is clearly a bad place. Critics variously identify it with Manchester, Preston, and Oldham. The text is in fact a utopian satire. Structurally it is based on a clear balancing of opposites: *black* versus *white*; *master* versus *man*, *yesterday* versus *tomorrow*. Also syntactic repetition is a linguistic trait Dickens employs to symbolize the dull, monotonous and homogeneous nature of the physical of a place, examples being, *'was'* is used 13 times and *'were'* five times in the text. The recurring use of the same syntactic structure reflects the aberrant aspects of the society in question; however, in the simplified text this syntactic recurrence is not valued. The stative verb *'was'* is repeated only six times and *'were'* twice, which makes the text lose its authorial cues and communicative features.

4.6 Conclusion

The sample texts in both <u>MNBE</u> and <u>ATC</u> have been analyzed according to the GSL two lists and the Academic Word List (AWL).The results have revealed that one of the characteristics of an effective simplification is that it communicates meaning. If it does not convey the same meaning as the original, it cannot be considered as a true effective simplification. Therefore if it is not faithful to the content and authorial cues of the original, it fails to achieve the communicative function of the original text. Some of the sample texts, which have been skilfully, simplified preserving the variety in word frequency distribution without prejudicing the content can be considered a useful preparation for students learning to read authentic messages.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

In this work we have presented and evaluated the stylistic features and pedagogical usefulness of simplified texts in secondary school first year English textbooks: <u>My New Book of English</u> and <u>At the Crossroads.</u> In particular, we have examined the distribution of word frequency and its variation according to General Service List (GSL) and Academic Word List (AWL) in the simplified text as compared to the original one. We have also tried to analyze the simplified text in terms of Swaffar's (1985) characteristics of authentic message. The collocations, repetitions, redundancies and discourse markers and topic have all been examined, noted and tabulated.

The RANGE analysis has revealed that the word frequency distribution in some simplified texts across the two corpora, <u>My New Book of English</u> and <u>At the Crossroads</u>, is nearly as varied as that in the original one. The preservation of essential stylistic features of an authentic English text in the simplified version has been shown in the areas of language and content. It is also found that patterns of use of structure, discourse markers, redundancy, and collocation are nearly similar in both the original text and simplified one. Therefore, well-written simplified texts can be considered a useful preparation for learners to read more advanced, or totally authentic English texts.

However, in some other simplified texts, the information given is less detailed than in the original version. The reduction in detail has somewhat altered the author's intent and the information given in the simplified text. Also the simplicity of the structure and vocabulary has made the simplified text appear flat, leaving a bland distortion of the authentic version. It has failed to give the learners the opportunity to play *"psycho–linguistic guessing games with unknown words"* (Swaffar, 1985: 18)

Our study has indicated that the reading passages in <u>MNBE</u> and <u>ATC</u> and the teaching of reading have not yet made much impact on comprehensibility and learning English. As a result, there is much room for improvement in how textbooks are written.

The problem is that simplification may in some cases make a text more difficult to read because the author's intent is distorted and because learners' beliefs about the

lexical difficulty of specific words often differ. Words that one individual judges as difficult may be judged as easy by another (Campbell, 1987).

As the use of authentic texts may advance learner's proficiency, teachers should try to adapt them in their lessons. Fully-realized graded texts also provide suitable conditions for guessing unknown words from context. This suggests that well-written simplified texts can be, for EFL learners, used as authentic and typical native English. As learners advance, they should be presented with a variety of authentic written material. This will enable them to learn exclusively through sell-discovery and may increase their motivation, because learners are not merely reading for the teacher or studying specific features of language, but also for pleasure and entertainment.

Many of the attempts to address this problem have been to suggest that texts need to be presented either in understandable authentic English or in a well-simplified version preserving the stylistic features and the author's intent of the original. Also effective reading strategies and techniques are needed to be used with the learners in the classroom. This will enhance their understanding of text material.

Our research in the area of text simplification in <u>MNBE</u> and <u>ATC</u> indicates that the Ministry of National Education does need to particularly consider the need for the inclusion of authentic texts   and the improvement of text simplification not only in content, but also in the organization and style of the text.

This work follows from the premise that analysing and evaluating the simplified text included in the Ministry-approved textbooks, <u>MNBE</u> and <u>ATC</u> is the best measure of an accurate and objective assessment of its pedagogical effectiveness in the classroom. However, the consideration of the data in the present work does not encompass an exhaustive treatment of all simplified texts in the two textbooks. Given that this review is necessarily restricted only to the secondary school first year textbooks, it should be seen as a preliminary inquiry into an analysis of the simplified text and its treatment in Ministry-approved EFL textbooks.

The analysis of such a corpus of simplified texts in the secondary school EFL textbooks can provide data which *"can allow attestable inferences to be drawn concerning the degree of artificiality or constructedness of such a language compared*

with the naturally occurring text" (Carter, 1987:182). Findings from such a future study could provide empirical evidence towards a consideration of informed changes in the Algerian EFL textbook development process for AME-approved EFL textbooks used in secondary school EFL instruction.

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ABSTRACT

The coursebook texts are usually used to practise the skill of reading. Simplified texts are mostly used for the practice of fluent reading with the pedagogical aims of building word recognition automaticity and examining the text to extract grammar, and other stylistic and linguistic features. However, as far as their pedagogical usefulness and applicability in second and foreign language teaching is concerned, it is worth examining whether these texts preserve the stylistic features of authenticity or not.

This study examines the stylistic features and quality of simplified texts in the secondary school first year textbooks: <u>My new book of English</u> (henceforth: MNBE) and <u>AT the Crossroads</u> (henceforth: ATC). Five passages from <u>MNBE</u> and three from <u>ATC</u> are compared with their original version. The comparison uses a computer program, RANGE (Nation & Heatley, 2003) to analyze the distribution and occurrence of high and low frequency words in the texts. Also, the authorial cues, structure, collocations, redundancies, discourse markers and topic have been considered and examined. This study also takes issue with the pedagogical effectiveness of simplified text for EFL learners.

The study reaches different conclusions. Some simplified texts do not preserve the essential stylistic features of authentic English texts in the areas of language and content. However, other texts which have been skilfully simplified have preserved the variety in words frequency distribution without prejudicing the content. This suggests that well- written simplified texts can be, for EFL learners, experienced as authentic English.

This work is composed of four chapters. The first chapter defines and describes the preliminaries concerning EFL instruction in Algerian Secondary Schools: the Ministry's guidelines and objectives. The second chapter is devoted to the theoretical debates raised in the present dissertation. It acknowledges the critical theories discussing the stylistic characteristics and pedagogical usefulness of text simplification in comparison with those of authentic messages. Chapter three delineates the materials, methods, concepts used in this work, and outlines parameters adopted for computer lexical listing occurring in both simplified texts and their original version. The fourth

chapter presents and examines findings which compare the treatment of variation in word frequency distribution and Swaffar's stylistic features of authentic text in the simplified texts and their original version.

Text 1(Simplified): MNBE, page 42

A TUNNEL UNDER THE SEA

Spain and Morocco are going to build a tunnel under the straits of Gibraltar. The tunnel will join Tarifa in Spain and Tangiers in Morocco. It will help travellers reach their destination very quickly. Travellers will go from one continent to the other in half an hour instead of the two hours the trip lasts now. Originally, the Spanish wanted to build a bridge, a very long bridge, but the cost was too high, eight times more than a tunnel. Besides, it could be dangerous for the ships sailing there. Work will probably start in 1997. It should be completed by 2010. It will cost approximately 8 billion dollars. Most of the money will be given by the European Union.

Text 1(Original): MNBE, page 42

A TUNNEL UNDER THE SEA

Spain and Morocco announced the construction of a tunnel under the straits of Gibraltar. It will join Tarifa and Tangiers. It will be useful. People have to wait days under a temperature of 40 degrees in the summer. The Spanish wanted to build a bridge, but that would cost eight times more than a tunnel and might hamper sailing in the straits.

The tunnel should be 28 kilometres long and 100 metres below the sea-bed and approximately 450 metres below water level.

Work will start as early as 1997. The tunnel should be completed by the year 2010. The cost is estimated at 8 billion US dollars. Compared to Eurotunnel, which was technically more simple to build, the actual cost was 18 billion dollars, that is double the amount originally forecast. The journey should take half an hour rather than the two hours it now takes. Most of the money should come from the European Union.

Text 2: (Simplified), MNBE, page 66

THE TELEPHONE CALL

(Adapted from A Writer's Notebook by W.S. Maugham)

We were spending the night in a hotel in a small town in Texas. A lot of people driving across the continent usually stop at this hotel. Everyone went to bed early. At ten o'clock a woman in one of the rooms was making a phone call to Washington. As the hotel was made of wood, everybody could hear clearly every word that the woman said. She wanted to speak to a Major Tompkins but she didn't know his number. She told the operator that he was in the War Department. The operator told her that she couldn't get any Major Tompkins in Washington. The woman was furious. It was very important, a matter of life and death she said. She kept trying again and again every 15 minutes. She got more and more furious. She insulted the local operator and the Washington operator. She made more and more noise. Nobody could sleep. Furious guests banged on her door asking her to stop so that they could sleep. But she kept phoning and screaming and shouting that she just *had* to speak to speak to Major Tompkins.

Finally at 4 o'clock in the morning, the operator got the Major Tompkins. The woman told her, " Tell- Major –Tompkins –that – I – don't – want – to – talk – to – him."

Text 2: (Original): MNBE, page 67

THE TELEPHONE CALL

We were spending the night in a small town in Texas. It was a convenient stopping place for people driving across the continent, and the hotel was full. Everyone went to bed early. At ten o'clock, a woman in one of the rooms put in a call to Washington, and in the frame house, you could hear plainly every word she said. She wanted a Major Tompkins, but she didn't know his number; she told the operator that he was in the war Department. Presently, she got on to Washington, and when the operator told her she couldn't trace him, flew into a temper and said that everyone in Washington know Major Tompkins. It was very important, she said, and she had to speak to him. She was cut off and a few minutes later, she tried again. She tried every quarter of an hour. She abused the local operator. She abused the Washington operator. She made more and more noise. Nobody could sleep. Indignant guests rang down to the office, and the night manager came up and tried to get her to be quiet. When he left her, she started once more to ring the exchange. She rang and rang. She shouted. Furious men in their dressing-gowns, dishevelled women in wrappers, went into the passage and banged on her door telling her to stop making so much noise, so that they could sleep. She went on telephoning. She screamed that she must get Major Tompkins; it was a matter of life and death. At last she got him. It was four in the morning and no one in the hotel had shut an eye. "Have you got Major Tompkins?" she asked the operator. "You're quite sure you've got him? Is he on the line?" then, with concentrated fury, spacing out her words to make them more emphatic: "Tell – Major – Tompkins – that – I - don't – want – to –speak – to - him".

With that she banged the receiver down.

W. S. MAUCHAM, <u>A Writer's Notebook</u>

Text 3 :(Simplified), MNBE, page.70

CAMPING OUT IN RAINY WEATHER

Most people find camping a pleasant activity, especially young people who do not have much money to spend on hotels. And camping is great as long as the weather is fine. But if it starts to rain, then you are in for problems. It is not pleasant at all. You are completely wet and all your things are damp. It takes ages before you can find a place which is not too bad and you and your friends try to fix the tent, while rain is still pouring. After getting the tent up somehow, you want to make a wood fire to prepare something to eat. Everything is wet and making a wood fire is impossible. Thank god you have brought your grand-mother's old methylated spirit stove and all of you gather around it. But unfortunately, because of all that rain, all your food looks like soup. You are exhausted, and you manage to sleep somehow, cold and hungry. In the morning you find it impossible to speak, you have lost your voices because of the severe colds you caught during the night

Text 3: (Original): MNBE, page. 70

CAMPING IN A RAINY WEATHER

Camping out in rainy weather is not pleasant. It is evening, you are wet through, and there is a good two inches of water in the boat and all things are damp. You find a place on the bank that is not quite so puddly as other places you have seen, and you land and lug out the tent, and two of you proceed to fix it.

The rain's pouring steadily all the time. It is difficult enough to fix a tent in dry weather; in wet, the task is herculean. Instead of helping you, it seems that the other man is simply playing the fool. Just as you get your side beautifully fixed, he gives a hoist from his other end and spoils it all. At last somehow or other, the tent does get up and you land the things. It is hopeless attempting to make a wood fire so you light the methylated spirit stove, and crowd round that.

Rainwater is the chief article of diet and supper. The bread is two-thirds rainwater, the beefsteak-pie is exceedingly rich in it, and the jam and the butter and the salt, and the coffee have all combined with it to make soup. After supper you find your tobacco is damp and you cannot smoke. And in the morning you are all three speechless, owing to have caught severe colds in the night.

Jerome K. Jerome, <u>Three Men in a Boat</u>

Text 5: (Simplified), MNBE, page. 80

RULES FOR TEACHERS 1872

In 1872 rules for teachers were very strict and they had very little free time for themselves, only one evening or two at the very most. They had many tasks to perform everyday such as filling lamps, cleaning chimneys, sharpening pencils. They could have one evening free or two to go to church or pay visits to their fiancés. Every teacher had to put some money aside for his or her old days not to be a charge for the society. Any teacher who smokes or drinks alcoholic beverages, or gambles is considered as being a bad person. The teacher's personal life is organized by his or her employers by contract. It was worse for women who had to remain single; if they married, they lost their jobs.

Text 5: (Original), MNBE, pp. 80-81

RULES FOR TEACHERS 1872

1. Teachers each day fill lamps, clean chimneys.

2. Each teacher will bring a bucket of water and a scuttle of coal for the day's session.

3. Make your pens carefully. You may whittle nibs to the individual taste of the pupils.

4. Men teachers may take one evening each week for courting purposes, or two evenings if they go to church regularly.

5. After ten hours in school, the teachers may spend the remaining time reading the bible or other good books.

6. Women teachers who marry or engage in unseemly conduct will be dismissed.

7. Every teacher should lay aside from each pay a goodly sum of his earnings for his benefit during his declining years so that he will not become a burden on society.

8. Any teacher who smokes, uses liquor in any form, frequents pools or public halls in any form, or gets shaved in a barber shop will give good reason to suspect his worth, integrity and honesty.

9. The teacher who performs his labor faithfully and without fault for five years will be given an increase of twenty-five cents per week in his pay, providing the Board of Education approves.

I wish to thank all of you for an excellent start to another school year. I would welcome your suggestions and look forward to sharing insights.

Text 4: (Simplified), MNBE, p.77

'I WANT TO DO A TON!'

Mr D., a man of 96 was caught by a radar trap doing 41 miles an hour in an area where speed was limited at 30 miles per hour (mph). This was his first offence in over 70 years driving. When he was stopped by the police, he refused to give his age. Later he wrote a letter to a newspaper complaining about the radar trap. He did not appear in court. He admitted his offence by letter. After the case, the judge said, "No evidence was given about his age and we did not feel compelled to inquire about it. " the policeman operating the radar trap said," "he did not look 96. I thought he was in mid-sixties." Mr D. said he was 96 and in good health. He was upset to be disqualified but he was ready to take any test.

He first drove a motorbike in 1902 – and had no problems for more than 70 years. He has no health problem and thinks that he's always been able to drive.

Text 4: (Original), MNBE, p.77

'I WANT TO DO A TON!'

Daily Mail, UK.

A motorist of 96 was fined £7 yesterday for speeding – his first offence for 70 years motoring.

His licence was endorsed but he was not ordered to take a driving test and his age was not mentioned in court.

Mr D__, a widower, was caught by a radar trap doing 41m. ph in a 30 m.ph area, while travelling near his home in folkestone, last November.

He refused to give his age to the police when stopped, but later wrote a letter to a newspaper, complaining about the radar trap. He said he was 96, and hoped to do "a ton" around Brand's Hatch on his hundredth birthday.

Mr D., a retired docks executive, did not appear in court yesterday. He admitted the offence by letter.

After the case, the chairman of the magistrates, Commander Richard Bristow, said, "I do not wish to comment on whether or not I knew of the defendant's advanced years. No evidence was given about his age and we did not feel compelled to inquire about it."

Police Constable William Holton, one of the men operating the radar trap, said afterwards, "He certainly didn't look anywhere near 96. I thought he was in his middle sixties.

Mr D. said, "Oh, I'm 96 all right, but I'm in good shape. I'd have been a bit upset if they'd disqualified me, but I've no doubt that I could pass any test they might have asked me to take.

I first drove in 1902__ a motorbike. More than seventy years of trouble free motoring   is not a bad record and I've got no reason to stop thinking that I'm one of the safest drives on the road.

"Mind you, I'm still a bit annoyed about being caught. On that particular stretch of road, 30 m ph is absurd.

"I take regular medical check-ups and my lungs and heart are first-class. I do not need glasses and my hearing could be better, but I've always been fit to drive.

Text 1: (Simplified) ATC page. 41

OKONKWO

(Adapted from **Things Fall Apart** by Chinua Achebe)

Okonkwo was well known throughout the nine villages. He was tall and huge. He had a very dark complexion, a wide nose and bushy eyebrows which gave him a fierce look. At the age of eighteen he won a wrestling match against Amalinze the Cat. Amalinze was the greatest wrestler of the time. He was called the Cat because his back never touched the earth. It is this man whom Okonkwo threw to the ground twenty years ago. His victory against Amalinze made him very famous in his village, Umuofia. In addition, Okonkwo was a very hard worker. During the planting season, he worked daily from cock-crow until the chickens went to roost. He became a wealthy farmer and one of the greatest men of his time.

Unoka was Okonkwo's father. He was a thin, handsome man with a gentle look. In his day, he was lazy and improvident and was incapable of bringing food to his wife and children who were always hungry. He spent most of his time playing on his flute. Unoka was never happy when people talked about war. In fact, he was a coward and preferred to talk about music.

Okonkwo was different from his father. He was a man who liked action, so he was the first to take up arms in defense of his village. His courage against the British invaders won him a place among the heroes of his tribe….

(Adapted from **Things Fall Apart**)

Text 1 : (Original), Chinua Achebe, Things Fall Apart, pp

OKONKWO

This passage opens things fall Apart, the first novel by the well-known African writer, Chinua Achebe. It introduces the main character, Okonkwo, and draws the distinction between this man's fame and success, and his father's poor and undistinguished life.

Okonkwo was well known throughout the nine villages and even beyond. His fame rested on solid personal achievements. As a young man of eighteen he had brought honour to his village by throwing Amalinze the Cat. Amalinze was the great wrestler who for seven years was unbeaten, from Umuofia to Mbaino. He was called the Cat because his back would never touch the earth. It was this man that Okonkwo threw in a fight which the men agreed was one of the fiercest since the founder of their town engaged a spirit of the wild for seven days and seven nights.

The drums beat and the flutes sang and the spectators held their breath. Amalinze was a wily craftsman, but Okonkwo was as slippery as fish in water. Every nerve and every muscle stood out on their arms, on their tasks and their thighs, and one almost heard them stretching to breaking point. In the end Okonkwo threw the Cat.

That was many years ago, twenty years or more, and during this time, Okonkwo's fame had grown like a bush-fire in the harmattan. He was tall and huge, and his bushy eyebrows and wide nose gave him a severe look. He breathed heavily, and it was said that, when he slept, his wives and children in their out houses could hear him breathe. When he walked, his heels hardly touched the ground and he seemed to walk on springs, as if he was going to pounce on somebody. And he did pounce on people quite often. He had a slight stammer and whenever he was angry and could not get his words out quickly enough, he would use his fists. He had no patience with unsuccessful men. He had no patience with his father.

Unoka, for that was his father's name, had died ten years ago. In his day he was lazy and improvident and was quite incapable of thinking about tomorrow. If any money came his way, and it seldom did, he immediately bought gourds of palm-wine, called round his neighbours and made merry. He always said that whenever he saw a dead man's mouth he saw the folly of not eating what one had in one's lifetime. Unoka

was, of course, a debtor, and he owed every neighbour some money, from a few cowries to quite substantial amounts.

He was tall but very thin and had a slight stoop. He wore a haggard and mournful look except when he was drinking or playing on his flute. He was very good on his flute, and his happiest moments were the two or three moons after the harvest when the village musicians brought down their instruments, hung above the fireplace. Unoka would play with them, his face beaming with blessedness and peace. Sometimes another village would ask Unoka's band and their dancing *egwugwu* to come and stay with them and teach them their tunes. They would go to such hosts for as long as three or four markets, making music and feasting. Unoka loved the good fare and the good fellowship, and he loved this season of the year, when the rains had stopped and the sun rose every morning with dazzling beauty.

Text 2: (Simplified) ATC: page 46

COKETOWN

(Adapted from **Hard Times** by Charles Dickens)

Coketown was a town of red brick. It was a town of unnatural red and black like the painted face of a savage. It was a town of machinery and tall chimneys, out of which interminable serpents of smoke trailed themselves for ever and ever, and never got uncoiled. It had a black canal in it, and a river which ran purple with ill-smelling dye. Vast piles of building full of windows trembled all day long because of the piston engines of the machines, which worked up and down monotonously like a melancholy elephant.

Coketown contained several large streets all very like one another, and many small streets still more like one another. The people who lived there were also like one another. They all went in and out at the same hours to work in the textile factories near their homes.

You saw nothing in Coketown but some rare facilities. The infirmary stood next to the town hall. The library was opposite the M'Choakumchild school. The bank was between the old church and the prison. All public inscriptions were written in black and white. So all the buildings looked like one another. There was neither a leisure center nor a public library where children could go.

(Adapted from charles Dickens' **Hard Times**)

Text 2: (Original), Charles Dickens, Hard Times, pp.19-20

COKETOWN

It was a town of red brick, as of brick that would have been red if the smoke and ashes had allowed it; but as matters stood it was a town of unnatural red and black like the painted face of a savage. It was a town of machinery and tall chimneys, out of which interminable serpents of smoke trailed themselves for ever and ever, and never got uncoiled. It had a black canal in it, and a river that ran purple with ill-smelling dye, and vast piles of building full of windows where there was a rattling and a trembling all day long, and where the piston of the steam-engine worked monotonously up and down like the head of an elephant in a state of melancholy madness. It contained several large streets all very like one another, and many small streets still more like one another, inhabited by people equally like one another, who all went in same pavements, to do the same work, and to whom every day was the same as yesterday and to-morrow, and every year the counterpart of the last and the next.

These attributes of Coketown were in the main inseparable from the work by which it was sustained; against them were the work to be set off, comforts of life which found their way all over the world, and elegancies of life which made, we will not ask how much of the fine lady, who could scarcely bear to hear the place mentioned. The rest of its feature was voluntary, and they were these.

You saw nothing in Coketown but what was severely workful. If the members of a religious persuasion built a chapel there __as the made it a pious warehouse of red brick, with sometimes (but this is only in highly ornamental examples) a bell in a birdcage on the top of it. The solitary exception was the New Church; a stuccoed edifice with a square steeple over the door, terminating in four short pinnacles like florid wooden legs. All the public inscriptions in the town were painted alike, in severe characters of black and white. The jail might have been the infirmary, the infirmary might have been the jail, the town-hall might have been either, or both, or anything else, for anything that appeared to the contrary in the graces of their construction. Fact, fact, fact, everywhere in the material aspect of the town; fact, fact, fact, everywhere in the immaterial. The M' Choakumchild school was all fact, and the school of design was all fact, and the relations between master and man were all fact, and everything was fact

between the lying-in hospital and the cemetery, and what you couldn't state in figures, or show to be purchasable in the cheapest market and saleable in the dearest, was not, and never should be, world without end, Amen.

Text 3: (Simplified) ATC, page 103

TELECOMMUNICATIONS

(Adapted from *Hutchinson Encyclopedia, 2001, p 1041*)

From **the time of primitive man**, humans have wanted to communicate through space. **Centuries ago**, men used drums to send and receive messages. In Ghana, for example, this means of communication is called 'talking drums'.

However, communication through drums and other means was not satisfactory over very long distances. Long-distance voice communication became possible only in 1876 when Alexander Graham Bell invented the telephone. Twenty-three years later, Italian inventor Guglielmo Marconi used Heinrich Hertz's discoveries about electromagnetic waves to invent another means of telecommunications. It was the 'wireless' telegraph, and it was the ancestor of the radio. It allowed communication between England and France in 1899.

There was still a problem with long-distance voice communication via micro-wave radio transmission. The transmissions followed a straight line from tower to tower. So the system was impracticable over the sea. In 1945, science fiction writer, Arthur C. Clarke, suggested a solution. He proposed a system of communications satellites in an orbit, 35,900 km above the equator. The satellites would circle the earth in exactly 24 hours.

Today, it is possible to communicate internationally by satellite. The latest satellites can carry over 100,000 simultaneous conversations. By the year 2050, electronic information technology will have transformed world business, schools and family life.

Adapted from *Hutchinson Encyclopedia, 2001, p 1041*

Text 3: (Original), *Hutchinson Encyclopedia, 2001, p 1041*

TELECOMMUNICATIONS

Telecommunications are communications over a distance, generally by electronic means. Long distance, voice communication was pioneered 1876 by Alexander Graham Bell when he invented the telephone. Today it is possible to communicate internationally by telephone cable or by satellite or microwave link, with over 100,000 simultaneous conversations and several television channels being carried by the latest satellites. The first mechanical telecommunications systems were a semaphore and heliograph (using flashes of sunlight), invented in the mid-19th century, but the forerunner of the present telecommunications age was the electric telegraph. The first practicable telegraph instrument was invented by William Cooke and Charles Wheatstone (1802-1875) in Britain 1837 and used by railway companies. In the USA, Samuel Morse invented a signalling code, which is still used, and a recording telegraph, first used commercially between England and France.

The drawback to long-distance voice communication via microwave radio transmission is that the transmissions follow a straight line from tower to tower, so that over the sea the system becomes impracticable. A solution was put forward 1945 by the science-fiction writer Arthur C Clarke, when he proposed a system of communications satellites in an orbit 35,900km/22,300mi above the equator, where they would circle the Earth in exactly 24 hours, and thus appear fixed in the sky. Such a system is now in operation internationally. The satellites are called geostationary satellites (syncoms) the first to be successfully launched, by Delta rocket from Cape Canaveral, was syncom 2 in July 1963.

Processing file: 'Tunnel' Simplified (MNBE)

Number of lines: 2
Number of words: 117

Reading: E:\wplace\RANGE32\BASEWRD1.txt
Reading: E:\wplace\RANGE32\BASEWRD2.txt
Reading: E:\wplace\RANGE32\BASEWRD3.txt

WORD LIST	TOKENS/%	TYPES/%	FAMILIES
one	96/82.05	60/77.92	55
two	5/ 4.27	5/ 6.49	5
three	1/ 0.85	1/ 1.30	1
not in the lists	15/12.82	11/14.29	?????
Total	117	77	61

Number of BASEWRD1.txt types: 4119 Number of BASEWRD1.txt families: 998
Number of BASEWRD2.txt types: 3708 Number of BASEWRD2.txt families: 988
Number of BASEWRD3.txt types: 3107 Number of BASEWRD3.txt families: 570

Table of Ranges: Types

   77   Words appear in 1 input files

Table of Ranges: Families

   61   Words appear in 1 input files

Types Found In Base List One

TYPE	RANGE	FREQ	F1
A	1	4	4
AN	1	1	1
AND	1	2	2
ARE	1	1	1
BE	1	3	3
BESIDES	1	1	1
BRIDGE	1	2	2
BUILD	1	2	2
BUT	1	1	1
BY	1	2	2
COMPLETED	1	1	1

COST	1	2	2
COULD	1	1	1
DANGEROUS	1	1	1
DOLLARS	1	1	1
EIGHT	1	1	1
FOR	1	1	1
FROM	1	1	1
GIVEN	1	1	1
GO	1	1	1
GOING	1	1	1
HALF	1	1	1
HELP	1	1	1
HIGH	1	1	1
HOUR	1	1	1
HOURS	1	1	1
IN	1	4	4
INSTEAD	1	1	1
IT	1	4	4
JOIN	1	1	1
LASTS	1	1	1
LONG	1	1	1
MONEY	1	1	1
MORE	1	1	1
MOST	1	1	1
NOW	1	1	1
OF	1	3	3
ONE	1	1	1
OTHER	1	1	1
REACH	1	1	1
SAILING	1	1	1
SHIPS	1	1	1
SHOULD	1	1	1
START	1	1	1
THAN	1	1	1
THE	1	10	10
THEIR	1	1	1
THERE	1	1	1
TIMES	1	1	1
TO	1	3	3
TOO	1	1	1
TRAVELLERS	1	2	2
TWO	1	1	1
UNDER	1	1	1
UNION	1	1	1
VERY	1	2	2
WANTED	1	1	1
WAS	1	1	1
WILL	1	6	6
WORK	1	1	1

Types Found In Base List Two

TYPE	RANGE	FREQ	F1
BILLION	1	1	1
ORIGINALLY	1	1	1
PROBABLY	1	1	1
QUICKLY	1	1	1
TRIP	1	1	1

Types Found In Base List Three

TYPE	RANGE	FREQ	F1
APPROXIMATELY	1	1	1

LIST OF FAMILY GROUPS

BASE ONE FAMILIES	RANGE	TYFREQ	FAFREQ	F1
A	1	4	5	5
AND	1	2	2	2
BE	1	3	5	5
BESIDE	1	0	1	1
BRIDGE	1	2	2	2
BUILD	1	2	2	2
BUT	1	1	1	1
BY	1	2	2	2
COMPLETE	1	0	1	1
COST	1	2	2	2
COULD	1	1	1	1
DANGER	1	0	1	1
DOLLAR	1	0	1	1
EIGHT	1	1	1	1
FOR	1	1	1	1
FROM	1	1	1	1
GIVE	1	0	1	1
GO	1	1	2	2
HALF	1	1	1	1
HELP	1	1	1	1
HIGH	1	1	1	1
HOUR	1	1	2	2
IN	1	4	4	4
INSTEAD	1	1	1	1
IT	1	4	4	4
JOIN	1	1	1	1
LAST	1	0	1	1
LONG	1	1	1	1
MONEY	1	1	1	1
MORE	1	1	1	1
MOST	1	1	1	1
NOW	1	1	1	1

OF	1	3	3	3
ONE	1	1	1	1
OTHER	1	1	1	1
REACH	1	1	1	1
SAIL	1	0	1	1
SHIP	1	0	1	1
SHOULD	1	1	1	1
START	1	1	1	1
THAN	1	1	1	1
THE	1	10	10	10
THERE	1	1	1	1
THEY	1	0	1	1
TIME	1	0	1	1
TO	1	3	3	3
TOO	1	1	1	1
TRAVEL	1	0	2	2
TWO	1	1	1	1
UNDER	1	1	1	1
UNION	1	1	1	1
VERY	1	2	2	2
WANT	1	0	1	1
WILL	1	6	6	6
WORK	1	1	1	1

BASE TWO FAMILIES	RANGE	TYFREQ	FAFREQ	F1
BILLION	1	1	1	1
ORIGIN	1	0	1	1
PROBABLE	1	0	1	1
QUICK	1	0	1	1
TRIP	1	1	1	1

BASE THREE FAMILIES	RANGE	TYFREQ	FAFREQ	F1
APPROXIMATE	1	0	1	1

Types Not Found In Any List

TYPE	RANGE	FREQ	F1
CONTINENT	1	1	1
DESTINATION	1	1	1
EUROPEAN	1	1	1
GIBRALTAR	1	1	1
MOROCCO	1	2	2
SPAIN	1	2	2
SPANISH	1	1	1
STRAITS	1	1	1
TANGIERS	1	1	1

TARIFA	1	1	1
TUNNEL	1	3	3

Processing file: 'Tunnel' Original (MNBE)

Number of lines: 6
Number of words: 148

Reading: E:\wplace\RANGE32\BASEWRD1.txt
Reading: E:\wplace\RANGE32\BASEWRD2.txt
Reading: E:\wplace\RANGE32\BASEWRD3.txt

Marking file: E:\wplace\tunnelorig.txt
   as E:\wplace\tunnelorig.mrk

WORD LIST	TOKENS/%	TYPES/%	FAMILIES
one	116/78.38	66/71.74	61
two	10/ 6.76	8/ 8.70	8
three	4/ 2.70	4/ 4.35	4
not in the lists	18/12.16	14/15.22	?????
Total	148	92	73

Number of BASEWRD1.txt types: 4119 Number of BASEWRD1.txt families: 998
Number of BASEWRD2.txt types: 3708 Number of BASEWRD2.txt families: 988
Number of BASEWRD3.txt types: 3107 Number of BASEWRD3.txt families: 570

Table of Ranges: Types

  92   Words appear in 1 input files

Table of Ranges: Families

  73   Words appear in 1 input files

Types Found In Base List One

TYPE	RANGE	FREQ	F1
A	1	4	4
ACTUAL	1	1	1
AMOUNT	1	1	1
AN	1	1	1
AND	1	5	5
AS	1	2	2
AT	1	1	1
BE	1	3	3

BELOW	1	2	2
BRIDGE	1	1	1
BUILD	1	2	2
BUT	1	1	1
BY	1	1	1
COME	1	1	1
COMPLETED	1	1	1
COST	1	3	3
DAYS	1	1	1
DEGREES	1	1	1
DOLLARS	1	2	2
EARLY	1	1	1
EIGHT	1	1	1
FROM	1	1	1
HALF	1	1	1
HAVE	1	1	1
HOUR	1	1	1
HOURS	1	1	1
IN	1	2	2
IS	1	2	2
IT	1	3	3
JOIN	1	1	1
LEVEL	1	1	1
LONG	1	1	1
MIGHT	1	1	1
MONEY	1	1	1
MORE	1	2	2
MOST	1	1	1
NOW	1	1	1
OF	1	4	4
PEOPLE	1	1	1
RATHER	1	1	1
SAILING	1	1	1
SHOULD	1	4	4
SIMPLE	1	1	1
START	1	1	1
SUMMER	1	1	1
TAKE	1	1	1
TAKES	1	1	1
THAN	1	2	2
THAT	1	2	2
THE	1	16	16
TIMES	1	1	1
TO	1	4	4
TWO	1	1	1
UNDER	1	2	2
UNION	1	1	1
US	1	1	1
USEFUL	1	1	1
WAIT	1	1	1

WANTED	1	1	1
WAS	1	2	2
WATER	1	1	1
WHICH	1	1	1
WILL	1	3	3
WORK	1	1	1
WOULD	1	1	1
YEAR	1	1	1

Types Found In Base List Two

TYPE	RANGE	FREQ	F1
BILLION	1	2	2
COMPARED	1	1	1
DOUBLE	1	1	1
JOURNEY	1	1	1
KILOMETRES	1	1	1
METRES	1	2	2
ORIGINALLY	1	1	1
TEMPERATURE	1	1	1

Types Found In Base List Three

TYPE	RANGE	FREQ	F1
APPROXIMATELY	1	1	1
CONSTRUCTION	1	1	1
ESTIMATED	1	1	1
TECHNICALLY	1	1	1

LIST OF FAMILY GROUPS

BASE ONE FAMILIES	RANGE	TYFREQ	FAFREQ	F1
A	1	4	5	5
ACTUAL	1	1	1	1
AMOUNT	1	1	1	1
AND	1	5	5	5
AS	1	2	2	2
AT	1	1	1	1
BE	1	3	7	7
BELOW	1	2	2	2
BRIDGE	1	1	1	1
BUILD	1	2	2	2
BUT	1	1	1	1
BY	1	1	1	1
COME	1	1	1	1
COMPLETE	1	0	1	1
COST	1	3	3	3
DAY	1	0	1	1
DEGREE	1	0	1	1

DOLLAR	1	0	2	2
EARLY	1	1	1	1
EIGHT	1	1	1	1
FROM	1	1	1	1
HALF	1	1	1	1
HAVE	1	1	1	1
HOUR	1	1	2	2
IN	1	2	2	2
IT	1	3	3	3
JOIN	1	1	1	1
LEVEL	1	1	1	1
LONG	1	1	1	1
MIGHT	1	1	1	1
MONEY	1	1	1	1
MORE	1	2	2	2
MOST	1	1	1	1
NOW	1	1	1	1
OF	1	4	4	4
PEOPLE	1	1	1	1
RATHER	1	1	1	1
SAIL	1	0	1	1
SHOULD	1	4	4	4
SIMPLE	1	1	1	1
START	1	1	1	1
SUMMER	1	1	1	1
TAKE	1	1	2	2
THAN	1	2	2	2
THE	1	16	16	16
THIS	1	0	2	2
TIME	1	0	1	1
TO	1	4	4	4
TWO	1	1	1	1
UNDER	1	2	2	2
UNION	1	1	1	1
USE	1	0	1	1
WAIT	1	1	1	1
WANT	1	0	1	1
WATER	1	1	1	1
WE	1	0	1	1
WHICH	1	1	1	1
WILL	1	3	3	3
WORK	1	1	1	1
WOULD	1	1	1	1
YEAR	1	1	1	1

BASE TWO FAMILIES	RANGE	TYFREQ	FAFREQ	F1
BILLION	1	2	2	2
COMPARE	1	0	1	1
DOUBLE	1	1	1	1
JOURNEY	1	1	1	1

KILOMETRE	1	0	1	1
METRE	1	0	2	2
ORIGIN	1	0	1	1
TEMPERATURE	1	1	1	1

BASE THREE FAMILIES	RANGE	TYFREQ	FAFREQ	F1
APPROXIMATE	1	0	1	1
CONSTRUCT	1	0	1	1
ESTIMATE	1	0	1	1
TECHNICAL	1	0	1	1

Types Not Found In Any List

TYPE	RANGE	FREQ	F1
ANNOUNCED	1	1	1
EUROPEAN	1	1	1
EUROTUNNEL	1	1	1
FORECAST	1	1	1
GIBRALTAR	1	1	1
HAMPER	1	1	1
MOROCCO	1	1	1
SEA-BED	1	1	1
SPAIN	1	1	1
SPANISH	1	1	1
STRAITS	1	2	2
TANGIERS	1	1	1
TARIFA	1	1	1
TUNNEL	1	4	4

LIST of ABBREVIATIONS

AME: Algerian Ministry of Education

ASCII: American Standard Code for Information Interchange

ATC: At the Crossroads (textbook, 2005)

AWL: Academic Word List (Coxhead, 2000)

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

DOS: Disk Operating System

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

Exe: Execute

GSL: General Service List (West, 1953)

MNBE: My New Book of English (textbook, 2001)

PC: Personal Computer

PBL: Project-Based Learning

ABSTRACT

Le texte du manuel scolaire est souvent utilisé pour permettre a l'apprenant d'exercer la capacité de lecture. Le texte simplifié est généralement utilisé pour apprendre la lecture et la langue. Cette lecture est motivée par des objectifs pédagogiques d'automaticité de reconnaissance de vocabulaire et d'étude de texte par l'extraction de structures grammaticales et autres aspects stylistiques et linguistiques du texte.

Cependant en ce qui concerne l'utilité et l'applicabilité pédagogiques du texte simplifié, c'est important de savoir si le texte préserve les caractéristiques textuelles de l'authenticité. A cette effet, cette étude examine les caractéristiques stylistiques et la qualité du texte simplifié dans les manuels de première année d'enseignement secondaire : <u>My New book of English</u> (dorénavant : <u>MNBE</u>) et <u>At the Crossroads</u> (dorénavant : ATC)

Cinq textes du <u>MNBE</u> et trois autres de <u>ATC</u> ont été choisis et puis comparus avec leurs versions originales. Pour la comparaison nous avons utilisé un logiciel informatique appelé RANGE (Nation et Heatley 2003) afin d'analyser la distribution et l'occurrence des mots de haute et basse fréquence dans le texte. Nous avons aussi considéré et examiné les caractéristiques stylistiques suivantes : Collocations, redondance, connecteurs et thème du texte. Cette étude a aussi abordé l'utilité et effectivité du texte simplifié pour les apprenants de l'anglais comme langue étrangère.

Dans cette recherche, nous avons parvenu à des conclusions différentes une partie des textes simplifiés n'ont pas préservé les caractéristiques stylistiques de la version authentique, dans les champs de langue et contenu. Cependant, quelques textes qui ont été habilement simplifiés ont montré une variété sans équivoque dans la distribution de la fréquence des mots sans porter préjudice au contenu du texte. Ceci suggère que le texte simplifié habilement écrit peut être, pour les apprenants, expérimenté comme un texte authentique.

Cette étude est constituée de quatre chapitres. Le premier chapitre définit et décrit les préliminaires concernant l'enseignement de la langue Anglaise dans le secondaire : les orientations et objectifs de l'enseignement de langue anglaise. Le deuxième chapitre est réservé au débat théorique soulevé dans la présente dissertation. Les théories discutent les caractéristiques stylistiques et l'effectivité pédagogique du texte simplifié par comparaison avec celles du texte authentique. Le troisième chapitre délinée le matériel, méthodes et concepts utilisés dans cette étude. Il délimite aussi les paramètres adoptés pour le listing informatique du lexique inclus dans le texte simplifié et la version originale. Le quatrième chapitre présente et examine les résultats qui compare le traitement de la variation de distribution de la fréquence des mots, et les caractéristiques stylistiques du message authentique de J.Swaffar dans le texte simplifié et sa version originale.

Mots clefs :

Texte authentique, texte simplifié, collocation, contenu/sujet, mots de haute / basse fréquence, efficacité pédagogique, redondance, variation lexicale.

(simplified text)

At the Crossroads   **My New Book of English**

Range :

(Nation et Heatley, 2003)

,   ,   collocations:

Janet Swaffar

:

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