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LEXICAL SYLLABUS - A CRITICAL ANALYSIS

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To my dear family.

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ABSTRACT

This work aims first at classifying the lexical syllabus based on current ideas about syllabus design and a comparison between the lexical syllabus and both the structural and functional-notional syllabuses. Second, it aims at discussing the rationale behind the lexical syllabus taking into consideration what it is, how it was developed, as well as the conditions that made it possible, i.e., the role of the computational analysis of language, in this case, English. The next aim is to discuss the way the lexical syllabus, which was put forward by John Sinclair and Antoinette Renouf, was implemented in a series of coursebooks (Collins COBUILD English Course) designed by Dave and Jane Willis. Here, Dave Willis's own proposal, based on Sinclair and Renouf's ideas, is analysed. This is done in order to check to what extent theory and practice converge or not. As part of this analysis, the material from Willis's coursebook CCEC Level 1 is compared to the material from another coursebook, Blueprint One, which shares the same characteristics as CCEC Level 1, except for the fact that it is designed with a syllabus based on the coverage of structures, functions and vocabulary. The aim here is to spot similarities and differences between the two materials in terms of syllabus presentation and coverage. Our analysis led to the conclusion that the lexical syllabus differs from the structural and functional-notional syllabuses mainly in the way it treats language, i.e., the lexical syllabus stems from the idea that language can be treated from a point of view centred on vocabulary, whereas the two other syllabuses have as their starting point, on one hand structures and on the other notions and functions. Our analysis also showed that the lexical syllabus, as implemented by Willis, differs in some aspects from the ideas put forward by Sinclair and Renouf. This happens when Willis presents functions mainly through a task-based syllabus instead of a lexical syllabus. Besides that, some grammar points seem to be treated quite traditionally, i.e., they are not all presented lexically as one would expect. The real contributions of the lexical syllabus, according to our analysis, have to do with some new ways of treating grammar points and the emphasis given to authentic language which is used to carry out awareness-raising exercises, leading to a better description of the language. The conclusions reached through our analysis suggest that, in order to check the effectiveness of the lexical syllabus as a useful tool in language teaching and learning, further research should be carried out to evaluate learners' performance, comparing the results reached through both the lexical syllabus and another syllabus currently adopted in language teaching, which has not got vocabulary as its main focus.

RESUMO

Este trabalho tem por objetivo, primeiramente, classificar o currículo lexical baseando-se em idéias recentes sobre elaboração de currículos, bem como na comparação entre o currículo lexical e os currículos estrutural e funcional-nocional. Em segundo lugar, discutir os princípios sobre os quais o currículo lexical se baseia levando em consideração o que ele é, como foi desenvolvido, bem como as condições que o tornaram viável, isto é, o papel da análise computacional da língua, neste caso, o inglês. O próximo objetivo é discutir a maneira pela qual o currículo lexical, apresentado por John Sinclair e Antoinette Renouf, foi implementado na série de livros didáticos (Collins COBUILD English Course) produzida por Dave e Jane Willis. É neste momento que a própria proposta de Dave Willis, baseada nas idéias de Sinclair e Renouf, é analisada. O objetivo é verificar até que ponto a prática corresponde à teoria. Como parte desta análise, o livro didático de Willis, 'CCEC Level 1', é comparado ao material de outro livro didático, 'Blueprint One', que apresenta as mesmas características presentes no 'CCEC Level 1', exceto pelo fato de que foi produzido com um currículo baseado na cobertura de estruturas, funções-noções e vocabulário. O objetivo, aqui, é identificar semelhanças e diferenças entre os dois materiais em termos de apresentação e cobertura dos currículos. Nossa análise levou-nos à conclusão de que o currículo lexical difere dos currículos estrutural e funcional-nocional principalmente na forma de tratar a língua, isto é, o currículo lexical parte da idéia de que a língua pode ser tratada de um ponto de vista com ênfase no vocabulário, enquanto os outros dois tipos de currículos têm como ponto de partida estruturas e funções-noções. Nossa análise também demonstrou que o currículo lexical, da forma como foi implementado por Willis, difere em alguns aspectos das idéias de Sinclair e Renouf. Isso acontece quando Willis apresenta a maioria das funções através de um currículo baseado na execução de tarefas ao invés de fazer uso do currículo lexical. Além disso, alguns pontos gramaticais parecem receber um tratamento bastante tradicional, isto é, eles não são apresentados lexicalmente conforme o esperado. De acordo com a nossa análise, as verdadeiras contribuições feitas pelo currículo lexical se referem a algumas novas maneiras de tratamento de pontos gramaticais e a ênfase dada à linguagem autêntica que é usada em exercícios de conscientização que levam a uma melhor descrição da língua. As conclusões a que chegamos através de nossa análise sugerem que, para se avaliar a eficiência do currículo lexical como instrumento útil para o processo de ensino-aprendizagem, seria necessário proceder ainda a uma pesquisa para se avaliar o desempenho dos alunos, comparando os resultados alcançados tanto com o currículo lexical quanto com outro currículo utilizado atualmente em ensino de língua, cujo enfoque não se baseie somente no vocabulário.

1 INTRODUCTION AND METHODOLOGY

1.1 The context of this work

MEARA (1993:F15) states that '[n]ot so very long ago, it was very unfashionable for teachers to worry about vocabulary. It was generally believed that learners could get by with a basic vocabulary of about 2000 words [...] introduced slowly and cautiously. [...] This method had the advantage of leaving learners free to concentrate on what people thought was the *real* business of learning a language: grammar and sentence structure.' In fact, vocabulary was regarded as secondary until the 70's when its role in language teaching started to be questioned again and gained evidence. It was the time of the emergence of the notional syllabus and the attempt to rescue the communicative aspect of the language, neglected by the previous trends in language teaching. Still according to MEARA (F15), nowadays '[v]ocabulary is beginning to occupy a central place in the way people learn a language. Learning words and their meanings and how they are used is increasingly seen as the key to learning a language, not just an annoying or irrelevant side activity.' This new view resulted in different pieces of work and trends in the area of vocabulary. For instance, Ronald Carter (1988) and Michael McCarthy (1988, 1990) have different books and articles on both theory and practice in the area of vocabulary; I.S.P. Nation (1990) also showed his concern in the teaching and learning of vocabulary; James Nattinger and Jeanette DeCarrico (1992) emphasised the importance of 'lexical phrases' in language teaching and Michael Lewis (1993, 1996, 1997) came up with the idea of a lexical approach to language teaching. And, among them, we come across the

proposal by John Sinclair and Antoinette Renouf who put forward the idea that serves as the subject of this work: a lexical syllabus.

A lexical syllabus was made possible only after the advent of computational analysis. One of the main contributions of the statistical evidence provided by the use of computers is the possibility of identifying the most common words and patterns of usage in the language, in this case, English. One of the projects that carried out this work was the COBUILD (Collins-Birmingham University International Language Database) project developed at the University of Birmingham, England. Through the analysis of a vast corpus of real language, over 20 million words, both written and spoken, the most common words of the language were identified. But not only those, together with them, the most common patterns were also detected. The Editor-in-chief of the project was John Sinclair. He was the one to propose that the results of the COBUILD project could be used to build a syllabus based on the lexis of the language. And the *Collins COBUILD English Course (CCEC)* is the product of this attempt. It is a series of three coursebooks designed to cover the 2,500 most common words and patterns of English. According to DAVE WILLIS (1990:vi), one of the authors of CCEC, the first book covers 700 of the most common words in today's English, corresponding to around 70% of all English text. The second book is based on 1,500 words which account for around 76% of the language and the third one has a coverage of 2,500 of the most frequent words, which claim to cover around 80% of all English text. This was the first attempt to teach the language using a lexical syllabus and its analysis is the essence of the present work.

So, when MEARA (F15) states that the 'new attitudes [concerning vocabulary teaching] have yet to make a serious impact on textbooks and courses', we realise that this is already taking place. Willis's coursebook CCEC is a good example but it is not the only one.

In 1996, for instance, Mark Powell launched his coursebook *Business Matters* and in 1997 Ron Martinez published *Conversation lessons: the natural language of conversation*, both based on a lexical approach to language teaching.

So, the conclusion one reaches is that vocabulary, which was left to a second place, mainly during the structural period, has reached the point of becoming the core of language teaching. To us, this reason, on its own, seems enough to justify an analysis of the lexical syllabus.

1.2 The aims of this work

This work aims at:

a- analysing the lexical syllabus in the light of what is known about syllabus design and the other types of syllabuses that already exist;

b- analysing Sinclair and Renouf's proposal that generated the idea of a lexical syllabus and how it is implemented by Dave Willis in his coursebook Collins COBUILD English Course Level 1;

c- discussing Willis's own proposal in detail, comparing what is done in his material with what takes place in another coursebook designed with a syllabus which is not based solely on vocabulary.

It is by achieving the aims listed above that we intend to provide a critical analysis of the lexical syllabus.

1.3 The methodology

1- A bibliographical research is going to be conducted in order to discuss the different definitions of 'syllabus' together with the different syllabus types. Among these we intend to discuss in greater detail two of the most well-known and used types of syllabuses: the structural and notional syllabuses. This discussion is based mainly on David Nunan's ideas and it will serve as the basis for our discussion of the lexical syllabus. At this point we will try and classify the lexical syllabus. This will be done taking into consideration Nunan's ideas as well as comparing the lexical syllabus to both the structural and notional syllabuses. We will also discuss the lexical syllabus proposal in terms of covering both structures and functions as well as its methodology as put forward by John Sinclair and Antoinette Renouf and their idea of the product, i.e., how the lexical syllabus can be put into practice. Finally, we will carry out a comparison between the lexical syllabus and the lexical approach proposed by Michael Lewis.

2- A critical analysis of the lexical syllabus in the way it was implemented by Dave Willis will be carried out. This will involve a comparison between Willis's proposal and the real product which is his material, Collins COBUILD English Course (CCEC). For this purpose we decided to concentrate our analysis on Willis's coursebook CCEC Level 1. As part of the discussion about the lexical syllabus we will also analyse another coursebook - Blueprint One. Blueprint One was chosen because it fulfils the following pre-established criteria: as CCEC Level 1, it is based on British not American English; it is a series produced by well-known British authors, i.e., by native speakers of the language; it is world-widely used and recognised; it was designed, as the CCEC book itself, to teach beginner adults and it is a book designed in the parameters of a communicative approach to language teaching with a syllabus based on the

coverage of functions, structures and vocabulary instead of solely vocabulary. The aim here will be to spot differences and similarities in the way language is covered in the two coursebooks. In order to do so, data will be collected in the following way: all the language from Blueprint One and CCEC Level 1 will be compiled and stored in the software programme of concordance known as MicroConcord¹, constituting two different corpora: the Blueprint One corpus which includes the language students are exposed to through the use of this material, i.e., the language included in the Students' Book, Workbook and the tapescripts from the Teacher's Book totalling around 61,269 words (information given by MicroConcord) and the CCEC Level 1 corpus which includes the language from the Student's Book 1, Practice Book 1 and the tapescripts and transcripts from the Teacher's Book (totalling around 76,552 words). It is our aim to find out if the 700 most common words of the language covered in CCEC Level 1 are present in a book which has as its rationale a distinct approach to language teaching and also to check if some of the most common meanings, patterns and uses covered by the lexical syllabus are already introduced in Blueprint One. And the MicroConcord programme enabled us to carry out this analysis as well as counting the number of occurrences of words, word forms, patterns, meanings and uses in both coursebooks. Through this analysis

¹ MicroConcord is 'a software [...] which makes it possible [...] to search large amounts of computer-readable text for words and combinations of words [...] for the purpose of studying their meaning and the ways in which they are used' (MURISON-BOWIE 1993:7). It lists the concordances of the word or words being searched. An example would be the concordance of the word 'alive' below. The first list shows the concordances of the word in the Blueprint One corpus and the second one shows the word concordances in the CCEC Level 1 corpus.

Concordances of the word 'alive' in Blueprint One

1 y? A: And are your grandparents alive? 9 Reading Read about Cher, a fa
2 m. L: And are your grandparents alive? A: Yes, they are. They're calle
3 ephew; niece; son; uncle; wife/ alive; big; dead; only. (an...child); s

Concordances of the word 'alive' in CCEC Level 1

1 3 age 14 ago 15 agree 16 air 17 alive 18 all 19 almost 20 alone 21 alo
2 o remember (654 so far) Africa; alive; always; America; as; autumn; be
3 hat a person or living thing is alive I've lived in the village all m
4 t that one second. Is he or she alive or dead? DL: Yes. BG: Then I put
5 Is it our teacher? 4- Is he/she alive or dead? 5- Do you like him or
6 or a woman? Then, is he or she alive or dead? And then, is he or she
7 happen to people when they are alive She has such a busy life that sh
8 birthday. 2- the state of being alive She risked her life to save mine
9 r, my father's brother is still alive... So I think there are quite a

we will be able to identify the characteristics that differentiate the lexical syllabus used in CCEC Level 1 from the syllabus used in Blueprint One.

1.4 The structure

This work is organised in five chapters. The present chapter sets the context of this work discussing its aims, methodology and structure. Chapter two discusses what a syllabus is and the different types of syllabuses. It is in this chapter that both the structural and notional syllabuses are discussed in greater detail. In chapter three the discussion is focused on the lexical syllabus. First, the role of vocabulary and how it has changed throughout the history of second language acquisition, together with the different trends in the area that took place up to our days are discussed. Next it discusses how the idea of a lexical syllabus first took place and how it developed according to Sinclair and Renouf's ideas. An attempt to classify the lexical syllabus is made based on Nunan's views of syllabus design, pointing out what differentiates it from the structural and notional syllabuses. It is also in this chapter that a discussion between the differences between the lexical syllabus and the lexical approach is carried out. In chapter four the way the lexical syllabus is put into practice by Dave and Jane Willis is discussed. The chapter covers Willis's proposal of how the lexical syllabus should be implemented and the way the syllabus is organised in the material designed by him, Collins Cobuild English Course (CCEC Level 1). It also covers the analysis of some data in order to find out what differentiates Willis's material from Blueprint One, a coursebook based on a syllabus other

than the lexical syllabus. Finally, chapter five presents a summary of the main conclusions reached about the lexical syllabus, including some suggestions for further research.

2 SYLLABUS DESIGN AND SYLLABUS TYPES

2.1 Introduction

This chapter is allotted to the discussion of what a 'syllabus' is. The aim is to try and reach a better understanding of this term in order to define the approach, concerning syllabus design, we want to adopt in this work. Within this topic different types of syllabuses are discussed, giving particular attention to two of the most well-known ones- the structural and notional syllabuses. These are analysed in more detail, as they are going to be used later on as paradigms for the analysis of the lexical syllabus.

2.2 Understanding what a 'syllabus' is

There is some controversy over the definition of 'syllabus'. NUNAN (1988:5) presents two different approaches to syllabus design: a narrow and more traditional one and a broad and more recent view. The narrow view sees syllabus and methodology as different things. In this sense *syllabus* is 'concerned essentially with the selection and grading of content [the 'what'], while *methodology* is concerned with the selection of learning tasks and activities [the 'how']'. RICHARDS and RODGERS (1986:21) state that 'traditionally the term *syllabus* has been used to refer to the form in which linguistic content is specified in a course or method.' In this way, a syllabus would serve the purpose of selecting and grading items of

language giving precise information on what is to be taught and what is to be learned by a particular group of learners in a particular situation.

On the other hand, within the broad view, it becomes difficult to establish a clear distinction between syllabus and methodology. NUNAN (1988:5) states that '[t]hose who adopt a broader view question this strict separation, arguing that with the advent of communicative language teaching the distinction between content and tasks is difficult to sustain.'

These two views generate, according to Nunan, two different types of syllabuses: the product and the process-oriented syllabuses. When analysing them, the first distinction NUNAN (1988:12) makes, is the one between the terms *process* and *product*: "what we mean when we refer to 'process' is a series of actions directed toward some end. The 'product' is the end itself. [...] A list of grammatical structures is a product. Classroom drilling undertaken by learners in order to learn the structures is a process. The interaction of two speakers as they communicate with each other is a process. A tape recording of their conversation is a product."

Syllabuses such as the structural (or grammatical) syllabus, the situational syllabus and the notional (or functional-notional) syllabus are the result of a traditional view towards syllabus design. They are all product-oriented syllabuses. These are syllabuses 'in which the focus is on the knowledge and skills which learners should gain as a result of instruction' (NUNAN 1988:27). The main concern, in this case, is with 'the end products or results of the teaching/learning process' (40).

In terms of product-oriented syllabuses Nunan draws attention to the difference between *analytic* and *synthetic* syllabus planning. He bases himself on Wilkins, who was the

first author to draw this distinction. WILKINS (1976:2) says that 'a *synthetic* [emphasis added] language teaching strategy is one in which the different parts of language are taught separately and step-by-step, so that acquisition is a process of gradual accumulation of the parts until the whole structure of the language has been built up.' As a result, a syllabus which takes this approach into consideration would look like an inventory of grammatical structures and a limited list of lexical items.

Now, still according to WILKINS (1976:2), 'in *analytic* [emphasis added] approaches there is no attempt at this careful linguistic control of the learning environment. Components of language are not seen as building blocks which have to be progressively accumulated.' To WILKINS (13), *analytic* approaches are behavioural in the sense that they 'are organized in terms of the purposes for which people are learning language and the kinds of language performance that are necessary to meet those purposes.'

In the process-oriented syllabuses, however, the focus shifts from the 'outcomes of instruction, i.e., the knowledge and skills to be gained by the learner, to the processes through which knowledge and skills might be gained' (NUNAN 1988:40). The procedural and task-based syllabuses are considered as examples of process-oriented syllabuses. According to NUNAN (42), 'in both approaches [procedural and task-based], the syllabus consists, not of a list of items determined through some form of linguistic analysis, nor of a description of what learners will be able to do at the end of a course of study, but of the specification of the tasks and activities that learners will engage in class.' It is at this point, that the distinction between the terms 'syllabus' and 'methodology' seems to be no longer so transparent.

And when it comes to process-based methods RICHARDS and RODGERS (1986:21) add that: 'the term *syllabus* [...] is less frequently used in process-based methods, in

which considerations of language content are often secondary.’ They give the example of the Counseling-Learning where, in order to have access to a syllabus, it is necessary to record the lessons because the content is chosen by the learners by the time of the classes. This is what Richards and Rodgers classify as an ‘a posteriori’ approach to syllabus specification.

Within this overall view about different classifications and approaches to syllabus design it seems important to keep in mind NUNAN’s statement when he says that ‘it could be argued that any proposal failing to offer criteria for grading and sequencing can hardly claim to be a syllabus at all’ (1988:47).

Among the types of syllabuses presented above, two were chosen to be discussed in greater detail: the structural and the notional syllabuses. They are going to be used as a parameter of comparison when discussing the lexical syllabus. They were chosen for two reasons: first they represent two of the most well-known trends and approaches in the history of syllabus design and second because they are still widely and currently used.

2.3 The structural syllabus

Basically, a structural syllabus is a list of grammatical points, such as verb tenses and comparison of adjectives, that are graded and sequenced according to their degree of difficulty. It goes back to the mid forties with the linguist CHARLES FRIES (1945:9), one of the supporters of both structuralism and behaviourism, who, at the time, stated that

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

These are the ideas which reflect the rationale behind the structural syllabus in terms of theory of language. FRISBY (1957:134), one of the followers of Fries's ideas, adds that 'Word Order, Structural Words, the few inflexions of English, and Content words, will form the material of our teaching. We must teach the few inflexions required and the structural words as soon as possible, in order [...] to give our pupils the cement to bind the rest of the language - content words - round the scaffolding of word order.'

In RICHARDS and RODGERS (1986:49) we find a very comprehensive view of what language was believed to be in the 1950s. They say that

[l]anguage was viewed as a system of structurally related elements for the encoding of meaning, the elements being phonemes, morphemes, words, structures, and sentence types. The term *structural* referred to these characteristics: (a) Elements in a language were thought of as being linearly produced in a rule-governed (structured) way. (b) Language samples could be exhaustively described at any structural level of description (phonetic, phonemic, morphological, etc.). (c) Linguistic levels were thought of as systems within systems - that is, as being pyramidally structured; phonemic systems led to morphemic systems, and these in turn led to the higher-level systems of phrases, clauses, and sentences.

Learning a language, it was assumed, entails mastering the elements or building blocks of the language and learning the rules by which these elements are combined, from phoneme to morpheme to word to phrase to sentence.

NUNAN (1988:29) adds that '[t]he assumption behind most grammatical syllabuses seems to be that language consists of a finite set of rules which can be combined in various ways to make meaning.' This was the view of language that reflected linguists' concern in the fifties. The British linguist, KEITH JOHNSON (1982:8), states that 'if the students are to become proficient in the language, they must master the *mechanisms* by which the language works. They must learn the *language system*.' And this view was reinforced by what became the theory of language learning that supported the structural syllabus, *behaviourism*, which was the dominant school in American psychology earlier in this century. 'Behaviorists [such as Skinner] believed that only externally observable behavior was psychologically relevant for

study and that internal mechanisms responsible for that behavior could not be investigated scientifically. A basic unit of behavior for this school was the *habit* [emphasis added], which was the result of externally determined conditions' (BEEBE 1988:25). Linguists borrowed this concept and applied it to language learning believing that language itself consisted of externally conditioned habits. BROWN (1980:148) states that '[b]ehaviorism contributed to the notion that human behavior is the sum of its smallest parts and components, and therefore that language learning could be described as the acquisition of all of these discrete units.' In this sense, behaviourism and structuralism formed a match. As a result, learning a second language 'meant overcoming a habit formed when the first language was acquired and replacing it, or at least overcoming its influence, when learning the second language. The set of habits that made up the first language was seen as interfering with the acquisition of a new set' (BEEBE 1988:25). As FRIES (1945:5) points out, '[i]n learning *English* [emphasis added] one must attempt to imitate exactly the forms, the structures, and the mode of utterance of the native speakers of the particular kind of English he wishes to learn.' And, in this sense, '[t]he *contrastive analysis hypothesis* [emphasis added] was important to this view of language learning, since if trouble spots in the target language could be anticipated, errors might be prevented or at least held to a minimum. In this way, the formation of bad habits could be avoided' (LARSEN-FREEMAN and LONG 1991:55).

NUNAN (1988:29), when talking about the structural syllabus in terms of theory of language learning, adds that '[i]t is further assumed that these rules [referring back to the definition of language above] can be learned one by one, in an additive fashion, each item being mastered on its own before being incorporated into the learner's pre-existing stock of knowledge.'

One of the grammatical syllabus characteristics that WILKINS (1976:8-9) highlights and at the same time criticises is 'that what has to be learned is identified as a form and rarely as a set of meanings. [...] It is very rare for grammatical meanings to be specified. The assumption seems to be that *form and meaning are in a one-to-one relation*, [...] In practice, language is not like that.' To CROMBIE (1985:10), to say that a structural syllabus can be described, in general terms, 'as an inventory of labelled items and units to which learners are to be progressively introduced, the units being labelled and grouped largely in terms of their formal properties and ordered and graded according to a number of linguistic and pedagogic criteria', is an oversimplification. She argues that this can be true, contrary to Wilkins's criticism, of some structural syllabuses but not of all of them. She goes on to say that 'structural syllabuses are often cyclic: the same construction may be introduced several times at different places in the syllabuses, each time associated with the realization of a specific, structure-related meaning'(11). In any case, structural syllabuses have been regarded as typically synthetic. Language is broken down into 'an inventory of grammatical structures and into a limited list of lexical items' (WILKINS 1976:2).

2.4 The notional syllabus

The notional syllabus emerged in the seventies as a reaction to the structural syllabus. It intended to replace it and it based its tenets on different changes occurring at the time.

It was a time when linguists started to question previous beliefs more emphatically. The studies carried out up to then of how a child learns the grammatical and phonological

systems seemed not enough. Results of studies done on children learning their first language showed that their production of the language was creative and unique. This meant that language could not be considered simply as the result of habit formation, the child proved to be able to create utterances she had not been exposed to before. But that was not all. At the same time there was an urge to find out how a child learned to communicate as well. And, in that sense, it became clear that communication involved more than simply being able to form grammatically correct sentences.

The changes were felt in different fronts: in the United States with sociolinguists such as DELL HYMES, JOHN GUMPERZ and WILLIAM LABOV and in Britain with linguists such as JOHN FIRTH (with his studies that go back to 1957), followed by MICHAEL HALLIDAY, HENRY WIDDOWSON, DAVID WILKINS, CHRISTOPHER BRUMFIT, KEITH JOHNSON and philosophers such as JOHN AUSTIN and JOHN SEARLE, among others.

And it was the effects caused by this new view, which considered language as something else than the production of grammatically correct sentences, that led to a new approach to language teaching. This approach, according to BRUMFIT and FINOCCHIARO (1983:10), 'arose primarily out of work commissioned by the Council of Europe, a body which was founded in 1949' and which, according to JOHNSON (1982:34), '[i]n 1971 [...] convened a team of experts whose brief it was to consider the feasibility of developing a language teaching system suitable for teaching all the languages used in the Council's member countries.' JOHNSON (34) goes on to say that '[o]ne member of that team, **D. A. Wilkins**, had the particular task of developing a system of categories by means of which it would be possible to specify the communicative needs of the adult learner working within a European

context.’ In fact, Wilkins developed two types of categories: the ‘category of communicative function’ and the ‘semantico-grammatical’ category which are both described in his article entitled ‘The linguistic and situational content of the common core in a unit/credit system’ of 1973. JOHNSON (1982:38) distinguishes between the two categories saying that “[t]he semantico-grammatical categories [later known by the term *notion*] provide a means of ‘itemising signification’ [concepts such as time, frequency, quantity], while functions are ‘items of use’ [such as requests, denials, offers].”

JAN VAN EK (1975:9) was another linguist who presented his study in the Council of Europe in 1975. In it he defines

a model for the definition of language-learning objectives [based on the new trend, where he] specifies the following components:

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

This was, according to JOHNSON (1982:40), an attempt to identify the particularly useful notions and functions “by looking closely at the ‘language needs’ of groups of learners.”

Pieces of work such as the ones by WILKINS and JAN VAN EK, among others, were responsible for the shift of focus in language teaching and to WILKINS (In: BRUMFIT and JOHNSON 1979:90) ‘the value of the notional approach is that it forces one to consider the communicative value of everything that is taught. Items are not taught just because they are there.’

Among the reasons that led to the development of a notional syllabus, one has to do with the assumption that 'language was much more appropriately classified in terms of what people wanted to *do* with the language (functions) or in terms of what *meanings* people wanted to convey (notions) than in terms of the grammatical items as in traditional language teaching models' (BRUMFIT and FINOCCHIARO 1983:12).

Concerning functions, the British linguist MICHAEL HALLIDAY (1975:18) suggests a set 'which would serve for the interpretation of the language of a very young child [learning his first language]; that is, as an initial hypothesis for some kind of functional or socio-linguistic approach to early language development.' He summarises these functions as follows:

Instrumental	'I want'
Regulatory	'do as I tell you'
Interactional	'me and you'
Personal	'here I come'
Heuristic	'tell me why'
Imaginative	'let's pretend'
Informative	'I've got something to tell you'

(HALLIDAY 1975:37)

In other words, the *instrumental* function

is the function that language serves of satisfying the child's material needs [...]; [t]he *regulatory* function is [...] the function of language as controlling the behaviour of others [...]; [t]he *interactional* function [...] is language used by the child to interact with those around him [...]; the *personal* function is language used to express the child's own uniqueness; [...] then the child can turn towards the exploration of the environment; this is the *heuristic* function of language [...; next] we have the *imaginative* function, which is the function of language whereby the child creates an environment of his own. [... Finally,] is the one that we can call the *informative* function of language [...]. The idea that language can be used as a means of communicating information to someone who does not already possess that information. (HALLIDAY 1975:19-21)

And it is HALLIDAY (8) as well who defines language as a 'semantic potential' - '[a] child who is learning his first language is learning how to mean; in this perspective, the linguistic system is to be seen as a *semantic potential* [emphasis added]. It is a range of possible meanings; together with the means whereby these meanings are realized, or

expressed.’ So, in terms of theory of language, language is seen as ‘a vehicle for the expression of functional meaning. [...] This theory emphasises the semantic and communicative dimension rather than merely the grammatical characteristics of language’ (RICHARDS and RODGERS 1986:17). Language is seen as communication. And the American linguist DOUGLAS BROWN (1980:193) states that ‘[c]ommunication may be regarded as a combination of *acts*, a series of elements with purpose and intent. Communication is not merely an event, something that happens; it is functional, purposive, and designed to bring about some *effect* - some change, however subtle or unobservable - on the environment of hearers and speakers.’

The notional syllabus rescues the communicative aspect within language. One of its aims is to develop what Hymes refers to as ‘communicative competence’. And to HYMES (In: BRUMFIT and JOHNSON 1979:19) ‘[c]ompetence is dependent upon both (tacit) *knowledge* [Chomsky’s *linguistic* competence] and (ability for) *use*.’ He goes on to say that:

[i]f an adequate theory of language users and language use is to be developed, it seems that judgements must be recognized to be in fact not of two kinds [of *grammaticality*, with respect to competence, and of *acceptability*, with respect to performance] but of four. And if linguistic theory is to be integrated with theory of communication and culture, this fourfold distinction must be stated in a sufficiently generalized way. I would suggest, then, that for language and for other forms of communication (culture), four questions arise:

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

[To exemplify his ideas, HYMES gives the following example:] [A] linguistic illustration: a sentence may be grammatical, awkward, tactful and rare’ (18-19).

In fact, a more comprehensive view of language is adopted. Language starts to be considered as a whole resulting in a shift of focus, which was very important for language teaching.

When it comes to a theory of language learning, HALLIDAY (1975:9) states that 'learning of language is essentially the learning of a semantic system.' In other words, '[l]earning one's mother tongue is learning the uses of language, and the meanings, or rather the meaning potential, associated with them. The structures, the words and the sounds are the realization of this meaning potential. Learning language is learning how to mean' (HALLIDAY 1973:24).

NUNAN (1988:30) states that 'evidence from second language acquisition research suggests that learning does not occur in this simple additive fashion [the way suggested by the structural view].' But, according to RICHARDS and RODGERS (1986:72),

little has been written about learning theory [..., although some] [e]lements of an underlying learning theory can be discerned. [These are] the communication principle: Activities that involve real communication promote learning. A second element is the task principle: Activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks promote learning (Johnson 1982). A third element is the meaningfulness principle: Language that is meaningful to the learner supports the learning process. Learning activities are consequently selected according to how well they engage the learner in meaningful and authentic language use (rather than merely mechanical practice of language patterns).

The theory of language learning in the case of the notional syllabus, is not as clearly stated as in the structural syllabus, but the underlying elements that can be identified represent an important new view which contradicts previous beliefs and offers new ways of dealing with language learning.

WIDDOWSON (1979:248), in turn, criticises the structural and notional syllabuses saying that '[b]oth types of syllabus recognize that the learner's goal should be the ability to communicate. They differ in the assumption of what needs to be actually taught for this ability to be acquired. In both cases there is a gap between what is taught and what is learnt, both leave something for the learner to find out for himself. They differ again in their awareness of

this fact.' In other words, although both types of syllabus aim at the same goal, which is to teach learners how to communicate, none of them fulfils it. In fact, they end up doing more or less the same thing. The difference seems to lie on the fact that an inventory of linguistic items was replaced by an inventory of functions and notions. Even though WIDDOWSON makes this criticism, he recognises that 'what the work on notional syllabuses has done,[...] is to sharpen our perception of what is required of a syllabus if it is to develop communicative competence in learners' (1979:249). And he goes on to say that the notional syllabuses 'are the first serious consideration on what is involved in incorporating communicative properties in a syllabus' (250). Still according to his views, it would have been better if the notional syllabus had been seen as 'a means of developing the structural syllabus rather than replacing it' (250). In this way, instead of representing a clash of thoughts, both syllabuses could be seen as complementing one another.

3 THE LEXICAL SYLLABUS

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, we will first go through some background concerning the role played by vocabulary throughout the history of second language acquisition, taking into consideration the way it was handled at different times according to the different schools of thoughts and interests leading to the advent of the lexical syllabus. Next, the lexical syllabus and the rationale behind it are discussed in detail, considering how the idea of a lexical syllabus first took place and how it developed according to Sinclair and Renouf's ideas. Within this topic an attempt is made to classify the lexical syllabus according to Nunan, pointing out the differences and similarities between the lexical syllabus and both the structural and notional syllabuses. Finally, the lexical syllabus put into practice is discussed, followed by a discussion on the differences between the lexical syllabus and the lexical approach.

3.2 Some background: the role of vocabulary in the history of second language acquisition

The interest on vocabulary goes back to 1690. CARTER and McCARTHY (1988:39) mention in their book *Vocabulary and language teaching* that at that time the philosopher John Locke believed that 'concrete words were best described by pictures rather than by

paraphrase or definition.’ They go on to say that in 1880 the Frenchman François Gouin attempted ‘a new system for the learning of vocabulary, that consisted of arranging words into sets corresponding to typical sequences of actions and processes’ (CARTER and McCARTHY 1988:39). After that, there were other attempts which aimed at defining a basic or core vocabulary. During the 30s the so called ‘vocabulary control movement’ took place. This was an effort to control vocabulary. Two developments in this area are worth mentioning according to CARTER and McCARTHY (1988:1): ‘the work on *Basic English* of C.K. Ogden and I.A. Richards; and the work on definition vocabulary which led to the production by Michael West of *A General Service List*.’ Ogden and Richards’s main aim was ‘to provide a basic minimum vocabulary for the learning of English’ (CARTER and McCARTHY 1988:2), which consisted of limiting the number of words to 850 (see appendix 1). NATION (1990:21) adds that ‘Basic English [...] was developed making coverage and ease of learning the main criteria.’ This characteristic was considered as one of the advantages of the list where ‘[e]ven though more complex ideas may have to be paraphrased, it is claimed that the words supplied will both serve to express complex ideas and be in themselves easy and fast to learn’ (CARTER and McCARTHY 1988:3). West’s list, on the other hand, ‘consists of 2,000 words with semantic and frequency information drawn from a corpus of two to five million words. It is claimed that knowing these words gives access to about 80 per cent of the words in any written text’ (CARTER and McCARTHY 1988:7). In fact,

[t]he list contains 2000 *headwords* [emphasis added]. It gives the frequency of the main headword plus the relative frequency of its meanings. [e.g.]

OWN 3244e

own, adj. (*showing possession*)

This is my own house; I don’t rent it

Use this pen. Thanks, I’d rather use my own

of your own Why do you use my pen? Haven’t you
got a pen (one) of your own (1.3%)

89%

[= *for myself*, Cooked my own dinner as the
servant was ill, 0.2%]

own, v. He owns a lot of land round here 9%
 [own that, own up to = confess, 1.5%]
 owner, n. 314e; ownership, n., 52e

(*GSL*, p. 347)

[Another characteristic of West's list is that,] [u]nlike most other frequency counts, the *GSL* includes forms under the same headword. So the entry for *own* includes *own*, *owns*, *owned*, *owning*, and includes *owner* and *ownership*.

(NATION 1990:22)

Still according to NATION (1990:24), '[t]ypically these word lists [such as Ogden and Richard's and West's] are used to make simplified reading material, to design controlled speaking and writing course, and to produce dictionaries.' As a result, 'West and others produced enormous quantities of simplified readers and other language learning texts using the *GSL* vocabulary' (23).

But, 'the period 1945-1970 was a limbo for vocabulary as an aspect of language teaching in its own right' (CARTER and McCARTHY 1988:41). During those years vocabulary played a secondary role in language teaching reaching the point of being even neglected in the classroom.

This is understandable if we think in terms of what was considered important mainly between the 40s and 60s. The structural approach dominated that period. Structuralism together with behaviourism were the paradigms at the time. The main focus was on grammar because there was the belief that "[a] person has 'learned' a foreign language when he has thus first, within a limited vocabulary mastered the sound system (that is, when he can understand the stream of speech and achieve an understandable production of it) and has, second, made the structural devices (that is, the basic arrangements of utterances) matters of automatic habit" (FRIES 1945:3). FRIES, one of the followers of both movements and the one who put forward the oral approach to language teaching, goes on to say that '[a]ccuracy of sound, of

rhythm, of intonation, of structural forms, and of arrangement, *within a limited range* [emphasis added] of expression, must come first and become automatic habit before the student is ready to devote his chief attention to expanding his vocabulary' (FRIES 1945:3). In this way, little room was left for the question of vocabulary.

Contrastive analysis also played an important role at the time because it was believed that the main difficulties in learning a new language were caused by the interference of L1 in the process. This belief reinforced the idea of habit formation which led to choices such as the use of 'cognates' which 'if introduced in the contexts of their frequent parallel uses, are easy forms for [...] students to remember and produce' (FRIES 1945:50-51). There was a psychological aspect which influenced the preference for a limited use of vocabulary as well. FRIES (54) states that '[t]horough control and the feeling of confidence in the use of a limited number of items makes for more progress than an uncertain acquaintance with a large number of words.'

SINCLAIR and RENOUF (In: CARTER and McCARTHY 1988:141) sum up the role of the dominant theory of language of that time when they say that 'language consists of a set of rules for the combination of words into well-formed and meaningful sentences [where] [a] small number of frequent words are used to indicate the structural frameworks and these have no independent content. The frameworks provide places for the selection of content words chosen from a large lexicon.' In this sense vocabulary was used only to exemplify and practise the syntactic structures of the language.

However, in the 1970s the role of vocabulary in language teaching is re-discussed. WILKINS (1972:111) was one of the firsts to propose, in 1972, a major role for vocabulary, stating that 'while without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing

can be conveyed.' He adds that, provided 'one knows the appropriate vocabulary, then some form of interchange of language is possible. Without the vocabulary it is impossible' (WILKINS 1972:111). The same view is expressed by KRASHEN and TERRELL (1983:155) who claims that '[i]ndeed, if our students know the morphology and the syntax of an utterance addressed to them, but do not know the meaning of key lexical items, they will be unable to participate in the communication.' This exemplifies the emerging concern about vocabulary.

It may be said that the new wave of graded/guided readers which were launched by publishers, such as Heinemann in 1977 and William Collins and Son in 1979, was a result of this new shift in language teaching in the sense that books were designed on the belief that, being able to identify the basic vocabulary of the language, it was possible to write books according to pre-established number of words. The main focus turned to be on vocabulary. For instance, the Longman Structural Readers were based, according to CARTER and McCARTHY (1988:7), in West's General Service List of 1953 showing how strong the influence of that type of work is.

JACK RICHARDS (1976) stated in 1985 that '[t]he teaching and learning of vocabulary has never aroused the same degree of interest within language teaching as have such issues as grammatical competence, contrastive analysis, reading, or writing, which have received considerable attention from scholars and teachers. The apparent neglect of vocabulary reflects the effects of trends in linguistic theory, since within linguistics this issue has only recently become a candidate for serious theorizing and model building.' So, he dedicated one chapter of his book to consider the role of vocabulary in the syllabus presenting the following assumptions, from which he drew some implications to be used as guidance in terms of syllabus design:

1. Native speakers of a language continue to expand their vocabulary in adulthood, whereas there is comparatively little development of syntax in adult life.
2. Knowing a word means knowing the degree of probability of encountering that word in speech or print. For many words we also "know" the sort of words most likely to be found associated with the words.
3. Knowing a word implies knowing the limitations imposed on the use of the word according to variations of function and situation.
4. Knowing a word means knowing the syntactic behaviour associated with that word.
5. Knowing a word entails knowledge of the underlying form of that word and the derivations that can be made from it.
6. Knowing a word entails knowledge of the network of associations between that word and other words in the language.
7. Knowing a word means knowing the semantic value of a word.
8. Knowing a word means knowing many of the different meanings associated with the word. (RICHARDS 1985:177-182)

In the years that followed Wilkins's proposal, different kinds of approaches to vocabulary acquisition and storage were developed. Among them we have the application of semantic fields and componential analysis widely used by RUDZKA et al. in their books *The words you need* (1981) and *More words you need* (1985); the use of word field diagrams and exercises exploiting synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms, superordinates, idioms, collocations and others which are included in books such as GAIRNS and REDMAN's *Working with words* (1986) and more recently McCARTHY's *Vocabulary* (1990) and the work developed by NATION in his book *Teaching and learning vocabulary* (1990), where he talks about vocabulary concerning the four different skills - listening, speaking, reading and writing, also covering learner strategies in the acquisition of vocabulary.

McCARTHY wrote in 1990 about the on going search for a basic vocabulary, stating that:

[t]he idea that there might be a core or basic vocabulary of words at the heart of any language is quite an appealing one to language educators, for if we could isolate that vocabulary then we could equip learners with a survival kit of core words that they could use in virtually any situation, whether spoken or written, formal or informal, or in any situation where an absolutely precise term, the *mot juste*, might be elusive and where a core word would do (1990:49).

Besides that, he mentioned the feeling teachers nourish about vocabulary saying that '[i]t is the experience of most language teachers that the single, biggest component of any language course is vocabulary. No matter how well the student learns grammar, no matter how successfully the sounds of L2 are mastered, without words to express a wide range of meanings, communication in an L2 just cannot happen in any meaningful way' (McCARTHY 1990:viii).

But, despite statements that highlight the importance of vocabulary such as the one above and the attempts mentioned (the advent of graded readers and the development of exercises designed to practise, revise and retain vocabulary), the approach to vocabulary teaching continued to lack systematisation in terms of exactly what to be selected and covered. Identification and selection of lexical items to be introduced in the teaching of the language was still done based mainly on intuition. Problems were detected in the different approaches which focused on vocabulary.

Lists of words developed earlier, such as Ogden and Richards's Basic English Word List and West's GSL, present the following shortcomings: in Ogden and Richards's case, among other things, a distinction must be made between learning 850 word forms and the meanings generated by 850 words which according to Nation's calculation could reach up to 12,425 (quoted in CARTER and McCARTHY 1988:3). And as far as West's list is concerned there is the problem pointed out by MEARA (1993:F15) in the introduction to the *Language activator dictionary*, which can be applied to such a list. He says that '[w]hat actually happens is that with a vocabulary of 2000 words, you can understand *everything* you see or hear a lot of the time, but other times you won't understand anything at all.' Despite the drawbacks, it is important to point out that West's list, for instance, is still used. NATION (1990:24) states

that 'West's (1935) description of his construction of the definition vocabulary is an excellent example of the thought, care, and effort that go into the making of such lists. Their main aim is to make the learning of English more manageable by providing a tried and principled basis for vocabulary selection.' This seems also to reveal the demand and the urge for vocabulary systematisation.

In the case of the graded readers, HATCH and BROWN (1995:409) show Bunker's attempt in her M.A. Thesis of 1988 where she decided to test guidelines given to authors to see 'which adjustments actually made materials easier for learners.' As a result, Bunker found out that

the following lexical characteristics contributed to the ease with which materials could be understood.

1. Use of common and familiar words.
2. Consistency in use of terms.
3. More than five repetitions of words.
4. Definitions of words in context.

(HATCH and BROWN 410-411)

However, as HATCH and BROWN (1995:411) go on to say, '[e]ven though these vocabulary adjustments made materials easier to understand, there is no proof that they make vocabulary easier to learn.'

In the 80s, however, there were other studies being carried out in the area of vocabulary. These involved the use of computers. For the first time it was possible to analyse large amounts of actual language in a very objective way, avoiding the need to rely only on observation or even intuition. The insights given by this kind of studies influenced some different approaches in vocabulary teaching. These approaches represent a real shift of focus when they put vocabulary in the centre of language teaching.

The work developed by JAMES NATTINGER and JEANETTE DeCARRICO in 1992 is one of the examples of this new trend in language teaching. Viewing language as prefabricated or formulaic speech, NATTINGER and DeCARRICO (1992:1) explored the role of 'lexical phrases' in the field of language learning. They describe lexical phrases as "'chunks' of language of varying length [...which] are multi-word lexical phenomena that exist somewhere between the traditional poles of lexicon and syntax." According to their beliefs

[i]t is our ability to use lexical phrases, in other words, that helps us speak with fluency. This prefabricated speech has both the advantage of more efficient retrieval and of permitting speakers (and hearers) to direct their attention to the larger structure of the discourse, rather than keeping it focused narrowly on individual words as they are produced. All this, of course, fits very neatly with results of computational and language acquisition research (32).

They go on to justify their claim, saying that '[c]urrent research in computational studies of texts and in language acquisition, converges in a way that reveals the lexical phrase as an ideal unit which can be exploited for language teaching' (1). The influence of computational analysis in NATTINGER and DeCARRICO's work is still clearer when they state that '[f]or our purposes, this research [developed by Hockey 1980; Sinclair 1987; Garside *et al.* 1987 in the area of computational analysis] lends considerable support to the significance and pervasiveness of lexical phrases in language use' (20).

In 1993, another approach in language learning emerged. It was the 'lexical approach' developed by MICHAEL LEWIS (1997:7) which, according to his own words, 'challenges this fundamental view of language [the standard view which divides language into grammar (structure) and vocabulary (words)]. Instead, the Lexical Approach argues that language consists of chunks which, when combined, produce continuous coherent text.' In this sense, he identifies four different basic types of chunks moving from single words to multi-word items

(collocations, fixed expressions and semi-fixed expressions) and proposes that these are the ones to be taught. According to his ideas

the Lexical Approach places communication of meaning at the heart of language and language learning. This leads to emphasis on the main carrier of meaning, vocabulary. The concept of a large vocabulary is extended from words to lexis, but the essential idea is that fluency is based on the acquisition of a large store of fixed and semi-fixed prefabricated items, which are available as the foundation for any linguistic novelty or creativity. Grammatical knowledge permits the creative re-combination of lexis in novel and imaginative ways, but it cannot begin to be useful in that role until the learner has a sufficiently large mental lexicon to which grammatical knowledge can be applied. (LEWIS 1997:15)

In MICHAEL LEWIS's work, the importance of the role of computational analysis can also be spotted when he states that '[t]he Cobuild project has contributed enormously to our knowledge of natural language use' (1993:45). He goes on to mention the Cobuild dictionaries and their contribution, saying that '[t]heir style is more descriptive, contains more information, and is, as far as I know, the only dictionary which acknowledges explicitly, within the defining style, the statistical nature of evidence' (LEWIS 1993:62). And it is 'the statistical nature of linguistic data' which, according to LEWIS (62), plays an important role 'both theoretically and for practical classroom activities.' In this sense, Lewis also profits from the results provided by the analysis of language through the use of computers.

On the whole, throughout the decades, these are different paths taken in the study of vocabulary. But, the focus of our concern is one specific trend that emerged as a direct result of the advances in computational analysis and in the area of lexical research. It goes back to the mid 80s with the development of the COBUILD (Collins-Birmingham University International Language Database) project. The main interest, at the time, was to analyse language in order to produce the new Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary, first published in 1987. But the results reached through the analysis of large corpora of language (around 20 million words) led JOHN SINCLAIR, Professor of Modern English Language at Birmingham and Editor-in-

chief of the project, to believe that the data should be used to build a lexical syllabus. The use of computers in the area of vocabulary turned out to play a decisive role because it brings a new perspective into language teaching and learning. It was possible to find out, through the utilisation of this new tool, how English is really used, evaluating actual instances and selecting the most typical in the language. 'The big difference has been the availability of data. The tradition of linguistics has been limited to what a single individual could remember and experience' (SINCLAIR 1991:151). So, as DAVE WILLIS (1990:v), the author who put into practice the lexical syllabus, points out, '[t]he verb *be* and its forms and most of its uses would obviously come high on any list as would prepositions of place. But other equally common forms such as the passive voice and patterns are often omitted altogether.' And that is understandable when we analyse what SINCLAIR and RENOUF (In: CARTER and McCARTHY 1988:151) highlight about what characterises the human being who, 'contrary to popular belief, is not well organized for isolating consciously what is central and typical in the language; anything unusual is sharply perceived, but the humdrum everyday events are appreciated subliminally.' This idea is reinforced by NATTINGER and DeCARRICO when they talk about the importance of empirical investigation to carry out further research on lexical phrases because of the difficulty that lies in relying on our own perception. They say that '[w]e are also used to thinking that people speak more like us than they really do, so we may have such preconceived notions of what things ought to be that we are blinded from seeing what is really there' (1992:175).

Besides selecting the most typical in the language, computational analysis also contributed to a better understanding of how the language works. In this sense, it reinforced the idea that language is organised in 'chunks' and that these 'chunks' represent a mixture of

word meaning and grammar. This makes the distinction between lexis and grammar less clear.

In fact, this new view triggered a shift to vocabulary as it was not seen before.

SINCLAIR (1991:137) points out that:

while grammars and dictionaries continue to report the structure of language as if it could be neatly divided, many of those who are professionally engaged in handling language have known in their bones that the division into grammar and vocabulary obscures a very central area of meaningful organization. In fact, it may well be argued [...] that when we have thoroughly pursued the patterns of co-occurrence of linguistic choices there will be little or no need for a separate residual grammar or lexicon.

The idea of the lexical syllabus was based on the strong evidence SINCLAIR (1991:108) detected when analysing language, as it is stated in his book *Corpus, concordance, collocation*. There he says that 'it is folly to decouple lexis and syntax, or either of those and semantics. [...] By far the majority of text is made of the occurrence of common words in common patterns, or in slight variants of those common patterns. Most everyday words do not have an independent meaning, or meanings, but are components of a rich repertoire of multi-word patterns that make up text.'

These ideas will be discussed in more detail in the next section of this work.

3.3 The lexical syllabus

The lexical syllabus is based on the results of the computational analysis of English, which was first carried out to compile data for the production of dictionaries. John Sinclair, Editor-in-chief of the project, suggested that the data collected could also be used for language teaching in the form of a lexical syllabus. Antoinette Renouf, who also took part in the project,

helped him develop the new type of syllabus. According to their views, now, with the data provided by computational analysis, it seemed feasible to put into practice what observation, experience and intuition had taught, that ‘for any learner of English, the main focus of study should be on: a) the commonest word forms in the language; b) their central patterns of usage; c) the combinations which they typically form’ (In: CARTER and McCARTHY 1988:148). The idea to concentrate learning on vocabulary is justified by SINCLAIR and RENOUF (1985) when they talk about grammar, saying that ‘if the analysis of the words and phrases has been done correctly, then all the relevant grammar, etc. should appear in a proper proportion. Verb tenses, for example, which are often the main organising feature of a course, are combinations of some of the commonest words in the language.’

But for SINCLAIR and RENOUF (1985) ‘[a] simple list of words is not nearly explicit enough to constitute a syllabus. In order to construct an adequate syllabus, it is necessary to decide, in addition to which words we want to include in our syllabus, such things as what it is about a word that we want to teach, and what counts as a word.’ Yet, the discussion around the definition of ‘word’ is long and controversial. According to their ideas, ‘[t]he conventional view is an inclusive one: that the term ‘word’ denotes a unit of language comprising a base form, such as *give*, and an ‘associated’ set of inflexions, such as *gives*, *giving*, *gave*, *given*. Sometimes derivations will be included, e.g. *gift*’ (In: CARTER and McCARTHY 1988:147). And they go on to say that this is the same concept used in computational linguistics “where all forms, including the base form, can be subsumed under the term ‘lemma’” (1985). SINCLAIR (1985:173-174) defines *lemmatization* as ‘the process of gathering word-forms and arranging them into lemmas or lemmata. So the word-forms *give*, *gives*, *gave*, *given*, *giving*, and

probably *to give*, will conventionally be lemmatized into the lemma *give*. Any occurrence of any of the six forms will be regarded as an occurrence of the lemma.'

The main implication behind this concept is that, in traditional lists of vocabulary, whenever you have the base form, it is implicit that all the other forms of that word are covered in the material. This is misleading because it does not necessarily happen. And often, 'particularly with the commoner words of the language, the individual word forms are so different from each other in their primary meanings and central patterns of behaviour (including the pragmatic and stylistic dimensions), that they are essentially different 'words', and really warrant separate treatment in a language course' (SINCLAIR and RENOUF in: CARTER and McCARTHY 1988:147). So, the lexical syllabus proposes a different kind of treatment to the 'words' of the language taking into account the peculiarities detected by the computational analysis in an attempt to 'break the traditional expectations that all forms of a word are equally important and that all will behave in the same way' (SINCLAIR and RENOUF:159).

Taking into consideration the fact that, for SINCLAIR and RENOUF (150), a syllabus is more than a word list, the lexical syllabus proposed by them ended up being built upon three different aspects: *word forms* which 'can be subsumed under their base form or full form in a teaching list', and that can be identified according to their frequency; *central patterns of usage* such as the ones provided by delexical verbs which are transitive verbs that 'carry particular nouns or adjectives which can in most cases themselves be transitive verbs [showing that] [i]n general, the more frequent a word is, the less independent meaning it has, because it is likely to be acting in conjunction with other words, making useful structures or contributing to familiar idiomatic phrases' (SINCLAIR and RENOUF in: CARTER and McCARTHY 1988:153); and upon *typical word combinations* such as lexical collocations. SINCLAIR and

RENOUF (In: CARTER and McCARTHY 1988:154) believe that '[i]n these ways, the essential patterns of distribution and combination in modern English will be included in the lexical syllabus.' But, when analysing the first attempt to define a lexical syllabus for beginners based on a list of around 700 words, one realises that *lower frequency items* and *'utility' words* are also included in the lexical syllabus. According to Renouf, the lower frequency items would account for some common lexical sets such as days of the week, months of the year, the seasons, the points of the compass and kinship terms which 'amounted to around 80 words' (RENOUF in: SINCLAIR 1987:170). And the 'utility words' were selected, still according to RENOUF (170), 'for their utility value in the writing of the Course materials. These [...] would serve to contextualise a very common word, or contribute to the treatment of a certain topic, or bring some interest value. They would also be teaching words, and receive analytical treatment.' They total around 150 words.

According to SINCLAIR and RENOUF (In: CARTER and McCARTHY 1988:151), the main aims are to both achieve a balance 'between natural usage and utility' and to highlight 'the common uses of the common words' (154). They go on to say that '[o]ther languages may be different, [but] English makes excessive use, e.g. through phrasal verbs, of its most frequent words, and so they are well worth learning' (155).

Another important issue SINCLAIR and RENOUF (155) discuss is the one that distinguishes syllabus from methodology. They put forward the lexical syllabus as 'an independent syllabus, unrelated by any principles to any methodology'. They state clearly that one cannot mistake a methodology for a syllabus. They try to rescue the relevance of the role of a syllabus in language teaching. They are in favour of a comprehensive syllabus which should specify '[t]he exact nature of the content, the sequence of events and the pattern of

coverage' (SINCLAIR and RENOUF:145). In this way, the lexical syllabus intends to provide coverage of structures, notions and functions through the analysis of words and phrases. To them '[i]n the construction of a balanced and comprehensive course, the designer will no doubt keep a tally of structures, notions and functions, as well as vocabulary. But in the presentation of materials based on a lexical syllabus, it is not strictly necessary to draw attention to these check lists. If the analysis of the words and phrases has been done correctly, then all the relevant grammar, etc. should appear in a proper proportion' (In: CARTER and McCARTHY 1988:155).

SINCLAIR and RENOUF (156) highlight the main advantages of a lexical syllabus stating that it is 'a much more detailed inventory of the possibilities of the language.' Besides that, '[o]ne big advantage of a lexical syllabus is that it only offers to the learner things worth learning. [...] So instead of building up phrases, the learner will be gradually breaking them down, sensing the variability' (155-156). Moreover, they state that '[t]he emphasis shifts from constructing messages to delivering them, and delivering them to maximum effect, and to achieving communicative goals' (156). And, '[i]n the lexical syllabus, such things as lists of structures and notions and functions would be secondary, and would come out of the implementation of the lexical syllabus rather than constrain it' (SINCLAIR and RENOUF:160).

It is in this sense that the lexical syllabus represents a meaningful and important change in the approach to syllabus design both in terms of content (when it concentrates on vocabulary) and of use (when it intends to cover what is really used in the language).

3.3.1 Classifying the lexical syllabus

We could classify the lexical syllabus, according to DAVID NUNAN's book *Syllabus Design*, as being product-oriented because 'content is stated in terms of the outcomes of instruction [, i.e., it focuses on] the things that learners should know or be able to do as a result of instruction' (1988:11), and analytic because '[i]n an analytic syllabus, learners are presented with chunks of language which may include structures of varying degrees of difficulty. The starting point [...] is not the grammatical system of the language, but the communicative purposes for which language is used' (NUNAN 1988:28). And that is what is assumed in the lexical syllabus. It specifies its purpose stating that language is used for communication and that in order to be able to communicate learners should be exposed and practise the most common patterns of the language. In this sense, the lexical and the notional syllabus have this characteristic in common; both are analytic whereas the structural syllabus tends to be synthetic because it consists basically of a list of grammatical items arranged in order of difficulty. These are taught separately and learners are supposed to put the parts together synthesising them.

The differences between the three syllabuses become apparent when we look closer at them and analyse them in terms both of theory of language and language learning.

In terms of theory of language, the contribution made by computational analysis, in our case the one provided by the COBUILD project, is evident. It has contributed for a better understanding of the description of language, the way it works and how it is used.

This understanding could be reached through the analysis of two different principles: the *open-choice principle* and the *idiom principle*. To SINCLAIR (1991:109) 'in order to

explain the way in which meaning arises from language text, we have to advance two different principles of interpretation. One is not enough. [...] The two principles are.'

The *idiom principle* results from a closer understanding of the language provided by the computational analysis. It derived from the evidence given by the analysis of the language that words combine, i.e., they do not occur at random in the text, instead they collocate forming chunks of language. The new available information provided a new way of seeing and describing language. According to SINCLAIR, the ordinary way of seeing and describing language is what he calls 'the open-choice principle', often called a 'slot-and-filler' model which envisages 'texts as a series of slots which have to be filled from a lexicon which satisfies local restraints [grammatical ones]. At each slot, virtually any word can occur. Since language is believed to operate simultaneously on several levels, there is a very complex pattern of choices in progress at any moment' (1991:109). He adds that 'we would not produce normal text simply by operating the open-choice principle' (110). The computational analysis showed the slots are not randomly filled. There are many other restraints that narrow the number of choices and are some times even restricted to one single choice. And in SINCLAIR's words, 'the *principle of idiom* [emphasis added] is put forward to account for the restraints that are not captured by the open-choice model. The principle of idiom is that a language user has available to him or her a large number of semi-preconstructed phrases that constitute single choices, even though they might appear to be analysable into segments' (1991:110). He justifies himself, saying that '[t]o some extent, the nature of the world around us is reflected in the organization of language and contributes to the unrandomness' (110). To SINCLAIR (173) '[o]ne of the main principles of the organization of language is that the choice of one word affects the choice of others in its vicinity. Collocation is one of the patterns of mutual

choice, and idiom is another.' He adds that '[t]here are sets of linguistic choices which come under the heading of register, and which can be seen as large-scale conditioning choices. Once a register choice is made, and these are normally social choices, then all the slot-by-slot choices are massively reduced in scope or even, in some cases, pre-empted' (1991:110). The results reached by computational analysis confirmed the fact that 'words combine, or collocate, with each other in certain characteristic ways. With the benefit of a corpus of real text, we can now be clearer about what these preferences are, and be more systematic in presenting them to the learner of English' (SINCLAIR and RENOUF in: CARTER and McCARTHY 1988:154).

The phrase *of course* exemplifies this concept. Although it can be analysable separately, it is retrieved as a single word. Some of the features of the idiom principle listed by SINCLAIR (1991:111-112) are as follows:

- a. Many phrases have an indeterminate extent [...][e.g. *set eyes on* which can attract different words to its combination];
- b. Many phrases allow internal lexical variation [...][e.g. *set x on fire* and *set fire on x*];
- c. Many phrases allow internal lexical syntactic variation [...] [e.g. *it's not in his nature to...* can suffer variations such as *it was not in her nature to...*];
- d. Many phrases allow some variation in word order [...][e.g. *it's not in his nature to...* can vary in the following way - *it is not in the nature of an academic to...*];
- e. Many uses of words and phrases attract other words in strong collocation [...][e.g. *hard word, hard luck*];
- f. Many uses of words and phrases show a tendency to co-occur with certain grammatical choices [...][e.g. *set about testing it*];
- g. Many uses of words and phrases show a tendency to occur in a certain semantic environment [...] [e.g. the verb *happen* is associated with unpleasant things].

While the lexical syllabus puts forward an important contribution in terms of theory of language, the same does not happen when it comes to theory of language learning. Concerning this aspect, it is interesting carry out an analysis in the light of the structural and notional syllabuses.

In the structural syllabus, language is seen as 'a finite set of rules which can be combined in various ways to make meaning' (NUNAN 1988:29) supported by the idea that in order to learn a language, the sets of rules of a language should be replaced by the set of rules of the target language, in a habit formation mode. Here, the theory of language learning is well defined and supported. The same does not happen in the notional syllabus, but some clear aspects can be pinpointed such as the fact that the idea of language as a set of rules was replaced by a broader view in which language was seen not just as a bunch of structures, but as a whole. As a result of this shift, learning the language emerged from the need to communicate. Learning would take place as a result of having learners involved in real communication, performing meaningful tasks.

In the case of the lexical syllabus one can notice that some of the elements which would build up a theory in terms of language learning, derive from the notional syllabus. WILLIS (1990:129) even points out that '[w]e were able to follow through the work of Wilkins and his colleagues in their attempt to specify a notional syllabus.' In the lexical syllabus there is also the intention to treat language as a whole and to emphasise the communicative aspect of the language, relying on the analysis and use of authentic language. But, as it happens with the notional syllabus, in the lexical syllabus the theory of language learning is not clearly defined.

DAVE WILLIS, the author that first designed a coursebook based on the concept of a lexical syllabus proposed by Sinclair and Renouf, states that '[t]here is general agreement nowadays that people learn a language best by actually using the language to achieve real outcomes' (1990:1). This shows that one of the aspects to be considered is that, in order to

learn the language, the learner should actually use it as a means to achieve his goal, which is to communicate.

Those who support the adoption of a lexical syllabus emphasise the importance of exposure to the language as a way of promoting learning. WILLIS (1990:iii-iv) states that, as a result from his own experience, '[i]t is sobering to realise just how little control the teacher has over what is being learned. The obvious conclusion to be drawn from this is that students learn a great deal directly from exposure to language through reading and listening, without the need for the teacher to impose a description of what is learnt.' And when it comes to the idea of exposing learners to the language, WILLIS (vii) has the following to say:

[i]n effect what we planned to do was create a learners' corpus and encourage learners to examine that corpus and generalise from it. [...] For level 1 of our course we intended to create a corpus which would contextualize the 700 most frequent words of English and their meanings and uses. We would then highlight those words with their meanings and uses to provide learners with valuable exposure and experience. We would then devise exercises to encourage learners to analyse that experience of language and to learn from it.

The idea of using a learners' corpus, which in Willis's case comprises the collection of texts and recordings included in his teaching material, came from the experience with the COBUILD corpus itself. According to WILLIS (131), '[t]he learner's corpus is a direct consequence of taking the COBUILD corpus as a starting point. It was this starting point which gave us the idea of enabling the learner to work with a corpus just as a lexicographer or grammarian works with a corpus. It was the computational techniques used in the COBUILD project which enabled us to exploit the learner's corpus in this way.'

AMOS PARAN (1993:364), in his review of Willis's book *The lexical syllabus: a new approach to language teaching*, lists a number of principles which 'seem to be relied upon' when analysing Willis's view of language learning:

[t]he first is the commitment to an analytic approach (Wilkins, 1976) which is meaning-based: learners encounter language in use, and it is up to them to examine it and analyse its components.

The second principle is the place of grammar. Although many of the arguments seem to be relying on Krashen's controversial learning/acquisition dichotomy without explicitly acknowledging it, there is nevertheless an acknowledgement of the importance of focusing on structure through exercises highlighting grammar points by means of awareness-raising exercises. These exercises are in turn supported by the third principle, one of the clear innovations of the approach: the learner's corpus. Willis draws an analogy between the lexicographer, who arrives at a description of the language through close, repeated examination of a corpus, and the learner, who could also arrive at a working description of the language in the same way. Thus any point to be made about the language is always made through language the learners have already encountered, and often more than once. Learners thus always examine language which has meaning for them rather than decontextualized, sentence-level examples. The materials writer's task is to present learners with an appropriate corpus, and provide them with the opportunities for analysing it. The fourth principle follows logically: because of the limited amount of language learners are exposed to, and the distorted nature of scripted language, it is vital that learners be exposed to authentic language.

These would be, according to Paran, the elements which would promote learning in the lexical syllabus proposed by Willis. In this sense we identify some similarities between the lexical syllabus and the notional syllabus, as pointed out earlier, where there seems to be a commitment to an analytic meaning-based approach to language learning. The main idea is that learners learn through the analysis they carry out of the language they see in use. The other aspects that would contribute for the promotion of learning would be the analysis of grammar through awareness-raising exercises, the detailed analysis of the learner's corpus, which would present language in context, and the exposure to authentic language.

To sum up, as a result of our analysis, we may say that the lexical syllabus can be classified as both product-oriented and analytic. In terms of theory of language, the lexical syllabus puts forward the *idiom principle* (SINCLAIR 1991) which differs from the theories proposed both by the structural and the notional syllabuses in the sense that it contributes to a better understanding of how the language functions. And when it comes to a theory of language learning, some principles can be identified but there seems to be no clear rationale behind the lexical syllabus in terms of how language is learnt.

3.3.2 Structures and functions in the lexical syllabus

The proposal of a lexical syllabus implies some changes in the way the language is presented and practised. Some structures such as passive voice, conditionals and reported speech receive a treatment which differs from the traditional one. WILLIS (1990:22) states that “the passive and the conditionals do not need to be presented as ‘structures’, since they can readily be created by learners for themselves, provided they have an understanding of word meaning.” In the case of reported speech WILLIS (21) points out that the ‘differences in person and in phrases of time and place occur because we are taking a different standpoint from the original writer or speaker. It would be stupid to refer to something as happening today if I am well aware that it happened several days ago.’ In this sense he tries to draw the attention to the need to focus on meaning rather than learn rules by heart. He suggests the adoption of an awareness raising strategy which highlights meaning and where ‘[a] focus on words, therefore, as well as providing the raw material to make more powerful generalisations, seems to offer learners the potential to create structures for themselves. Word forms are also easily recognisable and easily retrievable. This is not always the case with structures’ (WILLIS 23).

WILLIS (1990:92) presents other examples which show ‘how the lexical approach is different in its treatment of some grammatical features.’ In the case of the verb phrase which includes tense, aspect, mood and voice, WILLIS (93) points out the following differences, saying that:

[w]e did not, as most pedagogic grammars do, identify a ‘future tense’ with the modal *will*. Instead we identified ‘ways of referring to the future’. We treated all modals lexically. [...] Although we used the terms ‘present continuous’ and ‘past continuous’ we did not teach these forms as such. Instead we encouraged learners to build them from their component parts, the verb *be* and the present

participle ending in *-ing*, which was treated as an adjective. The past participle, too, was treated as an adjective, and from this we derived the passive voice.

WILLIS (1990:103) justifies the way the progressive aspect is presented, for instance, saying that: “[t]o bring out this feature of English, it is important not to treat the present continuous as a ‘tense’, but rather to make a broader generalisation by treating the *-ing* form as adjectival, with the collocation with *be* as one of its common uses.”

In terms of functions WILLIS (120) states that “[t]here is little danger of a task-based syllabus failing to provide good coverage of the main language functions. The content of Level 1 lists among other things the ‘Social Language’ covered. This incorporates most of the functions covered in courses which take language functions as a basic element in syllabus planning.” Among them he mentions the following, listed between units 6 and 10: asking where people are; telephoning: getting put through; agreeing and disagreeing; asking people to wait; informal inviting, accepting, refusing and giving reasons; shopping for clothes: asking for other things, making queries; asking about what people do; making and responding to more formal invitations; classroom questions, instructions and queries; asking for and giving directions; making suggestions, offers, requests; asking about someone else’s education; comparing experiences to find something or someone in common. He adds that ‘many of these functions are highlighted when the modals are dealt with’ (WILLIS:120). For instance, when presenting *can* and *could*, their uses for suggestions, permission, offer and request are mentioned. More than that, WILLIS (122-123) points out that one of the significant differences provided by native speaker recordings is the way they illustrate important language functions such as ‘reaching agreement’ which “can be socially and linguistically complex, and is not simply a matter of saying ‘Yes, I agree with you’. [...] Much more important is experience of the way

such functions actually are negotiated and agreed in authentic discourse.” One of the main differences seems to be that the work developed by WILLIS (1990:123) emphasises ‘the negotiation of language functions, rather than simply to list idealised realisations of target functions.’

3.3.3 The syllabus and its methodology

When it comes to a distinction between syllabus and methodology, Willis follows Sinclair and Renouf’s ideas who present them as separate things. He says that ‘[t]he syllabus specifies what is to be learned and the methodology tells us how it is to be learned’ (WILLIS 1990:1). And it is with this concept in mind that he established that, in the preparation of the new material, ‘each stage of the course would be built round a lexical syllabus. This would specify words, their meanings, and the common patterns in which they were used’ (WILLIS: 15). Whereas, in terms of methodology he chose to adopt ‘a task-based methodology firmly based in language use’ (15). And he justifies his choice for this methodology, commenting that ‘[w]e should try to devise a methodology which is based on using language in the classroom to exchange meanings and which also offers a focus on language form, rather than a methodology which focuses on language form and which only incidentally focuses on use’ (14).

The aim is to develop a truly communicative methodology making use of *replication* rather than *citation* or *simulation* activities. Both citation and simulation activities focus on form where learners are expected to display control of language form, of the target pattern. *Replication* activities, on the other hand, focus on outcome, ‘they replicate within the

classroom aspects of communication in the real world' (WILLIS 1990:58-59). Some examples of replication activities would be games, problem solving and information gathering in which learners feel the need to communicate and 'are required to use language to achieve real outcomes' (WILLIS:59). And the basis of this methodology is the task. But WILLIS (63) points out that '[i]f learners are to gain experience of language in use it is not enough for them simply to work with tasks for themselves. Ideally they must also be given exposure to language relevant to the task they have performed or are about to perform, and in particular they must be given the opportunity to see how competent speakers and writers use the target language to achieve similar outcomes.'

WILLIS (1990:64-65) exemplifies the type of methodology he aims at, which in the case below concentrates on a listening activity and consists of six stages:

Introduction: In which the teacher prepares the learners for the task they are about to perform.

Task - planning - report: The basic task-based cycle.^[1]

Listening: In which learners listen to native speakers carrying out a parallel task.

Analysis: In which learners look critically at aspects of the native speaker language use in the listening phase.

It is the task stage which is central to the methodology. It is by working at the task that students grapple with meaning and create a meaningful context for the language they have heard or are about to hear. [...] The paramount function of the task [...] is to provide a context and a need for target language forms.

¹*Task:* In which learners carry out a replication activity. The focus is on the outcome of language use rather than the display of language form.

Planning: In which learners prepare to present the findings of the previous phase to the class as a whole. At this stage the teacher helps with correction, rephrasing and so on.

Report: In which learners present their findings. The focus is on outcome, on actually presenting their findings, but also on achieving the level of accuracy demanded by the circumstances of communication (WILLIS 1990: 62).

3.3.4 The product

The lexical syllabus was put into practice by DAVE and JANE WILLIS in a series of three books designed for adults learning English at a basic level launched in 1988. Their work is based on Sinclair and Renouf's ideas.

DAVE WILLIS (1990:91) has the following to say about his work:

[t]he impetus for the lexical syllabus came from the research which lay behind the *Collins COBUILD English Language Dictionary*. We believed that the patterns and meanings associated with the commonest words of English would afford a basis for syllabus specification which would provide learners with good coverage - and would provide that coverage economically. Once we moved towards the concept of the learner's corpus (our collection of texts and recordings), we saw the syllabus specification as helping us to describe that corpus and to identify items within the corpus which should be highlighted for the learner. The lexical syllabus would derive from research into a large corpus of natural language, and would use that research to highlight significant items within a smaller learner's corpus. We believed that this approach to syllabus specification and design would give us better coverage than the more traditional syllabus based on an inventory of grammatical patterns and/or functional realisations.

We also believed that taking lexis as a starting point would give us new insights into the structure of the language and the way it might usefully be viewed by learners.

WILLIS (52) justifies the choice for a lexical syllabus, adding that '[i]f one starts by listing words and their behaviour, one generates automatically the structural environments and the words which are likely to occur within them.' In this sense he aims to cover with this kind of syllabus structures, notions as well as functions.

The series was based on the figures provided by the computer analysis of the COBUILD corpus which, according to WILLIS (46) shows that '[t]he most frequent 700 words of English constitute 70% of English text. The most frequent 1,500 words constitute 76% of text. The most frequent 2,500 words constitute 80% of text.'

WILLIS (46-47) draws some conclusions in this respect:

[t]his [the result above] tells us two things. First, it shows the enormous power of the common words of English. It means that, even though we have a vocabulary of tens of thousands of words, on average seven out of every ten words we hear, read, speak or write come from the 700 most frequent words of English. [...] Secondly, the figures illustrate dramatically the importance of careful selection

in identifying the lexical content of the syllabus. The 700 most frequent words cover 70% of text, but coverage begins to drop rapidly thereafter. [...] The way in which utility begins to fall off at an accelerating rate shows the paramount importance of identifying the right words to give us the right sort of coverage. It is true that general frequency is not the sole criterion. As we move down the frequency band we need to take more and more account of the needs of specific learners.[...] If we are talking about the 2,500 most frequent words in English, however, no learner is likely to get very far without needing to express and understand notions and functions carried by words at this level of frequency.

When it comes to syllabus specification, its content was specified taking into consideration a learner's corpus which comprises the language the student is exposed to in the teaching material. According to WILLIS (1990:65), '[t]he spoken and written texts [...] provide a corpus of language which learners will have processed for meaning and which therefore consists of, to adapt Krashen's terminology, not only comprehensible input but comprehended input.' And it is in this way that WILLIS (70) states that '[w]e can realistically specify 700 of the most frequent words together with their main meanings and patterns as syllabus content. This is because we now know that we have a corpus of language which includes these words, meanings and patterns.' In fact, the learner's corpus plays a decisive role as stated by WILLIS (123): '[w]hat we need to do is provide learners with a corpus which contains the language potential that they need, and then to enable and encourage them to look at that corpus in detail. In this way we move from an itemised syllabus to a dynamic description of language which learners can make their own.'

WILLIS (1990:vi) points out some advantages in the implementation of a lexical syllabus such as the fact that it "does not identify simply the commonest words of the language. Inevitably it focuses on the commonest patterns too. Most important of all it focuses on these patterns in their most natural environment. Because of this, the lexical syllabus not only *subsumes* a structural syllabus, it also indicates how the 'structures' which make up that

syllabus should be exemplified. It does this by emphasising the importance of natural language.” He adds that the lexical syllabus ‘offers the learner experience of a tiny but balanced corpus of natural language from which it is possible to make generalisations about the language as a whole’ (vii). The organisation under words is valuable in the sense that ‘words are immediately recognisable’ (WILLIS 1990:81), whereas the same does not always happens with structures.

3.4 The lexical syllabus x the lexical approach

The lexical approach is a recent trend in language teaching proposed and developed by MICHAEL LEWIS. Although vocabulary is at the heart of both the lexical syllabus and the lexical approach, they are different in nature. Whereas the former is very specific intending to define mainly a syllabus, the latter is broad and intends to give coverage of all the elements involved in the development of an approach to language teaching. As LEWIS (1993:35) well defines, ‘[l]exis can contribute important elements to syllabus design, and may involve radical re-ordering in the same way that notions and functions did. The implications of a lexical approach are, however, much wider, involving methodology, attitudes to grammar, the treatment of error and a wide range of other factors.’ And it is in this fact that lies the main difference between the two of them.

Vocabulary is at the heart of the lexical approach because LEWIS (1997:7) believes that ‘language consists of chunks [... which] are of different kinds and four different basic types are identified. One of these consists of single words while all the others are multi-word items.’

According to him, it is the combination of these chunks which produces 'continuous coherent text' (LEWIS 1997:7). He adds that '[w]ords are the largest and most familiar category, but it is the other categories which provide the novelty and pedagogic challenge' (8). The emphasis is on the main carrier of meaning, vocabulary.

As a result, LEWIS (1997:15) proposes that in language teaching

[m]ore attention will be paid to:

- Lexis - different kinds of multi-word chunks
- Specific language areas not previously standard in many EFL texts
- Listening (at lower levels) and reading (at higher levels)
- Activities based on L1/L2 comparisons and translation
- The use of the dictionary as a resource for active learning
- Probable rather than possible English
- Organising learners' notebooks to reveal patterns and aid retrieval
- The language which learners may meet outside the classroom
- Preparing learners to get maximum benefit from text

Less attention will be paid to:

- Sentence grammar - single sentence gap-fill and transformation practices
- Uncollocated nouns
- Indiscriminate recording of 'new words'
- Talking in L2 for the sake of it because you claim to use 'a communicative approach'

And together with this shift of focus he introduces a new paradigm to replace the P-P-P (Present-Practise-Produce) one which is the O-H-E (Observe-Hypothesize-Experiment) paradigm. This consists in

a cycle in which...

- ... much of what is happening is entirely internal to the individual student's personal cognitive activity, so that no external observation can judge the effectiveness or otherwise of particular phases of the lesson.
- ... there is no suggestion that these three elements occur in linear sequence, only that all three occur, perhaps in parallel, or in different orders on different occasions, and with many areas of overlap. Experimenting on some language feature may involve observation of another. I explicitly reject the idea that procedural learning can be segmented and sequenced for the convenience of a supposed understanding of what is 'being taught'; real learning is essentially a long-term process (LEWIS in: WILLIS and WILLIS 1996:13).

A task-based methodology plays an important role in the lexical approach. According to LEWIS's views '[this methodology] and an O-H-E paradigm are in sympathy with the wider educational syllabus' (1993:106).

For him

[t]he single most distinctive feature of the Lexical Approach is that it proposes a fundamentally different attitude to the treatment of text. Firstly, it is suspicious of de-contextualised language, recognising the importance of context, and therefore preferring extended text or discourse. Secondly, it proposes a range of awareness-raising activities directing students' attention to the chunks of which text is composed. Texts play a role in introducing interesting content, but also act as a major linguistic resource from which students can extract lexical items for study, expansion, and recording in appropriate formats. A basic classroom strategy will be helping students to avoid becoming preoccupied by grammar or vocabulary, concentrating instead on different kinds of lexical item (LEWIS 1993:106).

Lexical items are defined by LEWIS (8) as 'bits' of language among which many do not consist of a single word, for instance, *by the way*, *the day after tomorrow*, *coffee table*, *I'll see you later*. In this sense he realises the importance of collocation stating that '[a]n important element of the Lexical Approach is the perception of the central role of collocation in language and its meaning-generating power' (LEWIS:82).

Although Lewis shares some ideas with both Sinclair and Willis, such as the fact that their work is centred on vocabulary, suggesting, among other things, a new approach to the teaching of grammar, in his description of the lexical approach, he also puts forward some comments about the lexical syllabus. He points out, for instance, the fact that 'the search for a **strictly** lexical syllabus is likely to be frustrating for theorist, teacher and student. [...He would rather] look at the **contribution** which lexical items of different kinds can make in determining *content* [emphasis added]' (LEWIS 105).

In his criticism to the lexical syllabus LEWIS (109) adds that "despite the reference to 'phrases in which they occur' Sinclair and Willis largely equate the lexical syllabus with a

word-based syllabus.” He goes on to say that ‘the language teaching materials based on the same criteria [the ones used to produce the Cobuild dictionaries] were seriously inhibited by a resistance to other types of lexical item [such as the multi-word items]’ (1993:92). And he identifies three major problems:

1. The most frequent ‘words’ are frequently items previously regarded as structural and, ironically, words of low semantic content. These largely delexicalised words are highly frequent precisely because they often have several meanings, and their pattern profiles are extremely complex. Mastery of words like *to*, *with*, *have* is considerably more difficult than mastering a vocabulary with higher meaning content: *accident*, *soot*, *slump*.
2. the word-based syllabus introduced words with both their highly frequent and much rarer meanings together. A preoccupation with the word as a unit, meant infrequent meanings of highly frequent words were given preference over highly frequent meanings of rather less frequent words within the corpus. Some of these rarer meanings of high frequency words appear as of relatively low utility, and a relatively high confusion-factor for elementary students.
3. Multi-word lexical items are under-valued and under-exploited (109).

The problems detected by Lewis are among the issues discussed in the next chapter.

4 AN ANALYSIS OF THE LEXICAL SYLLABUS AS PUT INTO PRACTICE BY DAVE WILLIS

4.1 Introduction

One of the main ideas behind the lexical syllabus, that distinguishes it from other syllabuses, is the one put forward by SINCLAIR and RENOUF (1988:155) who say that '[i]f the analysis of the words and phrases has been done correctly, then all the relevant grammar, etc. [notions and functions, for instance] should appear in a proper proportion.' This means to say that a good coverage of the proper words will generate the structures, meanings and functions the students are supposed to learn, taking into consideration what is more relevant in the language. Traditionally, the coverage of structures and functions, for instance, is done separately in materials which make use of other kinds of syllabuses and do not take into account what is more frequent in the language.

It was the computational analysis of over 20 million words of spoken and written English, carried out by the Cobuild project, which provided the source for the selection of the most appropriate words because it was able to identify the most frequent words of the language together with their most common patterns and uses. It is based on this source that Willis writes his series of books called *Collins Cobuild English Course (CCEC)*, designed as a course for basic students of English, putting the lexical syllabus into practice.

This chapter is allotted to the analysis and discussion of the way the idea of the lexical syllabus is implemented by Willis. The aim is to discuss Willis's selection of the words and

investigate if these words really generate the structures, functions and meanings he proposes to cover. At some instances, throughout our analysis, a comparison is carried out between Willis's material and the material from Blueprint One. Blueprint One is the first level of a series of two books designed for basic students of English based on a communicative approach, making use of a syllabus based on the coverage of functions, structures and vocabulary. The aim here is to spot differences and similarities between the two in order to find out if the lexical syllabus put into practice really results in a difference of approach to language teaching. To do so, all the language from the Student's Book, Practice Book, Teacher's Book, tapescripts and transcripts from Willis's CCEC Level 1 coursebook was processed and stored into the computer programme MicroConcord totalling a corpus of around 75,188 words. At the same time, the material from Blueprint One Student's Book, Workbook, Teacher's Book and tapescripts was stored into the same programme resulting in a corpus which totalled around 61,269 words.

4.2 Willis's organisation of the lexical syllabus

According to RENOUF (In: SINCLAIR 1987:169) '[w]e [the Cobuild project team] planned that the resultant analysis [the one provided by the project] would, in the first instance, form the basis for a lexical syllabus for the proposed new English Course for learners of the language, to be written by Jane and Dave Willis - *Collins Cobuild English Course*, (Willis and Willis, 1988). We would begin with 700 of the commonest word forms of the language, which we estimated would be sufficient as the teaching input to the first volume of the course.' This

was the idea that launched the production of Willis's materials, comprising three different levels distributed according to the following criteria:

The 700 most frequent words of English account for around 70% of all English text. That is to say around 70% of the English we speak and hear, read and write is made up of the 700 commonest words in the language. The most frequent 1,500 words account for around 76% of text and the most frequent 2,500 for 80%. Given this, we decided that word frequency would determine the contents of our course. Level 1 would aim to cover the most frequent 700 words together with their common patterns and uses. Level 2 would recycle these words and go on to cover the next 800 to bring us up to the 1,500 level, and Level 3 would recycle those 1,500 and add a further 1,000. We would of course inevitably cover many other words in the texts to which students were exposed, but we would highlight first the most frequent 700, then 1,500 and finally 2,500 words in the language. (WILLIS 1990:vi)

From the three levels mentioned above, the first one is the object of this study: *Collins Cobuild English Course 1*. WILLIS (1990:vii) states that the material from his book differs from those in other coursebooks in two aspects: first it was created in order to 'contextualise the 700 most frequent words of English and their meanings and uses. We would then highlight those words with their meanings and uses to provide learners with valuable exposure and experience.' Second, it is supposed to work as a sample of authentic language which would be used as an object of study by the learner, who is supposed to carry out a detailed analysis of language in use. At this point, we are introduced to Willis's idea of a learner's corpus which is considered by PARAN (1993:364) as 'one of the clear innovations of the approach.' It comprises, according to Willis, the language from the spoken and written texts the learner encounters in his material.

Before discussing the learner's corpus itself let us try and understand exactly which 700 words Willis is talking about. WILLIS (1990:vi) argues that the 700 words he selected for CCEC Level 1 are the 'most frequent words of English [which] account for around 70% of all English text' giving the impression that they were a direct result of the COBUILD list. This is not true because in the selection of the 700 words, different criteria were taken into

consideration. This is what RENOUF (In: SINCLAIR 1987:169-170) shows us when she states that '[t]he first 500 [words] of the word forms [...] were chosen solely on the basis of their corpus frequency. [...] This list was to be supplemented by a further 150 or so fairly common words, selected for their utility value in the writing of the Course materials [...]. After some consideration, we decided to include certain lexical sets in the word list [...]. These amounted to around 80 items.'

When analysing Willis's CCEC Level 1 material, we came across three different lists of words: two of them are available to the students in the Student's Book ('Important words to remember' and 'Wordlist') and one is available only to the teacher in the Teacher's Book ('Lexical Objectives'). Let us understand better what these lists are about and the problems they generate.

4.2.1 Analysing the lists

The list '**Important words to remember**' (see appendix 2) appears by the end of each unit and it intends to highlight 700 words. The learners are aware of that specific number because the words are added by the end of every unit. For instance, in unit 4 the learners read 'Important words to remember (292 so far)' and this goes on until they reach 700 in the last unit (in fact the list adds up to 703 words). Willis does not state it but we believe this list is made up of 'lemmas' which, according to SINCLAIR and RENOUF (1988:146-147), is a concept of 'word' which comprises "a base form, such as *give*, and an 'associated' set of inflexions, such as *gives*, *giving*, *gave*, *given*. Sometimes derivations will be included, e.g.

gift.” This is so because, in this list, most of the time (there are some exceptions, such as the word ‘details’ which appears in the list but not ‘detail’; the different forms of the verb ‘to be’ which appear as separate items; as well as the word ‘may’ which appears twice, denoting two words with different meanings) the words seem to work as base forms which comprise the different word forms of the items listed. By ‘word form’ we understand, according to Sinclair and Renouf, the word inflexions, such as the different forms of a verb or the plural forms of a noun. Besides that, there is no reference to the different meanings and uses of the words, so the learner cannot very easily distinguish between a verb and a noun nor between different meanings of a word, for instance the word ‘paper’ = sheet or newspaper.

The ‘**Wordlist**’ (see appendix 3) appears by the end of the student’s book and comprehends 707 words which include 128 inflexions of base forms (plural form of some word; past, past participle and –ing forms of some verbs) totalling 835 items. The first fact that immediately calls our attention here is that, again, this is not a list of only 700 words. After comparing the words from the ‘Important words to remember’ and the ‘Wordlist’ we realised something even more striking: the fact that the lists do not match, i.e. not all the words that are in one list appear in the other and vice-versa. This is the case of the words ‘details’, ‘number’ and ‘section’ which appear in the ‘Important words to remember’ but not in the ‘Wordlist’ and the words ‘compare’, ‘detail’, ‘dialogue’, ‘licence’, ‘numbers’, ‘practise’, ‘ready’ and ‘sentence’ which appear in the ‘Wordlist’, but not in the ‘Important words to remember’. Besides, in the ‘Important words to remember’ the word ‘may’ appears twice and only once in the ‘Wordlist’.

The ‘Wordlist’ is a reference list for the students. According to WILLIS (WILLIS and WILLIS 1988:111), *[f]igures [that appear after the words] refer to sections where good*

examples of the words are given in context, either in the Student's Book or in the transcripts where marked with an asterisk. Figures in bold type refer to sections where explanations are given. (T) after a reference means your teacher will give you the word to help you with this section.'

In the explanation WILLIS (WILLIS and WILLIS:111T) gives to the teacher in the teacher's book concerning the 'Wordlist', he states that '*(T) after a reference means students may need to be given the word to complete the section as it does not actually appear in the text [emphasis added].*' The first problem we see when analysing Willis's explanations about the 'Wordlist' above is the contradiction between what Willis tells the students and the teachers. He tells students they are going to find the words contextualised and tells the teachers some of them do not appear in the text and that these words would be the ones with the "T" reference. Through our analysis of Willis's material we did realise that some words appear out of context but they are not all identified by the "T" reference as we see in table 4.1 below. The first column shows words taken from the 'Wordlist'. The words in italics are the ones which appear only in lists, such as the 'Important words to remember' and the 'Wordlist', i.e., they are presented completely out of context.

Table 4.1 Words out of context in CCEC Level 1

WORDLIST	CCEC LEVEL 1
<i>begin, begun, began</i> 109, 150	11/1/4
<i>birth</i> 81	2
<i>body, bodies</i> 48 (T)	2/1
<i>cent</i> 104	2
<i>century, centuries</i> 179	6/1
<i>city, cities</i> 123	15/1
<i>degree</i> 175 (T)	2
<i>detail</i> 185	1
<i>drink, drank, drunk</i> 68	12/2/1
<i>drive, drove, driven</i> 155	5/6/1
<i>eye</i> 37	2
<i>fifty, fifties</i> 79	37/1

<i>foot</i> 38 (T)	2
forty, <i>forties</i> 79	10/1
glass, <i>glasses</i> 42, 140	12/1
half, <i>halves</i> 84 (T), 152*b	35/1
hold, <i>held</i> 38, 89	5/1
<i>itself</i> 144 T	2
learn, learnt/ <i>learned</i> 14	20/2/1
lie, <i>lay, lain</i> 161, 221	5/1/1
listen, <i>listened</i> 20	60/1
love, <i>loved</i> 233	6/1
<i>parent</i> 19*	2
<i>shape</i> 35	2
<i>shoe</i> 33	2
show, <i>showed, shown</i> 38	18/1/7
suppose, <i>supposed</i> 170, 186h	19/1
tend, <i>tended</i> 108, 113	8/1
twenty, <i>twenties</i> 78	47/1
understand, <i>understood</i> 17 (T)	13/2
vary, <i>varied</i> 109	3/1
wife, <i>wives</i> 18	21/1

Notice that from the words in italics in table 4.1 only six appear with the “T” reference. This means to say that the others should be contextualised but they are not. The reason why this is so is not clear as there seems to be no plausible explanation for presenting the words and not contextualising them, mainly if we take into consideration the fact that these words, together with the others in the lists, are to form the basis of the lexical syllabus proposed by Willis and consequently should be present in the learner’s corpus. Besides, the fact that some of the words are not contextualised represents a serious problem for the learner who is taken to believe that the words listed, at least the ones from the ‘Important words to remember’, are all words he has been exposed to in a contextualised way.

The aim of focusing on words that may eventually not appear in the text is, as a result, an issue not clarified by Willis. Moreover, these results put the lexical syllabus itself in question because they contradict Willis’s proposal which is to exploit the words he selected to focus on *in context* in order to offer learners the opportunity to analyse them in their real instances of

use. He says that: 'we know that we have a corpus with which the learner will become familiar, and from which we can retrieve all the language we want to cover. [...] This is because we now know that we have a corpus of language which *includes* [emphasis added] these words [the 700 ones], meanings and patterns' (WILLIS 1990:70). He also highlights the importance of repeated exposure when he states that '[t]here is no way of knowing for sure what language items will be assimilated by the learner at a given stage of his or her language development. We are therefore obliged to recycle the typical patterns of the language so that learners will be exposed to them *time and time again* [emphasis added]' (69). And again when commenting on controlled practice referring to the example of the passive form: '[t]he passive is learned by seeing and hearing passive forms in use, not once but *many times* [emphasis added], by focusing attention on how they are used and by providing learners with opportunities to use the same forms for themselves. The same applies to any other pattern' (72). So, it seems logical to assume that, if learners see or hear the word or pattern being focused only once or twice and mainly out of context, as it happens with the words listed above, it will be difficult for learning to take place.

Another problem we identify when analysing the 'Wordlist' is that it seems that Willis wants to draw learners' attention not only to the 'lemmas' he listed in the 'Important words to remember' but also to some of the word inflexions that appear in the 'Wordlist'. What does not become clear is the criteria Willis's used to organise the 'Wordlist' in terms of word inflexions. According to RENOUF (In: SINCLAIR 1987:170) '[t]he criterion of frequency also meant that not all inflexions of a word qualified for inclusion in the initial list; so that *pounds* and *terms* did, but not *pound* or *term*.' This would be enough to justify the inclusion of the inflexions of some items and not of others if the number of occurrences confirmed that

choice. Unfortunately this is not what happens. For instance, let us analyse what happens with the plural form of the words in the list. In table 4.2 below we show all the words that appear with their plural inflexions in the 'Wordlist' with their number of occurrences in Willis's material.

Table 4.2 Plural inflexions in the Wordlist

WORDLIST	CCEC LEVEL 1
baby, babies	14/3
body, bodies	2/1
child, children	39/86
century, centuries	6/1
city, cities	15/1
family, families	127/23
fifty, fifties	37/1
forty, forties	10/1
glass, glasses	12/1
half, halves	35/1
life, lives	40/6
man, men	89/27
party, parties	18/3
secretary, secretaries	16/2
thirty, thirties	68/3
twenty, twenties	47/1
university, universities	36/3
wife, wives	20/1
woman, women	60/32

The results show that only in the case of 'children' the number of instances of the plural form surpass the number of occurrences of the singular form. This would be reason enough to include the plural form. But why include at all the plural forms of the words 'body', 'century', 'city', 'fifty', 'forty', 'glass', 'half', 'twenty', and 'wife' if they appear only once and out of context? Besides that, WILLIS (WILLIS and WILLIS 1988:16T) points out in the list 'Lexical Objectives' that the 'plural **parents** [is] more common than [the] singular form.' And that is true because 'parents' appears 27 times in the learner's corpus but, despite that, he does not include the plural form in the 'Wordlist'. In the case of the word 'detail', it is present in the

'Wordlist' in the singular form and in the 'Important words to remember' in the plural form. According to our analysis 'details' is more common in Willis's material with 11 occurrences than the word 'detail' which occurs only in the 'Wordlist'. The reason why Willis chooses not to include the plural form in the 'Wordlist' could not be found in any of his statements, i.e., we could not find any justification for the choices made.

Concerning the inflexions of the verbs, it seems that they are presented in order to form a set (present-past-past participle). But, again, this does not happen with all the verbs which appear in the 'Wordlist', such as 'agree', 'open' and 'wear', which appear only in the present form. And again we could not find any explicit reason that would justify this discrepancy.

The third list that appears in Willis's material is the '**Lexical Objectives**' (see appendix 4) which is available only to the teacher. It appears by the end of every unit and gives teachers details about the meanings and uses of 680 words generating around 850 different entries which include word forms and what Willis considers to be phrases. According to his views a '**[p]hrase** is often used in this course [Collins Cobuild English Course] to mean a group of words which commonly occur together, e.g. **do you know, the name of** etc. In more general terms it can be used to refer to any group of words, usually smaller than a sentence' (WILLIS in: WILLIS and WILLIS 1988:9T). Among them, the ones that follow are some of the words Willis draws the teachers' attention to in the 'Lexical Objectives': 'Do you know...?'; 'I don't know.'; 'of course'; 'in common'; 'get on with'; 'as well as'; 'as well'; 'a few'; 'full of'; 'hold on'; 'a lot'; 'to do your best'; 'had better'; 'per cent'; 'have/take a look at'; 'look for'; 'look after'; 'Look out!'; 'look forward to'; 'look up'; 'look through'; 'each other'; 'in other words'; 'the other day/night/lesson'; 'once a week'; 'once more'; 'once

again'; 'at once'; 'in fact'; 'go on'; 'instead of'; 'take a/ have a'; 'such as'; 'the fact that'; 'set out/set off'; 'that of'; 'used to'; 'both...and...'; 'more...than'; 'in order to.'

From the total of 680 words we were able to identify 1,186 different categories and sub-categories of meaning and use highlighted by Willis in the 'Lexical Objectives'. In order to reach this number we went through all the categories and sub-categories of meaning and use Willis refers to in the 'Lexical Objectives' discarding the ones which appeared more than once. We took into consideration the references made in the 'Lexical Objectives' to the meanings also covered both in the Student's Book and in the Grammar Book (a section in the Student's Book which covers the grammar words).

As the 'Lexical Objectives' list covers only 680 words, it becomes clear, again, that the lists do not match. After analysing the three lists ('Important words to remember', 'Wordlist' and 'Lexical Objectives') we were able to find out some other discrepancies in the lists. For instance, the words 'compare', 'dialogue', 'licence', 'numbers', 'practise', 'ready' and 'sentence', which appear in the 'Wordlist' but not in the 'Important words to remember', also do not appear in the 'Lexical Objectives'. The words 'number' and 'section', which appear in the 'Lexical Objectives' and in the 'Important words to remember', do not appear in the 'Wordlist'. The words and word forms 'fifty, fifties', 'fire', 'forty, forties', 'fourteen', 'furniture', 'garden', 'hall', 'secretary, secretaries', 'sport', 'Sunday', 'telephone', 'thirty, thirties', 'twenty, twenties', and all the words for the months of the year, appear both in the 'Important words to remember' and the 'Wordlist', but not in the 'Lexical Objectives'. The word 'interested', which appears as a separate entry in the 'Lexical Objectives' to convey the meaning 'interested in', appears in the 'Wordlist' only as the past tense of 'interest' and does not appear at all in the 'Important words to remember'. And in the case of the word 'interest'

itself, it appears in the 'Lexical Objectives' as a noun and in the 'Wordlist' as a verb. The same happens with the words 'love', 'phone' and 'reply' which appear as nouns in the 'Lexical Objectives' and as verbs in the 'Wordlist'. The word 'set' appears in all three lists but gets a separate entry in the 'Lexical Objectives' for 'set out/off'. Also, the words 'ourselves' and 'glasses' (= pair of glasses) appear in the 'Lexical Objectives', but not in the 'Important words to remember' or the 'Wordlist'.

So, if we were to add the words from the 'Important words to remember', the 'Wordlist' and the 'Lexical Objectives' we would end up with approximately 850 different words, word forms and phrases.

Another aspect to be considered when analysing the 'Lexical Objectives' list is the way the meanings are presented. The piece of information the teachers have access to is generally presented in the following way: '**letter** 2 *letters of the alphabet*', i.e., the word, the category number and the meaning. When explaining how the 'Lexical Objectives' works and what the numbers mean, WILLIS (1988:10T) argues that '[t]he very common words in English have, on average, three quite different categories of meaning and use. Category 1 is usually the commonest or most basic meaning.' And he exemplifies the way the two lists work in the Teacher's Book work, telling the teachers that:

[y]ou can find out more about other categories of a particular word - i.e. what they are and where to teach them - by looking the word up in the main **Teacher's Book Wordlist**. This gives you a unit reference (so you can look up that word in the Lexical Objectives for that unit) and a section number. You can check both.

Examples

[...] **form** 3

The **Wordlist** gives you three other references, including units 9 and 11. Look up **form** in the Lexical Objectives for Units 9 and 11, and you will find that Categories 2 and 4 are explained. Category 1 of **form** is not covered in Level 1; it is the subtechnical use (e.g. *form of oxygen*) and was considered unsuitable for elementary students; it is covered in COBUILD *English Course Level 2*. (1988:10T)

As Willis clearly states, it is his intention to focus mainly on the most common patterns and uses which derive from the so called 700 most common words in English and we believe this means to say that these patterns and uses are represented by the three main categories of meaning he mentions earlier. And in Willis's CCEC Level 1 we notice that most of the categories presented are among the three main ones, but these are not the only ones covered in his material. We came across words which are presented taking into consideration not only the most common categories, e.g. the word 'so' with six different main categories; the word 'from' with seven and the word 'on' with eight. This variety of categories of meaning covered by Willis may reveal that, in fact, it is not possible to design a coursebook without also focusing on less common meanings and uses.

But when we analyse the categories of meaning in greater detail we realise that there are some serious discrepancies. They are discussed below with examples taken from the 'Lexical Objectives' in the Teacher's Book.

1- The example that follows shows a contradiction. Willis presents 'call' drawing attention to its meaning as a verb but when listing the examples, the first one (a phone call) refers to a *noun* and not a *verb*: 'call 2 to telephone: *a phone call, When shall I call you?*' (WILLIS and WILLIS 1988:38T)

2- In the case of the entry 'rain': '**rain** 1 noun and verb' (76T), it seems strange to have a category of meaning which includes both *noun* and *verb*. According to the Collins COBUILD English Dictionary (1987:1185) these meanings do not appear together:

1 Rain is water that falls from the clouds in small drops. EG *You can't go home in all this rain... The rain had been pouring all night... A light rain had begun to fall.*

2 When it **rains**, water falls from the clouds in drops as rain. EG *It had started to rain... Is it raining?... It was raining hard every day now.*

So, it really seems awkward to have one category of meaning standing for two different meanings or uses.

3- In the examples below we face a problem with the category numbers and the meanings they refer to which do not match, i.e., sometimes we have different category numbers referring to the same meaning ('third' category numbers 3 and 1; 'this'; 'free'; 'work' category numbers 3 and 5) and other times we have the same category number referring to different meanings ('third' - both categories number 3; 'there'; 'then'; 'work' - both categories number 3).

- free** 4 not busy. *Are you free on Sunday?* (92T)
 2 not busy (98T)
then 1 next in sequence. *I start at...and then I finish...* (50T)
 1 specific time in the past. *and then, until then* (68T)
there 3 *there is/are/was/were* (22T)
 .3 *You were right there.* (when you said that) (76T)
third 3 *the third woman...* (22T)
 3 $1/3$ - *a third* (38T)
 1 $1/3$ one third (44T)
this 3.1 used to introduce someone or something. *This is David. This is a recording of Chris and Philip.* (9T)
 2.1 introducing. *This is Mrs Kent/the BBC World Service.*
work 3 noun. *written work, the works of Shakespeare, a work of art* (50T)
 3 *it won't work, all the bells work, You press a button to work it.* (98T)
 to be operational. 5 *All the bells work! in working order* (76T)

We noticed that many categories of meaning stated in the 'Lexical Objectives' do not match with the ones given both in the section 'Grammar Book' in the Student's Book and in the 'Wordpower' section also in the Student's Book. For instance, the word **get** appears three times in the 'Lexical Objectives': in unit 2 - '**get** 1 to indicate possession in all its shades of meaning - obtain, receive, be given, have etc. eg *Get your books. Have you got some money?*' (WILLIS and WILLIS 1988:16T); in unit 4 - '**get** 4 **get on with.** *I get on well with my flatmate.*' (28T) and in unit 8 - '**get** See Grammar Book and SB116' (50T). If we take a look

at the categories of meaning listed for the word **get** in the Grammar Book, we notice that categories 1 and 4 mentioned in the 'Lexical Objectives' do not match with the category numbers from the Grammar Book.

get, got (32, 116)

1 'get in / to / on / off' etc.

What floor does he *get out of* the lift on? (115)

What time do you *get up*? (118)

I *get up* at about seven. (113)

You *get off* at the junction. (125)

You *ge off the bus* at the stop in the Bristol Road. (125)

2 'I've got...' (see have 1 and 2)

Have you got any brothers and sisters? (19)

Excuse me, *have you got* Liz's phone number? (31)

I haven't got a credit card. (25)

Have you got a garden? (52)

Haven't you got these in another colour? (102)

You *must have got* the wrong number. (210)

3 'I've got to...' (see have 4)

How many *have we got to have*? (70)

I've got to finish my work.

4 obtain / receive

I'm going to the bank *to get some money*.

Did you get my letter?

I ran after her *to get my bag back*.

5 turn / become

It gets very cold in winter.

He sometimes *gets very angry*.

(WILLIS and WILLIS 1988:104)

In the case of the word 'look', its meanings appear in the 'Lexical Objectives' in unit

7 as follows:

look 1.1 with have / take. *Let's have a look at...*

2 *to look for something*

4 *to look after someone*

Also: *Look out! look forward to, look up, look through*

(WILLIS and WILLIS 1988:44T)

But in section '97 Wordpower' in the Student's Book (cf. WILLIS and WILLIS 1988:40) the meanings are listed in the following way: category of meaning 1 refers to the use

of 'look for'; category 2 refers to the use of 'look after'; category 3 refers to the use of 'look' after the verbs 'have' and 'take' including an example of 'look at'; category 4 refers to the use of 'look up'; category 5 to 'look forward to'; category 6 to the use of 'look like' and category 7 to 'look out'. So, the information from the two sources does not match.

Some other problems were also identified when analysing the 'Lexical Objectives'. We came across entries which do not bring any category number, explanation or example of the word use or meaning, e.g., the entries for the words 'doctor', 'newspaper', 'song', 'examination, exam', 'fashionable', 'music', 'college', 'forest', 'political', 'politician'. In some other instances, the entries present only the category number with no explanation or example, e.g., 'eight 1', 'he 1', 'sister 1', 'bag 1', 'borrow 1', 'colour 1'. This happens with around 100 (14.7%) of the words listed in the 'Lexical Objectives' and it is interesting to notice that when this happens the category number is always *one*. Maybe Willis takes for granted that in these cases category one refers to the most common use or meaning of the word but this is not explicitly acknowledged. In other instances we come across only the example or only the explanation without any reference to the category number. And in other cases more than one category number is given with one set of examples: '**south** 1/2/3/4 *south of here, South of France*' (WILLIS and WILLIS 1988:28T). In this case we do not know which example refers to which category. One of our main concerns is that these problems are quite frequent.

We believe the cases listed above can be considered problems because the information given is either not complete or not clear enough. In our opinion, to avoid that, entries should provide all three pieces of information (category number, explanation and example).

The discrepancies and problems showed are evidence of two important facts: first that this list, the 'Lexical Objectives', is not consistent in its presentation, i.e., it presents a lot of

contradictions and the criteria used are not clear and second, as Willis does not give any explanation for the discrepancies and problems showed in the examples, we are led to question the seriousness of the categorisation of the meanings and uses. Consequently, the user, in this case the teacher as well as the learner, cannot rely on the information given because it can be misleading.

The analysis of the 'Lexical Objectives' led us to realise the amount of different meanings that Willis's list of 700 words generate. In Willis's material they total 1,236, as the 'Lexical Objectives' list does not include all the meanings and uses covered in the coursebook. So, when we go back and revisit Willis's statement that the 700 most frequent words together with their most common patterns and uses cover around 70% of the English we speak, hear, read and write in the light of our analysis, we really understand the richness and the complexity involved in this statement.

4.2.2 The learner's corpus

According to WILLIS (1990:65) '[t]he spoken and written texts [...] provide a corpus of language which learners will have processed for meaning and which therefore consists of, to adapt Krashen's terminology, not only comprehensible input but comprehended input.' The spoken material would, according to WILLIS (vii), 'not be scripted and rehearsed. It would be spontaneous speech [containing] many linguistic features normally idealised out of language teaching material.' In the specific case of CCEC Level 1, WILLIS (vii) states that 'we intended to create a corpus which would contextualise the 700 most frequent words of English and their

meanings and uses.’ The result ‘was a small corpus of language which presented the learner with a microcosm of the 20 million COBUILD corpus’ (vii), becoming in this way the source of the examples that illustrate the language to be analysed. WILLIS (68) goes on to say that ‘[w]e have suggested that as part of our methodology we should include an *analysis* component in which students look critically at samples of language to see what they can learn from it. I suggest that this process is analogous to that carried out by the lexicographer.’

So, we reach the conclusion that the learner’s corpus serves three different purposes: first to be the source of authentic language since Willis claims both spoken and written texts originate from real instances of language provided by unscripted recordings and material taken from the COBUILD corpus. Second, it provides the contextualisation of the words selected to design the coursebook and finally it was created to work as learners’ object of study.

Let us analyse these purposes more carefully. The first refers to the use of authentic language and about that WILLIS (1990:124) has the following to say: ‘[t]he lexical approach [...] is firmly based on real language. [...] The description of language implicit in the *Collins COBUILD English Course* is very different from other courses. We would argue that it is a more accurate description, and that this derives from the fact that it is based on real language.[...] Up to now no other coursebook at the elementary level offers predominantly authentic language.’ And he adds that ‘although other materials writers have used authentic materials, to my knowledge none have made spontaneous spoken interaction the basis for a course at the elementary level’ (131). And, through the analysis of his material we realise that, for instance, whenever learners have to produce spoken language they do not do it without being first exposed to the recordings of native people undergoing the same task. This does not

occur in Blueprint One where learners receive a guided skeleton of the kind of dialogue they have to produce.

The learner's corpus second purpose has to do with the contextualisation of the words selected by Willis. The purpose here is also to avoid sentence-level examples. We have already mentioned, in the section 'analysing the lists', that decontextualisation is not totally avoided as some of the words selected by Willis do appear only in the lists. And when it comes to sentence-level examples Willis claims that the examples in his coursebook are all taken from the corpus, i.e., the written and spoken texts. That also is not always true because through the analysis we carried out, with the assistance of the MicroConcord programme, we were able to identify some examples, such as the ones used in the section 'Useful words and phrases' by the end of each unit, which although related to the material, are not taken from the texts learners are exposed to.

Now, let us move to the third purpose of the learner's corpus which is to be used by the learners as an object of study. The aim was to provide the learner the chance to get to his own description of the language through an analysis similar to that carried out by a lexicographer or a grammarian. Unfortunately, the learner does not have the chance, at least of doing that on his own, when using Willis's material because as he, himself, states '[i]n the *Collins COBUILD English Course* we, as materials writers, acted as intermediaries between learners and corpus, taking decisions as to what was worth highlighting and when' (WILLIS 1990:131). This means to say the development of this role in independent terms will only be possible in the future when all learners have access to computational facilities. And this fact may contribute to a decrease in terms of effectiveness of the work proposed by Willis. In any

case WILLIS (1990:131) considers that '[t]he notion of a learner's corpus and the deliberate attempt to reference and exploit that corpus are [...] innovations.'

4.2.3 Language coverage

Concerning language coverage over the three levels of CCEC, WILLIS (1990:123) claims that

[w]hen we [Dave and Jane Willis] checked against the TEFL Side Corpus [a corpus of around one million words composed of EFL course materials] the language coverage we had achieved in *CCEC*, we found that we had either covered all the items traditionally covered or, as in the case of reported speech, had made a deliberate decision to omit them. We found that even with items like the verb phrase, which are covered with great thoroughness in traditional approaches, we had achieved comparable coverage. Given lexis as our starting point, there were differences in our treatment, particularly the decision to treat participles as adjectival and to derive progressive aspect and passive voice from this description. The lexical approach also led us to treat *will*, like other modals, as a lexical item, and therefore to deny the notion of a future tense. [...] Finally, we were able to offer good coverage of most language functions. [...] Central to all of this is the notion of the learner's corpus. What we need to do is provide learners with a corpus which contains the language potential that they need, and then to enable and encourage them to look at that corpus in detail. In this way we move from an itemised syllabus to a dynamic description of language which learners can make their own.

So, it is under the light of Willis's statement above that we intend to check how structures, functions and words, word forms, patterns, meanings and uses are presented and covered in CCEC Level 1. And a comparison between CCEC Level 1 and Blueprint One will be carried out whenever it represents a contribution to the analysis of the lexical syllabus as put forward by Dave Willis.

4.2.3.1 Structures

In the case of structures Willis points out differences in the treatment of some grammatical features that result from the use of a lexical approach to language teaching:

1- The verb phrase

Here, WILLIS (1990:93) argues that '[o]ur treatment of the verb phrase came somewhere between the formal grammar approach [which describes the verb phrase under four headings, namely tense, aspect, mood and voice], and that of the pedagogical grammar [which classifies the verb phrase as present simple, present continuous, future, future continuous, past simple, past continuous etc.]'

The differences include:

- a) the treatment of all modals lexically. 'This is very much in line with other approaches, which also tend to treat modality lexically. The lexical research did, however, add certain insights. For example about 15% of the occurrences of **can** and **could** are followed by the word **be**' (WILLIS 1990:105). The other differences include the presentation of **will** as a lexical item. In this way it does not identify a 'future tense' any longer and **would** loses its dependence on **if**. **If** is, as a result, presented as a word used in conditions when the speaker thinks something is likely to happen (e.g. What happens if the person isn't there?) or for something imagined, not real (e.g. Which examples would be useful if you went to Britain?) (WILLIS 1990:96-97).
- b) the 'present continuous' and 'past continuous' are not taught as such. They are built up 'from their component parts, the verb **be** and the present participle ending in **-ing**, which was treated as an adjective. The past participle, too, was treated as an adjective, and from

this we derived the passive voice' (WILLIS 1990:93). He goes on to say that '[p]rogressive aspect in English is marked by the suffix **-ing**' (WILLIS:101). And it is as one of the uses of **-ing** that the progressive is presented to the students. This appears both in the section called 'Grammar words' (cf. WILLIS and WILLIS 1988:89) which is designed as a consciousness raising activity and in the grammar section by the end of the book. This is called 'Grammar Book' and presents the **-ing** in the following way:

-ing (213)

1 describing something

I've got a man wearing a hat.

There was a man carrying a brown bag.

You hear a ringing tone. (206)

A purring sound.

2 after 'am', 'is', 'be' etc.

At one o'clock I'm normally eating my lunch. (143)

They were walking past the newsagents.

3 after 'see', 'hear' etc.

If you heard someone shouting for help. (208)

He saw a woman lying on the floor. (210)

4 before 'am', 'is' etc.

Learning English is easy, difficult.

Watching TV is...

5 after 'stop', 'start', 'remember', 'like' etc.

He stopped talking and began to eat.

6 after 'when', 'before', 'instead of' etc.

Instead of putting your money in first, you dial the number... (206)

Can you use the cardphone without using coins?

(WILLIS and WILLIS 1988:106)

- c) Another aspect that results from a lexical approach to language teaching is the analysis, for instance, of the word **do** which is presented in two extremely common uses: 'as an auxiliary [...] and [...] a delexical verb – a verb which does not carry meaning itself but takes its meaning from the noun which follows it' (WILLIS 1990:95) such as in one of the examples WILLIS provides: 'I usually do the cooking and cleaning in the morning' (95).

As SINCLAIR and RENOUF (1987:153) state: “[a] major feature of the language is not specifically taught in current coursebooks. It is the phenomenon known as ‘delexicality’ [...]. Aisenstadt (1981) has noted the importance of delexical verb combinations for vocabulary teaching and learning.”

This new way of treating grammatical features of the language reveals Willis’s criticism towards the traditional way of teaching grammar. He argues that ‘[l]earners need to acquire the ability to select the appropriate form to encode the desired meaning. They cannot learn to do this by working with decontextualised examples at the level of the sentence’ (1990:108). His criticism goes further when he states that he refuses to ‘resort to a contrastive methodology. [where] [t]here is little real gain in contrasting, say, the present simple and the present continuous tenses’ (108). According to his views, this can be misleading to the learners who tend ‘to see only those forms which exhibit this contrast’ (109). He believes that ‘[s]implistic choices are dictated, [whereas] subtler choices are avoided’ (109). Contrastive teaching is, according to WILLIS (108) ‘a time consuming process which achieves very little.’ But, after a detailed analysis of Willis’s material we realise that he makes use of contrastive teaching when referring to, for instance, the present and past tenses or present and future tenses. In these cases he draws learners’ attention to the differences through awareness raising exercises which bring mixed examples that learners have to sort out. Moreover, Willis points to the fact that learners should not think in terms of pre-established tenses such as the ‘present continuous’ and others. He seems successful when presenting the ‘present continuous’ as a collocation between the verb ‘to be’ and the ‘-ing’ form, reaching the point of not even mentioning the term ‘present continuous tense’, but this does not occur when presenting, for instance, the ‘present perfect’. Even though he tries to treat it lexically, the presentation turns

out to be very traditional. This is the way it appears in CCEC Level 1 coursebook under the section 'Grammar words':

have

The words **have** and **has** are used to form the present perfect tense. This has three main uses.

1 for something that has or has not happened up to now

I haven't even been there a year yet. (up to now)

I've been learning English for a year.

2 for something that happened or did not happen in the past, but is important now

I knew I would make it to the top and I have made it. (now I am at the top)

I have not yet got confirmation of the arrangements for the Amman-Singapore section of the journey. (so I can't tell you about it now)

3 for something that will have happened at some time in the future

I don't know yet whether I shall be staying with Vijay Bhatia. I shall let you know as soon as I have heard from him.

(WILLIS and WILLIS 1988:81)

In fact, WILLIS (1990:81) seems to be aware of this fact when he states that '[t]he grammar was [...] organised *almost* [emphasis added] entirely lexically in Level 1.' The question that comes to our mind is if it is possible to treat all grammar lexically, since he was not able to do it.

Anyway, Willis moves on and considers the treatment of the **-ing** form as adjectival, with the collocation with **be** as one of its common uses, or **will** lexically instead of attached to the label 'future tense', as one of the contributions of the different treatment given to grammar that results from a lexical perspective. It provides, according to his views, an 'economical' coverage of the language, i.e., the learner is able to make broader generalisations which lead him to a better understanding of the language through the analysis of the learner's corpus (the collection of texts and recordings used to design the coursebooks). It may be so when we think in terms of making learners handle a number of different labels for tenses or structures which imply 'conforming to a set of restrictive rules' (WILLIS 1990:126), but it is questionable when

we analyse the amount of meanings and uses generated, for instance, by the **-ing** form as we saw before. Here one may reach the conclusion that it can be much more difficult to master all this information than to master the ‘present continuous tense’.

Another aspect that can cause problems in terms of mastering the language is Willis’s constant reference to the term ‘etc’. It appears mainly when he presents ‘grammatical words’ (see the example of **-ing** on page 74 and **of** on page 78). This seems to result into an inexact and confusing piece of information for the learner. The term ‘etc’ is too general, i.e., it can include a number of things learners are not aware of. For instance, if we take **-ing** use number 4: “Before ‘am’, ‘is’ etc.”; the learner may think that it means **-ing** is used before the different forms of the verb ‘to be’ when this is not true. One can say: ‘Loving you means a lot to me.’ and so on. So, instead of being ‘economical’, Willis is, in reality, providing a wide number of choices which, although enrich learner’s knowledge of the language, may result into confusion and uncertainty. It is not clear how learners can cope with that.

2- The noun phrase

When it comes to noun phrases, Willis’s concern has to do with the analysis and production of complex ones. ‘It is difficult to see how anyone could become a competent speaker or writer of English without recourse to the kind of complex phrase structure which is too often overlooked in course design’ (WILLIS 1990:115). So, among the differences proposed by the use of a lexical approach, one has the treatment of participles as adjectival and the analysis of the use of prepositions in the building up of complex phrases.

This participle use [in noun phrases] of the **-ing** form is, in fact, much commoner than its use in the continuous tenses. Similarly, the adjectival use of the past participle is much commoner than its use in the traditional passive.

Another common feature of complex phrases is the use of prepositions [a use neglected in traditional approaches]. A lexically based syllabus, [...] cannot fail to recognise the importance of prepositional

phrases in building more complex phrases. The prepositions **of, to, in, for, on, with, at, by, from, about and up** all feature among the fifty commonest words of English. Any approach which recognises the importance of lexis, therefore, is bound to analyse carefully the uses of these words and to make sure that they are highlighted for the learner. (WILLIS 1990:110)

The presentation, for instance, of the preposition **of** in Willis's material looks like

this:

of (17, 139)

1 used in expressions of quantity, size etc.

I've got one of those. (25)

Neither of your brothers. (26)

Where's that bit of paper? (107)

None of the yellow shapes are squares. (35)

He talked to a lot of other people. (107)

I did quite a bit of work last weekend.

Bring lots of jumpers. (176)

1.2 containing / consisting of something

Here are two sets of examples.

Let's find a place to have a cup of coffee.

1.3 'part of', 'some of' etc.

The middle of the morning. (84)

Tell the rest of the class. (106)

Tell each other your half of the story. (115)

The end of Sain Laurence Road. (125)

2. belonging to

Do you know the names of the students in your class? (2)

David tried to remember the names of Bridget's family. (19)

The number of a house. (77)

What's the name of the college? (109)

3 'sort of' etc.

3.1 spoken only – used to show the speaker doesn't want to sound very exact; or used instead of a pause or hesitation

The watch is sort of next to the glass of water. (42)

We sort of get on well. (53)

3.2

That sort of roof? (171)

Three types of telephone. (206)

4. dates, times, ages

My father is the first of May. (81)

At the age of 18.

End of July.

(WILLIS and WILLIS 1988:107)

Another feature of English that WILLIS (1990:112) believes 'is often incorporated in the complex noun phrase is the use of one noun to modify another.' Although he recognises the importance of this structure he argues that '[i]t is impossible to treat these noun + noun combinations systematically [...] because the relationships which can exist between the two or more nouns are almost infinite. Nevertheless it is important to draw the attention of learners to this feature of English' (112). And this is done from Level 2 of his material on.

When analysing Willis's way of presenting structures, we recognise his effort in presenting them from a lexical point of view.

4.2.3.2 Functions

In Willis's material CCEC Level 1, the functions are listed in the Teacher's Book map of contents under the heading 'Social Language' (see appendix 5 for complete list). If we analyse the list, we realise that it seems quite comprehensive since it includes functions one would expect to find in a coursebook designed for adult beginners, such as 'greetings', 'apologising', 'asking and giving permission', 'talking about likes', 'agreeing and disagreeing', 'asking for and giving directions', 'making suggestions' and 'making complaints'.

WILLIS argues that the good coverage of most language functions in his material is due to, among other things, 'our reliance on authentic or spontaneous material. This led us to look at the negotiation of language functions, rather than simply to list idealised realisations of target functions' (123). Willis is emphatic about the importance of authentic language such as

that provided by spontaneous native speaker recordings, because of the way they illustrate functions and what they reveal about real language in use. For instance, they can show that “a function like ‘reaching agreement’ can be socially and linguistically complex, and is not simply a matter of saying ‘Yes, I agree with you’” (WILLIS 1990:122). He argues that ‘the realisation of a particular language function is very often a cooperative venture. It is certainly the case that such realisations are often, indeed usually, much more complex than functionally based syllabuses normally acknowledge.’ So, according to his views, it seems essential ‘to experience the way [...] functions actually are negotiated and agreed in authentic discourse’ (WILLIS 1990:123).

As a result, he states that ‘[u]p to now no other coursebook at the elementary level offers predominantly authentic language’ (124), i.e., he claims that his material provides a corpus which ‘is in part natural language drawn from a number of sources (mainly written), and in part spontaneously produced spoken language drawn mainly from recordings of native speakers carrying out the tasks which form the basis of the course’ (124).

Essentially, authentic language from recordings is used in CCEC Level 1 to illustrate how functions are put into practice in real instances of language. This is done through awareness raising exercises such as the one below.

b Reaching agreement

MS: Well when I see... er... a windmill I always think of Holland, so I would say Holland, for that.

PK: Mhm. Yes I think I agree with you.

Have they reached agreement that it is a picture of Holland?

Look what they go on to say. At which point do they actually reach agreement?

PK: Mhm. Yes I think I agree with you. It’s flat as well isn’t it?

MS: Yes.

PK: So it must be Holland.

MS: The-

PK: And the third one along the top?

(WILLIS and WILLIS 1989:70)

When analysing the sources of authentic language in CCEC Level 1 Willis refers to (written and spoken), we were able to identify only the recordings of spontaneous speech since Willis makes a distinction between scripted and unscripted recorded texts in the list of tapescripts and transcripts in the Teacher's Book. And in this case, authentic language represents half of the number of recordings, as out of the 138 recorded texts, 68 (49%) are unscripted ones.

Now, concerning the coverage of functions in his material, WILLIS (1990:120) argues that '[t]here is little danger of a task-based syllabus failing to provide good coverage of the main language functions.' One aspect immediately calls our attention in Willis's statement: it is his reference to a task-based rather than a lexical syllabus. It is not clear why, when it comes to functions, he makes reference to a task-based syllabus. This may suggest that a lexical syllabus does not seem appropriate for the adequate coverage of *all* functions. In fact, the only functions presented lexically are the ones which stem from the modals. For instance, in unit 9 when Willis introduces the modals **can** and **could**, highlighting their uses for suggestions, permission, offer and request as seen below:

138 *Grammar words*
can, could

(For meanings 1 and 2, **could** is the past tense of **can**.
For meaning 3 **could** is a more formally polite form
than **can**.)

1 ability/possibility

Can you follow these directions?

It must be John. It can't be anyone else.

I was so tired I couldn't stay awake.

What can you see from your classroom window?

1.1 **could** for suggestions

A: What shall we do? B: We could go to the cinema.

What about 1989? Could it be a telephone number?

2 permission

You can write three words to help you remember.

I asked if I could go home early.

3 offer/request

Can you open the window a bit please?

Could you open the window a bit please?

Can I help you?

(WILLIS and WILLIS 1988:55)

Or in unit 12 where **will** is introduced as a modal. Among the uses listed by Willis in the Student's Book, we come across the following function: '3 to make an offer or announce a decision or promise (**would** is used as the past tense of **will**) *I'll phone you at work. He promised he would phone me at work*' (WILLIS and WILLIS 1988:71).

But the really important issue here seems to be that we come across an overlap of syllabuses taking place in Willis's material, i.e., his material which was expected to be based solely on a lexical syllabus is partially introduced through a task-based syllabus.

To sum up, we can state that, concerning the way functions are covered in Willis's material, he does not present them lexically but making use of a task-based syllabus, contradicting his idea of using a lexical syllabus only. This procedure also contradicts Sinclair and Renouf's idea that the correct coverage of words and phrases would also provide the adequate appearance of functions. The real novelty in CCEC Level 1 in terms of covering functions, seems to be the amount of exposure to authentic language. It is in this way that Willis intends to show that functions are not restricted only to a certain amount of teachable language, conveying that what really happens is a negotiation which takes place when functions are put into practice. In this sense he implies the unpredictability and complexity of natural language.

4.2.3.3 Words, word forms, patterns, meanings and uses (CCEC Level 1 x Blueprint One)

In Willis's coverage of words, word forms, patterns, meanings and uses through a lexical syllabus, we can identify three different aspects. The first one has to do with the coverage of the contributions made by the computational analysis in terms of insights in language teaching. The second refers to Willis's proposal of covering the most common words, word forms and patterns that we identify in CCEC Level 1 three different lists: 'Important words to remember', 'Word list' and 'Lexical Objectives'; and the third aspect concerns the coverage of the most common categories of meaning of the entries from Willis's three lists.

Concerning the **first aspect** related to the coverage of the computational insights, WILLIS (1990:49) states that the computational analysis of the language carried out by the COBUILD project revealed some findings which he considers surprises that emerged as a result of the analysis undertaken. Among the insights mentioned by Willis, we were particularly interested in the one related to the use of 'any' since it is included in the 'Lexical Objectives' in CCEC Level 1. WILLIS (49) argues that

[a] common EFL view of the words **some** and **any**, which is enshrined in many pedagogic grammars, suggests that where **some** is used in affirmative sentences, its counterpart **any** is used in negative and interrogative sentences. [...] Far from being an aberration, the use of **any** in an affirmative sentence is in fact much commoner than its use in interrogatives [evidence that derives from the COBUILD corpus]. In this particular instance the information given to learners by some coursebooks and grammars is simply wrong.

As Willis also states that '[t]he CCEC materials offer a corpus of language to illustrate the insights [such as the use of 'any'] derived from the original research' (WILLIS 1990:124), we decided to check how 'any' is treated both in CCEC Level 1 and Blueprint

One. But besides analysing the treatment of 'any', we will also analyse the occurrences of some words, word forms and patterns Willis refers to in the 'Lexical Objectives', concerning their frequency, use, and collocations. These were selected because they introduce comments and notes made by Willis which we believe also stem from the results obtained through the computational analysis of the language. They are all listed below and it is our intention, in the case of CCEC Level 1, to check if it reflects the broader corpus (the COBUILD one) which revealed the insights.

And in the case of Blueprint One, it is our aim to see if the insights are in any way already present in a corpus not based on the findings of the computational analysis carried out by the COBUILD project.

1- The word 'any' ¹

'any 2 none at all (with negatives) or some as opposed to none (in questions). *I haven't got any tissues. Have you got any brothers and sisters?* Note: The most frequent use of **any** is meaning 1: I doesn't matter which; all; every (Unit 8). *Any child under 5 can travel free. Anyone can answer. Any colour. Come any time.*

Any in questions only account for 5% of the total occurrences in English, so don't overteach the use of **any** in this unit' (WILLIS and WILLIS 1988:16T).

'Notice that, in spite of what many books say, **any** is very common in affirmative sentences' (50T).

Table 4.3 Occurrences and uses of 'any' ²

	BLUEPRINT ONE	CCEC Level 1
affirmative sentences	14 (15,9%)	50 (36,5%)
negative sentences	26 (29,5%)	29 (21,1%)
questions	48 (54,5%)	58 (42,3%)

When analysing table 4.3 we realise that, first the numbers in Blueprint One correspond very much to what traditionally is expected in terms of the use of **any**, i.e., **any** is

¹ Under entries 1 to 13 we find Willis's comments taken from the 'Lexical Objectives'.

² Tables 4.3 to 4.15 show what happens in Blueprint One and CCEC Level 1 in terms of occurrences. The computer programme MicroConcord was used to proceed the counting of the number of occurrences in both coursebooks.

more frequent in negative and interrogative sentences. Second, that in both coursebooks the percentage of occurrences of **any** in questions is higher than the number of occurrences of **any** in both affirmative and negative sentences. This result shows that, when it comes to Willis's material, **any** in questions accounts for much more than 5%, which means to say that it does not reflect the COBUILD corpus. Third, the number of occurrences of **any** in affirmative sentences in CCEC Level 1 is as high as the number of occurrences in questions. This reveals that Willis's coverage of the use of **any** in affirmative sentences corresponds very much to the information taken from the COBUILD analysis of the language.

2- The word 'I'

'I' subject pronoun. Most commonly followed by (in order of frequency) **think / do / don't / was / wasn't / mean / have / haven't / can / can't / would / am / know / knew**.

Note that **am** is *not* the most common' (WILLIS and WILLIS 1988:9T).

Table 4.4 Collocations of 'I'

	BLUEPRINT ONE	CCEC Level 1
I think	59	73
I do	8	16
I don't	44	109
I was	15	56
I wasn't	2	1
I mean	2	7
I have	52	79
I've	82 = 134	93 = 172
I haven't	16	39
I can	47	16
I can't	47	24
I would	4	40
I'd	38 = 42	16 = 56
I am	37	19
I'm	232 = 269	104 = 123
I know	1	20
I knew	0	5

The table above shows that the collocation **I + am** is not the most common one in

CCEC Level 1 whereas it is in Blueprint One. This corresponds to the information taken from the original corpus. But in Willis's material, **I + am** appears as the second most common collocation when it should be less frequent, i.e., the collocation **I + am** should occur only after the collocation of **I** with the other 11 verbs.

3- The words 'who' and 'where'

'**who** 3 a question word used to ask the name or identity of someone. *Who's that?*

Note: **wh-** words are more common in the indirect form, i.e. after **know, say, tell**. *I don't know who that is. Do you know where they're from?* (10T).

Table 4.5 Collocations and uses of 'who' and 'where'

	BLUEPRINT ONE	CCEC Level 1
<i>Who – questions</i>	52	69
know who	3	2
say who	7	1
tell who	0	0
decide who	1	0
find who	0	1
find out who	1	3
guess who	0	1
hear who	1	0
remember who	0	1
see who	1	0
work out who	0	1
write who	0	1
Total of occurrences in the indirect form	14	11
<i>Where – questions</i>	22	105
know where	0	22
say where	13	5
tell where	2	7
ask where	1	0
check where	1	0
decide where	1	0
find where	1	3
find out where	1	0
is where	0	1
read where	2	0
remember where	0	5
stay where	0	2
went where	0	1
Total of occurrences in the indirect form	22	46

The number of occurrences in table 4.5 show that the **wh- words** are more common in questions than in the indirect form in both coursebooks. In this particular case it seems that the Blueprint One corpus rather than the CCEC Level 1 corpus reflects better the COBUILD corpus when it comes to the number of occurrences for the word **where**. In Blueprint One the number of occurrences of the word **where** in questions is the same as the number of occurrences in the indirect form.

4- The word 'you'

'**you** 1 pronoun. May be singular or plural. Note: most frequently followed by **can / know / have / see / don't / are / get / want / think**. **You are** is not the most common phrase with **you**' (10T).

Table 4.6 Collocations of 'you'

	BLUEPRINT ONE	CCEC Level 1
you can	49	81
you know	16	103
you have	30	107
you've	11 = 41	20 = 127
you see	7	21
you don't	4	29
you are	66	49
you're	27 = 93	20 = 69
you get	25	38
you want	47	26
you think	47	85

Table 4.6 shows that in CCEC Level 1 **you are** does not appear as the most common phrase when it does in Blueprint One. This means to say that the corpus from CCEC Level 1 introduces this insight which stems from the broader corpus – the COBUILD corpus. The numbers also show that although **you are** is the fifth most common collocation in CCEC Level 1, it does not follow the exact order highlighted by Willis, i.e., it should come after the phrases with 'can', 'know', 'have', 'see' and 'don't' but it comes after the phrases with 'have', 'know', 'think' and 'can'.

5- The word 'husband'

'**husband** 1 Note: preceded by **her** more often than **my**' (16T).

Table 4.7 Collocations of 'husband'

	BLUEPRINT ONE	CCEC Level 1
her husband	2	3
my husband	8	4

The numbers in the table above show that **my husband** is more frequent than **her husband** in both coursebooks. So, neither coursebook introduces this computational evidence.

6- The word 'own'

'**own** 1 to emphasise possession. *so it's your own flat.*

2 done alone. *Read it on your own.* Note: '**to own**' as a verb is much less frequent' (28T).

Table 4.8 Uses of 'own'

	BLUEPRINT ONE	CCEC Level 1
1 to emphasise possession	10	25
2 done alone	3	9
'to own'	1	0

According to table 4.8, '**to own**' is less frequent than the two other uses of **own** in both coursebooks. It is interesting to notice that the use of **own** as a verb does not even appear in CCEC Level 1.

7- The word 'itself'

'**herself, himself, itself, myself, themselves, yourself, yourselves** (also **ourselves**)

1 *I bought myself a.../ got myself a drink.* (reflexive)

2 *I bought it myself. Do it yourself.* (emphatic). (**Itself** is more common in the emphatic use.)' (60T).

Table 4.9 Occurrences and uses of 'itself'

	BLUEPRINT ONE	CCEC Level 1
itself	-	2
(emphatic)	-	-

Although Willis comments on the emphatic use of **itself**, this word appears twice in the CCEC Level 1 corpus, but only out of context. And in the case of Blueprint One, it does not appear at all.

8- The word 'many'

'**many** 1 a lot, a large number. *Many people / things, Write as many true sentences as you can.* Note: **Many** occurs comparatively rarely with negatives and in questions – contrary to expectations' (60T).

Table 4.10 Occurrences and uses of 'many'

	BLUEPRINT ONE	CCEC Level 1
affirmative sentences	23	28
negative sentences	1	1
questions	25	99

Table 4.10 shows that, both in Blueprint One and CCEC Level 1, the number of occurrences of **many** in negative sentences is very low. But when it comes to the number of occurrences in affirmative sentences and in questions, the numbers show that Blueprint One reflects better the COBUILD corpus than CCEC Level 1 because in Blueprint One the number of occurrences of **many** in questions is much lower than the number of occurrences in Willis's material.

9- The word form 'parents'

'**parent** 1 Note: plural **parents** more common than singular form' (16T).

Table 4.11 Occurrences of 'parents' and 'parent'

	BLUEPRINT ONE	CCEC Level 1
parents	15	27
parent	2	2

In table 4.11 we see that the plural form **parents** appears more than its singular form **parent** in both coursebooks. So both reflect the broader corpus – the COBUILD one.

10- The word form 'began'

'begin (began is more common) 1.1 *He began to eat...*' (60T).

Table 4.12 Occurrences of 'began' and 'begin'

	BLUEPRINT ONE	CCEC Level 1
began	5	4
begin	7	11

Begin proved to be more frequent than **began** in both books. In fact, when comparing the number of occurrences of **began** and **begin** in Blueprint One and CCEC Level 1 we realise that the difference in their frequency in Blueprint One is lower than the difference we notice in Willis's material, i.e., it seems that Blueprint One is closer to what is suggested by the COBUILD corpus than CCEC Level 1.

11- The word form 'told'

'**tell** 1 *Tell the class about your partner. (Philip told Chris his phone number.)*

Note: **told** is more frequent than **tell**' (9T).

Table 4.13 Occurrences of 'told' and 'tell'

	BLUEPRINT ONE	CCEC Level 1
told	5	12
tell	51	144

The table above shows that in both books **tell** is more frequent than **told**. So, none of them reflect the COBUILD corpus.

12- The word form 'spent'

'**spend** (**spent** more common than **spend**) 1 time. *spent three days in the South, spent all day...*

2 money. *spent a lot of money, spent \$450 on a computer*' (68T).

Table 4.14 Occurrences of 'spent' and 'spend'

	BLUEPRINT ONE	CCEC Level 1
spent	16	9
spend	22	12

In both coursebooks **spend** rather than **spent** is more frequent.

13- The pattern 'there was'

'**was / is** 3 used to indicate something exists. *there is/are/was/were...* Note: **Was** is more common than **is**' (22T).

Table 4.15 Occurrences of 'there was' and 'there is'

	BLUEPRINT ONE	CCEC Level 1
there was	2	13
there is	18	40
there's	56	68

There is proved to be more common than **there was** in both books. In this case, as well as it happened in the other cases which involved the past tense of verbs (see tables 4.12, 4.13 and 4.14 above), we realise that none of the coursebooks analysed reflect the broader corpus provided by the COBUILD project.

Unfortunately, the analysis of the tables showed that CCEC Level 1 reflects very little the COBUILD corpus concerning the computational findings analysed. As a result, both coursebooks (CCEC Level 1 and Blueprint One) do not differ very much. With very few exceptions, which are items 4, 6 and 9 and partially item 2, (disregarding item 11 that could not be analysed), the majority of the insights highlighted by Willis in the 'Lexical Objectives' is not present in CCEC Level 1. And when it comes to items 6 ('to own' is less frequent than the other uses of 'own') and 9 ('parents' is more common than 'parent'), it was proved that the insights appear in both coursebooks. This seems to mean that these insights do not represent something completely new in terms of language coverage.

In item 2 (collocations of 'I'), we spot something different between the two coursebooks. The collocation **I am** is the most common one in Blueprint One reflecting a traditional approach whereas it is not in CCEC Level 1. But the difference is not so meaningful

because **I am** appears as the second most common collocation in CCEC Level 1 when it should appear as the twelfth most common one. So, in this case the computational results are not fully put into practice. It is only in the case of item 4 (collocations of 'you') that we see something new taking place in Willis's material. The phrase **you are** does not appear as the most common one. Our analysis also showed that in many cases both coursebooks present similar coverage of the language. This is the case of items 10, 11, 12 and 13. This suggests that Willis's own coverage of these items seems very traditional. Surprisingly, in two of the cases (3 - **wh- words** and 8- **many**) one realises that Blueprint One appeared to be truer to the COBUILD corpus than CCEC Level 1 (see tables 4.5 and 4.10).

But, among all the conclusions reached, the one that particularly called our attention was that concerning the use of **any**. Although Willis is very emphatic about the computational results which revealed the way **any** is used in real language, he does not seem able to put all this knowledge into practice since our analysis (see comments on table 4.3) showed that although there is an increase in the number of occurrences of **any** in affirmative sentences, there is still a greater number of occurrences of **any** in questions.

On the whole, the analysis carried out about the insights provided by the computational analysis of the language, showed that Willis's corpus does not fully reflect the broader corpus which seemed to serve as the basis of his work. This puts in question the effectiveness of the lexical syllabus itself because it does not correspond to Willis's proposal of giving coverage of the insights provided by the results reached through the COBUILD project.

Moving to the **second aspect** which has to do with Willis's proposal of covering the most common words, word forms and patterns of the language, we find them in Willis's three lists in CCEC Level 1: 'Important words to remember', 'Wordlist' and 'Lexical Objectives'.

They include what we believe to be the basis of the lexical syllabus. So, it is our intention to check if these words and phrases are present not only in CCEC Level 1, but also in Blueprint One. In this way we intend to spot differences and/or similarities between the two coursebooks in order to be able to find out if the lexical syllabus really represents a new approach to language teaching or if it does not differ much from a well-known approach to language teaching such as the one presented in Blueprint One.

In order to carry out this analysis we organised the data in a table (see appendix 6) which contains the following information: the first column is a compilation of Willis's three lists: the 'Important words to remember', the 'Wordlist' from the Student's Book and the 'Lexical Objectives' from the Teacher's Book (the information between brackets refers to the unit where the word appears, e.g. (U3) = unit 3 and so on). This compilation stems from the 'Wordlist' because it is the one which provides the words in alphabetical order. We decided to have all the words from the three sources in order to provide a list as complete as possible for our analysis, since we are not sure which list Willis finds the most important or wants to emphasise or focus on the most. In this way we believe that this compilation is the one which may, as we stated before, constitute the basis of the lexical syllabus proposed by Willis.

The other two columns show the number of times each word, word inflexion or phrase occur both in the 'Blueprint One' and the 'CCEC Level 1' corpora. As it is not clear if Willis's selection of words concentrates on listing only the most frequent forms, i.e., the most frequent inflexions of the words, we decided to take into consideration in our compilation two different aspects: first the plural forms of the words, which appear between brackets and second the occurrences of the verbs in the third person singular present form, which were added to the occurrences of the base form of the verb. When the distinction between, for instance, verb and

noun was not clearly stated we considered all instances of the word without taking into consideration its meaning.

The analysis of the data revealed that out of the 854 words, word inflexions and phrases listed in the entries of the table (cf. appendix 6), 62 or 7.26% do not appear at all in the corpus of *Blueprint One*. They are: 'army'; 'arrangement'; 'become' (participle); 'bell'; 'bodies'; 'carried'; 'centuries'; 'chance'; 'changed'; 'crossed'; 'definitely'; 'degree'; 'detail'; 'direction'; 'emergency'; 'fifties'; 'fire'; 'forgotten'; 'forties'; 'further'; 'helped'; 'held'; 'hoped'; 'individual'; 'itself'; 'labour'; 'lady'; 'licence'; 'loved'; 'meant'; 'neither'; 'okay'; 'ourselves'; 'played'; 'political'; 'power'; 'pressed'; 'rang'; 'repeated'; 'secretaries'; 'seem'; 'seemed'; 'set out/off'; 'shared'; 'shown'; 'sky'; 'supposed'; 'tend'; 'tended'; 'themselves'; 'thirties'; 'thousand'; 'till'; 'twenties'; 'universities'; 'used to'; 'vary'; 'varied'; 'whatever'; 'whether'; 'within'; 'yeah'.

The absence of some of them in the *Blueprint One* corpus is understandable if we take into consideration that: nineteen of the words listed above are verbs either in the past or participle forms and that the learners of *Blueprint One* are only introduced to the simple past and the present perfect, i.e. they do not fully practise these tenses; the words 'arrangement', 'degree', 'detail', 'direction', 'lady' and 'thousand' all appear in the plural form in the *Blueprint One* Corpus; although the words 'okay' and 'yeah' do not appear, the expression 'OK' appears 53 times and the word 'yes' appears 328 times in *Blueprint One* and that the words 'centuries', 'forties', 'itself', 'loved', 'supposed', 'tend', 'tended', 'twenties' and 'varied' which do not appear in *Blueprint One* but appear only out of context in *CCEC Level 1*, the number of absences could be reduced to 26 or only 3.04% out of 854. We believe that this number cannot be considered high enough to represent a meaningful difference between

Willis's material and *Blueprint One*, which means to say that both coursebooks cover almost exactly the same words, word inflexions and phrases. This may suggest that the writers of *Blueprint One* also used some kind of lexical list to design their material, since we know that the computational analysis of language became a common procedure among the ones who are involved with language learning and teaching and the production of dictionaries and coursebooks. In this sense, we do not see any real advantage in using the lexical syllabus in the place of another syllabus such as the one presented in *Blueprint One*.

Our second aim is to check if the meanings, uses and patterns of some words are also present both in Willis's material and in *Blueprint One*. To proceed our analysis we selected 102 entries (see table 4.16 below) from the table in appendix 6, which include 215 different meanings, uses and patterns. This number represents around 17.3% of all the meanings present in Willis's material which total 1,236. The selection was made taking into consideration that the entries included words, word inflexions or phrases present both in *CCEC Level 1* and *Blueprint One*. We also avoided the entries which acknowledged presented problems in terms of categories of meaning, i.e., when the same category number referred to different meanings or the other way round or when the meaning was not clearly stated. The compilation included the following inflexions of the entries when not stated: plural forms, third person singular present form and -ing forms. It is important to mention that the numbers in table 4.16 refer to the instances that undoubtedly exemplify the meanings, uses or patterns analysed.

Out of the 215 categories and sub-categories of meanings, 52 do not appear at all in *Blueprint One*. This represents around 24.1% of the total of meanings analysed. And when it comes to *CCEC Level 1*, our analysis revealed that out of the 215 categories and sub-categories of meanings, 11 (around 5.1%) do not appear in Willis's own material. They are:

category of meaning 1 of the entry 'above'; category of meaning 2 of the entry 'degree'; category of meaning 1 of the entry 'press, pressed'; category of meaning 2 of the entry 'quarter'; category of meaning 2 of the entry 'set'; category of meaning 1 of the entry 'sign'; categories of meaning 2 and 3 of the entry 'single'; category of meaning 4 of the entry 'sorry'; category of meaning 2 of the entry 'stand, stood, standing' and category of meaning 1.1 of the entry 'straight'. If we deduct the number of absences in *CCEC Level 1* from the number of absences in *Blueprint One* we still end up with 19% of difference between the two coursebooks. Although this result does not represent statistical evidence, since the selection was not done at random due to the problems caused by Willis's inconsistency in his categorization of meanings, it suggests that in terms of meanings, uses and patterns Willis's coverage tends to be richer than the one provided by *Blueprint One*. It also suggests that the lexical syllabus seems successful in its proposal of generating meanings and patterns from the words it focus on.

Table 4.16 Occurrences of meanings, uses and patterns in Blueprint One and CCEC Level 1

LIST OF WORDS FROM CCEC LEVEL 1	BLUEPRINT ONE	CCEC LEVEL 1
1 a		
2 used with phrases expressing quantity. <i>a lot of, a few, a bit</i> (U4)	34	133
5 after verbs like take, have . (U11)	101	132
2 above		
1 overhead. <i>the sky above us</i> (U13)	-	-
2 (opposite of below) (U13)	12	13
3 actually		
1 in truth, in reality. <i>Which of these questions does Myf actually ask?</i> (U8)	5	27
2 used conversationally to introduce a comment, or a point of clarification. <i>That's quite a long working day, isn't it. actually.</i> (U8)	2	13
4 afraid		
1 to show politeness. <i>I'm afraid we tend to be rather late...</i> (U8)	33	10
2 frightened. (U13)	-	3
5 answer, answered		
1 verb. (U4)	95	29
2 noun. (U4)	47	13
4 a solution to a problem. <i>One answer would be to...</i> (U14)	-	1
6 bad		
1 morally wrong. <i>bad behaviour, Some shops have bad staff.</i> (U7)	-	1
3 not good quality. <i>a bad buy, bad quality, It went bad.</i> (U7)	14	6
7 best		
2 the most convenient, expressing preference. <i>the best time to... The best thing to do is... the best way is...</i> (U6)	-	16
3 to do your best (U7)	-	1

8 better		
2 had better (U7)	-	4
3 advisable, preferable. <i>It's better to learn to swim as a child.</i> (U7)	5	5
9 book		
1 <i>Open your English books...</i> (U1)	75	124
2 <i>I haven't booked my ticket yet. The return booking is for 5.30 on 4th May.</i> (U13)	5	10
10 both		
1 and 1.1 being the two, the one as well as the other. <i>How many things have you both got?</i> (U2)	6	63
1.2 both...and. <i>Warmest regards to both you and Jane.</i> (U13)	-	7
11 buy, bought		
1 verb. <i>Buy now!</i> (U7)	52	76
2 noun. <i>a good buy, your best buy</i> (U7)	-	12
12 certainly		
1 definitely. <i>1989 - It's almost certainly a date. I'll certainly remember my birthday!</i> (U6)	1	3
2 after a request, of course. <i>Yes, certainly.</i> (U6)	6	4
13 child, children		
1 a person from baby to becoming an adult. <i>a child of 14</i> (U2)	19	51
2 a son or a daughter of any age. <i>Have you got any children?</i> (U2)	38	58
14 close, closed		
1 verb. <i>Close your books.</i> (U4)	16	14
2 to stop working for the day. <i>closed on Wednesday</i> (U5)	1	6
3 very near to something. <i>another place very close</i> (U9)	1	8
15 common		
1 found or occurring regularly. <i>David is a common name.</i> (U4)	3	15
2 in common (U4)	-	12
16 cost		
1 noun. <i>at a cost of \$30,000</i> (U4)	1	4
2 verb. <i>How much would a house like that cost in your country?</i> (U4)	12	8
17 course		
1 in the phrase of course. (U3)	12	19
2 a course of study. <i>an English course</i> (U6)	4	33
18 dark		
1 <i>in the dark</i> (U14)	2	3
2 <i>dark brown/blue/hair/glasses</i> (U3)	11	8
19 degree		
2 <i>32 degrees centigrade</i> (U12)	4	-
20 direction		
1 the way you are moving to/from. <i>a different direction</i> (U9)	-	2
2 directions - instructions. <i>Phil gave Chris directions to his house.</i> (U9)	3	15
21 drink, drank, drunk		
1 verb (U5)	26	15
2 a drink (often alcohol) (U5)	20	11
22 end		
1 the finish, referring to points in time. <i>at the end of the lesson/ course, in the end, by the end of...</i> (U9)	6	8
2 the far point of. <i>walk right up to the end of the road</i> (U9)	2	19
23 English		
1 adjective. <i>English people.</i> (U1)	42	64
2 the language. <i>in English...</i> (U1)	71	64
24 feel, felt		
1 <i>feel tired/hot</i> (U7)	18	8
3 <i>This bed feels very hard.</i> (U7)	-	1
4 to want something <i>I feel like a drink.</i> (U7)	-	2
25 few		
1 a few meaning some but not many (U6)	10	18
26 flat		
1 noun. <i>Do you live in a house or a flat?</i> (U4)	37	113
27 form, formed		
2 verb = to start. <i>to form a club, a political party</i> (U11)	-	2
3 # <i>Write your address on the form.</i> (U1)	10	7
4 class/level in secondary school. (U9)	-	1
28 full		
1 complete, whole. <i>a full day, full-time</i> (U6)	12	13
2 full of = a lot. <i>That shop is full of really nice books.</i> (U6)	2	1
29 glasses		
<i>a pair of glasses, Do you wear glasses?</i> (U6-10)	10	26

30 go, went, gone, going 2 to attend, visit. <i>go to college/university/ hospital</i> (U9) 3 go on meaning continue. <i>Go on further down the road.</i> (U9)	72 -	42 17
31 hard 1 not soft. <i>the ground was hard</i> (U8) 2 difficult. <i>He was quite hard to understand.</i> (U8) 3 done with a lot of effort. <i>hard work, who works harder?</i> (U8)	- 4 10	1 1 22
32 hold, held 1 <i>holding his arm/hand</i> (U3) hold on = wait (often when telephoning) (U6)	1 4	5 3
33 hope, hoped 1 <i>I hope you are well. Hope to see you.</i> (U11-15) 2 noun. <i>He went back in the hope of finding his book.</i> (U11-15)	13 -	18 1
34 instead 1 instead of (U6-10)	-	15
35 interested 5.1 <i>boys who are interested in bikes</i> (U7)	6	11
36 job 1 work done everyday in order to earn money. <i>I've got a good job. What's your job?</i> (U8) 2 small amount of work, not necessarily paid. <i>jobs around the house/garden</i> (U8)	52 3	33 3
37 keep, kept 1 make something or somebody stay in a particular position or state. <i>to keep the food hot</i> (U14-Wordpower 218) 2 have something and not throw it away, give it away, give it to someone else or lose it <i>Keep those notes. They might be useful.</i> (U14-Wordpower 218) 3 put something in a particular place and store it there. <i>You should either keep your driving licence with you, or keep it in the car.</i> (U14-Wordpower 218) 4 repeatedly do a particular action. <i>I kept making the same mistake.</i> (U14-Wordpower 218)	7 2 - -	9 6 8 12
38 key 1 essential, important. <i>key words</i> (U2) 2 a door key. <i>Have you got your key?</i> (U2)	3 5	2 19
39 kind 1 sort/type (U7)	1	16
40 know, knew, known 1 <i>to know a fact. I don't know where that is in Spain. As far as I know, it's...</i> (U12) 2 to have the skills/ability. <i>to know how to do something, to know a language</i> (U12) 3 # to be familiar with a person, place or thing. <i>Do you know David? I don't know London very well.</i> (U1) 4 phrase. <i>you know...</i> (used in conversation) <i>Oh, you know, Paris... You know, just a pure guess.</i> (U12)	27 - 10 2	79 11 73 4
41 less 2 <i>less expensive</i> (U4) 2.1 <i>more or less</i> (U11)	2 -	9 2
42 let 1 allow. <i>Let others read your letter.</i> (U12) 2 suggesting. <i>Let's say/put...</i> (U12)	9 37	24 40
43 letter 1 <i>Write a letter to...</i> (U6) 2 <i>letters of the alphabet</i> (U1)	55 23	55 23
44 light 1 <i>Shall we have the lights on? Traffic lights.</i> (U3) 2 <i>Shall I light the gas?</i> (U3) 3 not heavy. <i>Her bag was very light.</i> (U3) 4 not dark. <i>She had light brown hair.</i> (U3)	3 1 4 3	25 1 2 4
45 like, liked 1 similar to. (U5) 2 for example. (U5) 3 to think something is nice. <i>I like ice-cream.</i> (U5) 4 to want something. <i>I'd like an ice-cream. Would you like a drink?</i> (U5)	90 9 197 117	87 11 87 62
46 long 3 measuring (U7)	40	24
47 lot 1 a lot (of) = a large number or amount of. (U2) 1.1 adverb - a lot = often/frequently. (U6)	14 3	54 5
48 may 1 modal verb, similar to might <i>It may be John...</i> (U6) 2 <i>May I borrow this for a moment?</i> (U4)	2 -	21 3
49 mind 2 <i>Do you mind if...? Never mind! It doesn't matter.</i> (U4)	-	26

50 more 1 <i>more important/recent</i> (U14) 2.1 phrase: <i>more...than...</i> (U2)	15 6	29 21
51 most 1 <i>very many but not all. Most people have three names.</i> (U4) 2 <i>superlatives. the most expensive...</i> (U4)	14 23	41 18
52 must 1 <i>have to. You must put in the money before...</i> (U14) 2 <i>It must be John!</i> (U6)	26 2	17 15
53 need, needed 1 <i>need a drink</i> (U5) 1.1 noun. <i>There's no need to... the needs of the poor</i> (U14)	24 -	50 4
54 old 1 <i>aged, having lived for many years. an old man</i> (U2) 2 <i>no longer new. an old house</i> (U4) 3 <i>ten years old. How old are they?</i> (U2) 4 <i>an old friend of mine, that's an old problem</i> (U11-15)	5 17 43 -	6 20 17 4
55 order 1 <i>in order to...</i> (U6-10) 4 <i>in sequence. Put the pictures in order</i> (U7)	- 7	4 32
56 other 1 <i>additional. Talk to other people in the class.</i> (U7) 3 <i>each other</i> (U7)	29 3	80 24
57 paper 1 <i>a piece of paper</i> (U5) 2 <i>a newspaper</i> (U5)	1 2	5 3
58 park 1 <i>area of land with trees and grass</i> (U9) 1.1 <i>car park</i> (U9) 2 <i>to park a car</i> (U9)	11 23 9	37 2 5
59 particularly 1 <i>for emphasis. Sussex... with quiet villages, particularly around the South Downs.</i> (U11) 2 <i>with adjective. a particularly busy week</i> (U11)	1 -	3 3
60 party, parties 1 <i>political (e.g. Labour)</i> (U11)	-	5
61 perhaps 1 <i>Oriental perhaps? Perhaps he's not well.</i> (U12) 2 <i>polite suggestion. Perhaps we could start the meeting now...</i> (U12)	1 -	6 3
62 plan, planned 1 <i>Plan what you are going to say.</i> (U3) 1 <i>planning preparations</i> (U13)	9 14	31 40
63 present 1 <i>the present generation</i> (U11) 2 <i>at present</i> (U11)	6 -	8 4
64 press, pressed 1 <i>newspapers. It was reported in the press that...</i> (U11) 1.1 <i>journalists. a press conference</i> (U11) 2 <i>to press a button</i> (U14)	- - 2	- 1 10
65 public 1 <i>public telephone / transport</i> (U14) 2 <i>the public, in public</i> (U14)	6 2	6 1
66 quarter 1 <i>telling the time. a quarter past four / to six</i> (U6) 2 <i>1 ¼ - one and a quarter</i> (U6)	8 1	11 -
67 question 1 <i>Are there any questions?</i> (U4)	181	117
68 rather 1 <i>a bit. You're rather late. Rather expensive.</i> (U8) 2 <i>instead of. run rather than walking</i> (U11)	- 2	10 2
69 really 1 <i>very. It was a really nice house.</i> (U4) 2 <i>to gain time, or to express uncertainty. It's a bit long, really. I don't really enjoy it.</i> (U7)	22 7	25 15
70 right 1.1 <i>in phrases affirming, agreeing, checking. Is that right?</i> (U2) 5 <i>e.g. the girl on the right</i> (U3)	24 15	168 65
71 ring, rang 1 <i>to telephone</i> (U6)	2	16

72 room 1 a room in a house. <i>bedroom, sitting-room</i> (U4) 2 space. <i>Is there room for me here?</i> (U12)	64 -	47 3
73 set 1 a set of keys (U15) 2 <i>The sun sets later in summer.</i> (U15)	- -	25 -
74 short 1 limited in time / duration. <i>a short break, life's too short</i> (U11) 2 <i>short hair</i> (U7)	2 68	6 30
75 sign 1 symbol (U5) 2 a notice. <i>There's a sign saying 'Open on Sunday'.</i> (U5)	- 3	- 23
76 single 1 a single span bridge (U12) 2 not married (U12) 3 <i>every single one</i> (U12)	- 3 -	3 - -
77 sleep, slept 1 verb. <i>sleep less, Go to sleep!</i> (U11) 2 noun. <i>How many hours of sleep do you need a night?</i> (U11)	11 -	9 1
78 small 1 not large in physical size. <i>a small bag</i> (U2) 2 containing only a few. <i>a small family</i> (U2) 3 young, <i>a small baby, two small children</i> (U2)	57 1 5	57 2 13
79 sorry 1 to apologise. <i>I'm sorry.</i> (U2) 4 used to correct yourself. <i>in the east, sorry, in the west</i> (U6) 4.2 when you haven't heard what someone has said. <i>Sorry?</i> (U2)	20 - 3	64 - 10
80 sort 1 <i>What sort of house...?</i> (U4) 2 used to convey uncertainty. <i>Her boots are sort of brown.</i> (U3)	18 -	24 32
81 sound 1 any kind of noise. <i>English Sounds, the sound of music</i> (U6) 2 <i>Did they sound certain? What did it sound like?</i> (U6)	61 4	49 16
82 spend, spent 1 time. <i>spent three years in the South, spent all day...</i> (U11) 2 money. <i>spent a lot of money, spent \$450 on a computer</i> (U11)	21 8	11 4
83 square 1 shape (U3)	9	34
84 stand, stood, standing 1 <i>only one woman standing inside</i> (U5) 2 stand up (U5)	6 3	17 -
85 state 1 <i>state schools, a one party state</i> (U12) 2 <i>in a bad state/bad state of health</i> (U12)	10 -	13 4
86 straight 1 same direction. <i>Go straight on, straight across the park</i> (U9) 1.1 <i>straight hair</i> (U9)	8 -	17 -
87 such 1.1 <i>such as to introduce an example</i> (U12) 2 <i>It's such a lovely day</i> (U11)	1 -	5 9
88 table 1 piece of furniture (U4) 2 containing information. <i>Practise some questions from the tables.</i> (U4)	26 3	10 28
89 tea 2 the drink (U3) 3 a light meal at about 4 p.m. (U8) 4 evening meal, dinner/supper. (U8)	25 1 -	20 2 2
90 together 1 with another person. <i>In the flat together. Work together with...</i> (U4) 2 joined together, touching, <i>terraced houses – joined together</i> (U4)	3 2	13 7
91 turn, turned 1 <i>He turned and walked away. Turn round now.</i> (U9) 2 to spin round. <i>Turn the key this way...</i> (U9) 3 to change direction when travelling. <i>Turn right...</i> (U9) 4 to change the position of something. <i>Turn over.</i> (U9) 5 <i>Whose turn is it? My turn.</i> (U9)	3 - 1 - 6	5 3 24 3 10
92 type 1 kind/sort (U12)	5	28

93 under 1 <i>She was carrying a duck under her arm.</i> (U6) 2 <i>less than. under 5,000</i> (U6)	6 3	6 8
94 use, used 1 <i>to use these phones... use a green phonecard</i> (U14) 2 <i>noun. the use of, it's no use, out of use</i> (U14)	170 3	187 22
95 view 1 <i>opinions. to get to know their views, what worries them</i> (U11-15) 2 <i>something seen from a place. a nice view of the town</i> (U8)	- 3	4 1
96 warm 1 <i>temperature, weather.</i> (U12) 2 <i>a warm coat</i> (U12)	7 1	4 4
97 way 1 <i>manner. The American way of saying dates. I don't like the way he sings.</i> (U6) 2 <i>When people ask the way, we give directions using landmarks.</i> (U9)	13 1	42 15
98 well 1 <i>used to start a sentence if the speaker is not quite sure what to say.</i> (U5) 3 <i>as well meaning 'too'.</i> (U5) 4 <i>as well as = 'in addition to'.</i> (U5)	38 1 2	90 36 9
99 which 1 <i>relative use</i> (U7) 2 <i>used in a question.</i> (U2)	19 72	46 152
100 who 1 <i>relative use</i> (U7) 3 <i>a question word used to ask the name or identity of someone.</i> (U1)	8 46	47 63
101 why 1 <i>Give the reason why you think so. I don't know why.</i> (U12) 2 <i>used in questions.</i> (U3)	15 38	5 58
102 yet 1 <i>but. We both lead our own lives and yet we get on well. expensive, yet not very nice.</i> (U4) 2 <i>I do not know yet... I haven't been here a year yet. Are you ready? Not yet!</i> (U13)	- 4	3 16

The data collected in table 4.16 above, enabled us to carry out the analysis of the **third aspect** which refers to the coverage of the most common categories of meaning in Willis's material, CCEC Level 1. We used the information to check if the frequency of the words listed in the table corresponds to the categories of meaning in terms of their numbers of classification, i.e., if category of meaning 1 of words and/or phrases is more frequent than category of meaning 2 of these same words and/or phrases and so on. In doing so we hoped to confirm WILLIS's (WILLIS and WILLIS 1988:10T) statement that '[c]ategory 1 is usually the commonest or most basic meaning.' This, we believe, would be essential to corroborate Willis's proposal of focusing on the most frequent patterns and uses of the language.

To carry out this analysis we took into consideration only the entries from table 4.16 which presented more than one category of meaning. So, out of the 102 entries, we analysed

88¹. As a result of our analysis, we reached the conclusion that in 46 of them or around 52.2% of the entries from CCEC Level 1 analysed, there is a direct correspondence between the number of occurrences, which define the frequency, and the categorisation of meanings. This means to say that there are more occurrences for category number 1 than category number 2 of a same word or phrase, and so on.

In eight entries (24, 40, 44, 58, 76, 78, 79 and 89) or around 9%, only the first category of meaning proved to be more frequent than the other categories. So, for instance, in entry 40 (know, knew, known) category 1 totalled 79 occurrences whereas category 2 totalled 11, category 3 reached 73 occurrences and category 4 only 4 occurrences. As we notice the occurrences for category of meaning 3 are higher than the ones for category of meaning 2 contradicting our expectations. In other four entries (23, 45, 59 and 96) we came across two different categories of meaning with the same number of occurrences, which did not make it possible to define the most frequent one. In all other 29 entries (32.9%), the first category of meaning had less occurrences than some other category of meaning, i.e., the meaning which was supposed to be more frequent turned out not to be so. For instance, entry 31 for the word 'hard'. There, categories of meaning 1 and 2 have only *one* occurrence each, while category of meaning 3 appears with *twenty-two* occurrences.

Although we cannot generalise the results reached, the analysis of the categories of meaning above suggests that Willis's expectation of covering the most common meanings, uses and patterns seems to be successfully achieved in the majority of the cases analysed.

To sum it up, when it comes to the coverage of words, word forms, patterns, meanings and uses in Willis's material, the coverage of the computational insights is not fully

¹ Except entries number 19,25, 26, 29, 34, 35, 39, 46, 49, 60, 67, 71, 83 and 92.

done. In terms of the coverage of the most common words, word forms and patterns of the language listed by him, we realise that some are not present in his material and that Blueprint One includes most of them. And finally, when it comes to the coverage of the most common categories of meaning we reach the conclusion that, the number of occurrences of the words, word inflexions and phrases analysed, correspond, in its majority, to the categorisations of meanings put forward by Willis. This means to say that CCEC Level 1 seems very similar to Blueprint One when it comes to both coverage of computational insights and the most common words, word forms and patterns, i.e., although Willis's material proposes a new approach to language teaching it seems very traditional despite the new point of view it explores. The novelty seems to lie in the coverage of the most common categories of meaning highlighted in Willis's CCEC Level 1.

5 CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter is allotted to the summary of the work carried out and the conclusions that were reached. It also includes suggestions for further research concerning the analysis of the lexical syllabus as an effective tool for language teaching and learning.

5.2 Summary and conclusions

According to the classification presented by Nunan in his book *Syllabus Design*, the lexical syllabus can be seen as both analytic and product-oriented. In this sense it looks very much like the notional syllabus, but it differs from the notional and the structural syllabuses in the following ways: first, it claims that a good coverage of the appropriate words will account for the necessary meanings, structures, notions and functions of the language. In this way it proposes to cover altogether what the other two syllabuses, the structural and notional ones, treat separately. Second, it explores the concept of the 'idiom principle' which 'is put forward to account for the restraints that are not captured by the open-choice model' (SINCLAIR 1991:110). According to SINCLAIR, the principle claims that 'the choice of one word affects the choice of others in its vicinity. Collocation is one of the patterns of mutual choice, and idiom is another' (173). It focuses not only on words but also on the combinations words are

engaged in. Third, the lexical syllabus is based, contrary to the structural and notional syllabuses, on information that derives from a computational analysis of real language, which was carried out by the COBUILD project.

In this way, the lexical syllabus represents an important shift of focus in the teaching of English because, besides rescuing the value of vocabulary in language teaching, it also leads others to rethink the way language is both taught and learned.

John Sinclair and Antoinette Renouf were the ones to put forward the idea of a lexical syllabus. They argue that

[i]n the construction of a balanced and comprehensive course, the designer will no doubt keep a tally of structures, notions and functions, as well as vocabulary. But in the presentation of materials based on a lexical syllabus, it is not strictly necessary to draw attention to these check lists. If the analysis of the words and phrases has been done correctly, then all the relevant grammar, etc. should appear in a proper proportion. Verb tenses, for example, which are often the main organizing feature of a course, are combinations of some of the commonest words in the language (In: CARTER and McCARTHY 1988:155).

It was based on Sinclair and Renouf's idea of a lexical syllabus, that Dave Willis and his wife Jane Willis designed their series of three coursebooks, Collins COBUILD English Course (CCEC). Among the three coursebooks, we decided to analyse the first one, CCEC Level 1. Our aim was to check if the implementation of the lexical syllabus corresponded to the theory as put forward by Sinclair and Renouf. WILLIS (In: WILLIS and WILLIS 1988:iii), in the Teacher's Book, has the following to say about the lexical syllabus: '[u]nlike traditional syllabuses, the lexical syllabus starts from a description of real language. In taking words and their meanings as the core items, the syllabus offers genuine coverage of the most central and typical patterns of English. It also provides a focus for language analysis, which allows students to develop and refine their awareness of the actual grammar of the language.' It is in this way that WILLIS establishes a list of words to be covered in his material. In the case of

CCEC Level 1 he argues that '[t]he syllabus [...] consists of 700 of the commonest words in today's English. These words, with their most important meanings and uses, have been identified by the COBUILD project' (In: WILLIS and WILLIS 1988:iii).

Through our analysis of Willis's material we came across three different lists of words: two in the Student's Book ('Important words to remember' and 'Wordlist') and one in the Teacher's Book ('Lexical Objectives'). The list 'Important words to remember' appears by the end of each unit and is used to highlight the words, and eventually some word forms, which appear in that specific unit, pointing out the number of words covered so far until it reaches 700 in the last unit. The 'Wordlist' appears by the end of the Student's Book and consists of a list not of words and word forms such as plural forms, past and past participle forms totalling 707 entries. Finally, the 'Lexical Objectives' in the Teacher's Book consists of entries with the word meanings, patterns and uses to be covered in the material. Our analysis of these lists showed that, in fact, none of them contains only 700 words or entries. Besides that, the lists do not match, i.e., some words or word forms that appear in one list do not appear in the others and vice-versa. So, if we were to put all of them together we would end up with a list of 714 entries.

According to Willis, learners are exposed to these words through a collection of written and spoken texts present in his material which consist in what he addresses as being the 'learner's corpus'. The aim of the learner's corpus is to provide the context for Willis's list of words; but as far as the learner's corpus is concerned, our analysis showed that not all the words are presented in context, i.e., some of the words appear only in the lists, a fact that seems to contradict one of the main purposes of the learner's corpus.

Our analysis also showed that, in terms of coverage of structures, words, word forms, patterns, meanings and uses, Willis's coursebook reflects very much Sinclair and Renouf's ideas, i.e., these items are covered mainly lexically. In the case of the presentation of some grammar points, one can notice the attempt to introduce a new approach to the teaching of grammar. This can be seen in the case of, for instance, the introduction of 'going to' as one of the collocations of 'go' (cf. WILLIS and WILLIS 1988:64); the treatment of 'been' as a lexical item (cf. WILLIS and WILLIS 1988:83); the emphasis given to the delexicalisation of verbs such as 'have', 'make' and 'go'; the '-ing' form treated as an adjective.

But, when it comes to the coverage of functions, we realise that Willis makes use of a task-based syllabus instead of a lexical syllabus. This means to say that the majority of the functions present in the coursebook are introduced through tasks and not lexically as one would expect. This can denote that, in the case of Willis's material, a lexical presentation did not seem suitable for the appropriate coverage of functions.

Our analysis of the lexical syllabus also included a comparison between what takes place in Willis's coursebook and another coursebook, *Blueprint One*, which was designed taking into consideration a syllabus other than a lexical syllabus. This comparison showed us that the lexical syllabus in CCEC Level 1 differs from the syllabus in *Blueprint One* mainly in terms of coverage of meanings, uses and patterns but not in terms of coverage of lexical items, i.e., most of the words present in Willis's list is also present in *Blueprint One*. The same does not happen with some of the meanings, uses and patterns we analysed, which are not present in *Blueprint One*.

5.3 Further research

We believe that a follow-up step to this work would be to find out how the lexical syllabus really affects learning, to understand how effective it can be when learners' performance in the language is evaluated. In this way it would be interesting to carry out a study with learners, who would be exposed to language learning through the lexical syllabus and another type of syllabus. It would be interesting to check, for instance, the results reached through two different approaches to the teaching of grammar: the traditional one where the structures are presented systematically, in a contrastive way, making use of metalanguage, labels and restrictive rules; and the one proposed by Willis, which intends to give a broader view of the language through the lexical presentation of grammar points. This could enable the researcher to find out, in this case, if learners are able to cope with the amount of information provided by a lexical approach to language teaching and if the use of a contrastive methodology really hinders learners' ability to make generalisations about the language.

APPENDIX 1 – Ogden and Richards’s ‘Basic English Word List’

OPERATIONS 100	THINGS				200 Picturable		QUALITIES	
	400 General	400 General	METAL	SENSE	ANGLE	KNEE	100 General	50 Opposites
COME	ACCOUNT	EDUCATION	METAL	SENSE	ANGLE	KNEE	ABLE	AWAKE
GET	ACT	EFFECT	MIDDLE	SERVANT	ANT	KNIFE	ACID	BAD
GIVE	ADDITION	ENO	MILK	SEX	APPLE	KNOT	ANGRY	BENT
GO	ADJUSTMENT	ERROR	MIND	SHADE	ARCH	LEAF	AUTOMATIC	BITTER
KEEP	ADVERTISEMENT	EVENT	MINE	SHAKE	ARM	LEG	BEAUTIFUL	BLUE
LET	AGREEMENT	EXAMPLE	MINUTE	SHAME	ARMY	LIBRARY	BLACK	CERTAIN
MAKE	AIR	EXCHANGE	MIST	SHOCK	BABY	LINE	BOILING	COLD
PUT	AMOUNT	EXISTENCE	MONEY	SIDE	BAG	LIP	BRIGHT	COMPLETE
SEEM	AMUSEMENT	EXPANSION	MONTH	SIGN	BALL	LOCK	BROKEN	CRUEL
TAKE	ANIMAL	EXPERIENCE	MORNING	SILK	BAND	MAP	BROWN	DARK
BE	ANSWER	EXPERT	MOTHER	SILVER	BASIN	MATCH	CHEAP	DEAD
DO	APPARATUS	FACT	MOTION	SISTER	BASKET	MONKEY	CHEMICAL	DEAR
HAVE	APPROVAL	FALL	MOUNTAIN	SIZE	BATH	MOON	CHIEF	DELICATE
SAY	ARGUMENT	FAMILY	MOVE	SKY	BED	MOUTH	CLEAN	DIFFERENT
SEE	ART	FATHER	MUSIC	SLEEP	BEE	MUSCLE	CLEAR	DIRTY
SEND	ATTACK	FEAR	NAME	SLIP	BELL	NAIL	COMMON	DRY
MAY	ATTEMPT	FEELING	NATION	SLOPE	BERRY	NECK	COMPLEX	FALSE
WILL	ATTENTION	FICTION	NEED	SMASH	BIRD	NEEDLE	CONSCIOUS	FEEBLE
ABOUT	ATTRACTION	FIELD	NEWS	SMELL	BLADE	NERVE	CUT	FEMALE
ACROSS	AUTHORITY	FIGHT	NIGHT	SMILE	BOARD	NET	DEEP	FOOLISH
AFTER	BACK	FIRE	NOISE	SMOKE	BOAT	NOSE	DEPENDENT	FUTURE
AGAINST	BALANCE	FLAME	NOTE	SNEEZE	BONE	NUT	EARLY	GREEN
AMONG	BASE	FLIGHT	NUMBER	SNOW	BOOK	OFFICE	ELASTIC	ILL
AT	BEHAVIOUR	FLOWER	OBSERVATION	SOAP	BOOT	ORANGE	ELECTRIC	LAST
BEFORE	BELIEF	FOLD	OFFER	SOCIETY	BOTTLE	OVEN	EQUAL	LATE
BETWEEN	BIRTH	FOOD	OIL	SON	BOX	PARCEL	FAT	LEFT
BY	BIT	FORCE	OPERATION	SONG	BOY	PEN	FERTILE	LOOSE
DOWN	BITE	FORM	OPINION	SORT	BRAIN	PENCIL	FIRST	LOUD
FROM	BLOOD	FRIEND	ORDER	SOUND	BRAKE	PICTURE	FIXED	LOW
IN	BLOW	FRONT	ORGANIZATION	SOUP	BRANCH	PIG	FLAT	MIXED
OFF	BODY	FRUIT	ORNAMENT	SPACE	BRICK	PIN	FREE	NARROW
ON	BRASS	GLASS	OWNER	STAGE	BRIDGE	PIPE	FREQUENT	OLD
OVER	BREAD	GOLD	PAGE	START	BRUSH	PLANE	FULL	OPPOSITE
THROUGH	BREATH	GOVERNMENT	PAIN	STATEMENT	BUCKET	PLATE	GENERAL	PUBLIC
TO	GROTH	GRAIN	PAIN	STEAM	BULB	PLOUGH	GOOD	ROUGH
UNDER	BUILDING	GRASS	PAPER	STEEL	BUTTON	POCKET	GREAT	SAD
UP	BURN	GRIP	PART	STEP	CAKE	POT	GREY	SAFE
WITH	BURST	GROUP	PASTE	STITCH	CAMERA	POTATO	HANGING	SECRET
AS	BUSINESS	GROWTH	PAYMENT	STONE	CARD	PRISON	HAPPY	SHORT
FOR	BUTTER	GUIDE	PEACE	STOP	CART	PUMP	HARD	SHUT
OF	CANVAS	HARBOR	PERSON	STORY	CARRIAGE	RAIL	HEALTHY	SIMPLE
TILL	CARE	HARMONY	PLACE	STRETCH	CAT	RAT	HIGH	SLOW
THAN	CAUSE	HATE	PLANT	STRUCTURE	SMAIN	RECEIPT	HOLLOW	SMALL
A	CHALK	HEARING	PLAY	SUBSTANCE	CHEESE	RING	IMPORTANT	SOFT
THE	CHANCE	HEAT	PLEASURE	SUGAR	CHEST	ROD	KIND	SOLID
ALL	CHANGE	HELP	POINT	SUGGESTION	CHIN	ROOF	LIKE	SPECIAL
ANY	CLOTH	HISTORY	POISON	SUMMER	CHURCH	ROOT	LIVING	STRANGE
EVERY	COAL	HOLE	POLISH	SUPPORT	CIRCLE	SAIL	LONG	THIN
NO	COLOR	HOPE	PORTER	SURPRISE	CLOCK	SCHOOL	MALE	WHITE
OTHER	COMFORT	HOUR	POSITION	SWIM	CLOUD	SCISSORS	MARRIED	WRONG
SUCH	COMMITTEE	HUMOR	POWDER	SYSTEM	COAT	SCREW	MATERIAL	
THAT	COMPANY	ICE	POWER	TALK	COLLAR	SEED	MEDICAL	
THIS	COMPARISON	IDEA	PRICE	TASTE	COMB	SHEEP	MILITARY	
I	COMPETITION	IMPULSE	PRINT	TAX	CORD	SHelf	NATURAL	
HE	CONDITION	INCREASE	PROCESS	TEACHING	COW	SHIP	NECESSARY	
YOU	CONNECTION	INDUSTRY	PRODUCE	TENDENCY	CUP	SHIRT	NEW	
WHO	CONTROL	INK	PROFIT	TEST	CURTAIN	SHOE	NORMAL	
AND	COOK	INSECT	PROPERTY	THEORY	CUSHION	SKIN	OPEN	
BECAUSE	COPPER	INSTRUMENT	PROSE	THING	DOG	SKIRT	PARALLEL	
BUT	COPY	INSURANCE	PROTEST	THOUGHT	DOOR	SNAKE	PAST	
OR	CORK	INTEREST	PULL	THUNDER	DRAIN	SOCK	PHYSICAL	
IF	COTTON	INVENTION	PUNISHMENT	TIME	DRAWER	SPADE	POLITICAL	
THOUGH	COUGH	IRON	PURPOSE	TIN	DRESS	SPONGE	POOR	
WHILE	COUNTRY	JELLY	PUSH	TOP	DROP	SPoon	POSSIBLE	
HOW	COVER	JOIN	QUALITY	TOUCH	EAR	SPRING	PRESENT	
WHEN	CRACK	JOURNEY	QUESTION	TRADE	EGG	SQUARE	PRIVATE	
WHERE	CREDIT	JUDGE	RAIN	TRANSPORT	ENGINE	STAMP	PROBABLE	
WHY	CRIME	JUMP	RANGE	TROUBLE	EYE	TRICK	QUICK	
AGAIN	CRUSH	KICK	RATE	TURN	FACE	STATION	QUIET	
EVER	CRY	KISS	RAY	TWIST	FARM	STEM	READY	
FAR	CURRENT	KNOWLEDGE	REACTION	UNIT	FEATHER	STICK	RED	
FORWARD	CURVE	LAND	READING	USE	FINGER	STOCKING	REGULAR	
HERE	DAMAGE	LANGUAGE	REASON	VALUE	FISH	STOMACH	RESPONSIBLE	
NEAR	DANGER	LAUGH	RECORD	VERSE	FLAG	STORE	RIGHT	
NOW	DAUGHTER	LAW	REGRET	VESSEL	FLOOR	STREET	ROUND	
OUT	DAY	LEAD	RELATION	VIEW	FLY	SUN	SAME	
STILL	DEATH	LEARNING	RELIGION	VOICE	FOOT	TABLE	SECOND	
THEN	DEBT	LEATHER	REPRESENTATIVE	WALK	FORK	TAIL	SEPARATE	
THERE	DECISION	LETTER	REQUEST	WAR	FOWL	THREAD	SERIOUS	
TOGETHER	DEGREE	LEVEL	RESPECT	WASH	FRAME	THROAT	SHARP	
WELL	DESIGN	LIFT	REST	WASTE	GARDEN	THUMB	SMOOTH	
ALMOST	DESIRE	LIGHT	REWARD	WATER	GIRL	TICKET	STICKY	
ENOUGH	DESTRUCTION	LIMIT	RHYTHM	WAVE	GLOVE	TOE	STIFF	
EVEN	DETAIL	LINEN	RICE	WAX	GOAT	TONGUE	STRAIGHT	
LITTLE	DEVELOPMENT	LIQUID	RIVER	WAY	GUN	TOOTH	STRONG	
MUCH	DIGESTION	LIST	ROAD	WEATHER	HAIR	TOWN	SUDDEN	
NOT	DIRECTION	LOOK	ROLL	WEEK	HAMMER	TRAIN	SWEET	
ONLY	DISCOVERY	LOSS	ROOM	WEIGHT	HAND	TRAY	TALL	
QUITE	DISCUSSION	LOVE	RUB	WIND	HAT	TREE	THICK	
SO	DISEASE	MACHINE	RULE	WINE	HEAD	TROUSERS	TIGHT	
VERY	DISGUST	MAN	RUN	WINTER	HEART	UMBRELLA	TIRED	
TOMORROW	DISTANCE	MANAGER	SALT	WOMAN	HOOK	WALL	TRUE	
YESTERDAY	DISTRIBUTION	MARK	SAND	WOOD	HORN	WATCH	VIOLENT	
NORTH	DIVISION	MARKET	SCALE	WOOL	HORSE	WHEEL	WAITING	
SOUTH	DOUBT	MASS	SCIENCE	WORD	HOSPITAL	WHIP	WARM	
EAST	DRINK	MEAL	SEA	WORK	HOUSE	WHISTLE	WET	
WEST	DRIVING	MEASURE	SEAT	WOUND	ISLAND	WINDOW	WIDE	
PLEASE	DUST	MEAT	SECRETARY	WRITING	JEWEL	WING	WISE	
YES	EARTH	MEETING	SELECTION	YEAR	KETTLE	WIRE	YELLOW	
	EDGE	MEMORY	SELF		KEY	WORM	YOUNG	

Figure 1.2 Basic English word list

Source: I. A. Richards (1943), *Basic English and its Uses* (London: Kegan Paul).

APPENDIX 2 – CCEC Level 1 ‘Important words to remember’

Unit1- (91 so far) address; am; and; are; ask; book; can; class; come; day; different; eight; either; eleven; English; example; first; five; form; four; Friday; friend; from; goodbye; he; hello; her; his; I; is; know; learn; letter; London; look; me; meet; Miss; Monday; Mr; Mrs; my; name; nice; nine; no; not; number; of; one; or; page; people; person; phone; photograph; please; read; same; Saturday; say; secretary; seven; she; six; student; Sunday; surname; teacher; tell; ten; this; three; Thursday; today; tomorrow; tonight; true; Tuesday; twelve; two; use; Wednesday; what; where; who; word; write; yes; you; your

Unit2- (155 so far) about; any; baby; big; both; boy; brother; but; call; carefully; child; daughter; family; father; find; finish; get; girl; had; have; how; husband; it; key; list; listen; lot; man; many; married; mean; money; more; mother; office; okay; old; our; parent; picture; plan; remember; right; section; shall; sister; small; so; son; sorry; start; stop; talk; thank; their; they; thing; useful; we; which; wife; woman; yeah; young

Unit3- (229 so far) age; all; another; arm; bag; because; become; between; black; blue; body; brown; car; carry; clothes; coffee; colour; course; dark; difference; eye; face; foot; forget; French; game; glass; green; grey; group; hair; hand; hat; head; him; hold; lady; language; large; left; light; middle; mine; neither; next; none; nothing; ones; part; pink; red; repeat; second; shape; shoe; show; some; sort; square; tea; them; there; these; third; us; was; water; wear; were; white; why; with; would; yellow; yours

Unit4- (292 so far) a; alone; an; answer; back; bed; borrow; bring; building; chair; close; common; cost; did; do; door; east; expensive; fine; flat; floor; front; furniture; garden; hall; home; house; in; its; kitchen; less; live; may; mind; modern; most; move; much; new; north; now; open; out; own; pound; question; quite; really; room; share; sit; south; stairs; table; than; the; together; very; wall; west; window; world; yet

Unit5- (334 so far) army; born; desk; doctor; drink; eat; ever; famous; food; go; great; ill; inside; like; need; news; newspaper; off; on; opposite; outside; paper; paragraph; problem; radio; reply; send; shop; shopping; side; sign; something; song; stand; story; television; that; those; town; tree; war; well

Unit6- (420 so far) after; afternoon; ago; almost; American; April; August; be; before; best; birth; bus; certain; certainly; change; could; date; December; definitely; difficult; double; each; easy; England; evening; exact; examination; except; February; fifteen; fifty; for; forty; forward; fourteen; full; general; half; hour; hundred; individual; information; January; July; June; just; last; level; make; March; may; May; might; million; minute; moment; month; morning; must; national; nearly; night; November; October; over; personal; probably; quarter; ring; September; sir; sound; term; think; thirty; thousand; time; twenty; under; wait; way; week; weekend; when; year; yesterday

Unit7- (462 so far) agree; also; bad; better; bit; buy; cent; cheap; enjoy; fashionable; feel; give; good; interest; kind; little; long; magazine; maybe; music; nature; only; order; other; others; pay; per; price; report; short; size; society; someone; sport; still; style; sure; take; to; too; want; warm

Unit8- (506 so far) able; actually; afraid; anyone; anything; anyway; at; bank; begin; by; college; dinner; during; early; else; every; everyone; everything; ground; hard; job; late; leave; lunch; main; matter; meal; normally; often; once; point; quick; rather; see; sometimes; supper; tend; then; till; university; usually; vary; view; work

Unit9- (550 so far) across; along; already; away; behind; centre; check; church; city; corner; couple; cross; direction; down; education; end; entrance; exactly; fact; far; further; hospital; into; map; mile; near; park; pass; past; place; police; primary; road; school; station; straight; street; system; through; traffic; turn; until; up; walk

Unit10- (565 so far) enough; few; herself; himself; instead; itself; myself; play; round; themselves; try; used; without; yourself; yourselves

Unit11- (596 so far) business; busy; country; drive; government; important; labour; law; lie; life; meeting; parliament; particularly; party; political; politician; present; press; recently; rest; seem; sleep; social; spend; stay; such; travel; trip; village; visit; wrong

Unit12- (654 so far) Africa; alive; always; America; as; autumn; bell; bottom; Britain; British; century; coast; cold; dead; decide; degree; details; Europe; even; experience; farm; forest; France; happen; here; high; hill; history; hot; idea; later; let; mountain; never; perhaps; possible; pretty; put; rain; reason; river; roof; run; Scotland; sea; season; single; sky; spring; state; summer; sun; suppose; top; type; weather; will; winter

Unit13- (668 so far) above; again; arrangement; arrive; been; below; future; lose; receive; should; soon; therefore; understand; whether

Unit14- (689 so far) available; daily; emergency; especially; fire; free; hear; help; if; instruction; keep; machine; necessary; power; private; public; service; situation; speak; telephone; whatever; while; within

Unit15- (700) air; chance; figure; holiday; hope; however; love; miss; set; since; towards

Source: WILLIS, D.; WILLIS, J. *The Collins COBUILD English course, level 1 student's book*. Collins ELT, 1988.

APPENDIX 3 – CCEC Level 1 ‘Wordlist’

1 a 2 able 3 about 4 above 5 across 6 actually 7address 8 afraid 9 Africa 10 after 11 afternoon 12 again 13 age 14 ago 15 agree 16 air 17 alive 18 all 19 almost 20 alone 21 along 22 already 23 also 24 always 25 am 26 America 27 American 28 an 29 and 30 another 31 answer, answered 32 any 33 anyone 34 anything 35 anyway 36 April 37 are 38 arm 39 army 40 arrangement 41 arrive, arrived 42 as 43 ask, asked 44 at 45 August 46 autumn 47 available 48 away 49 baby,babies 50 back 51 bad 52 bag 53 bank 54 be 55 because 56 become, became, become 57 bed 58 been 59 before 60 begin, begun, began 61 behind 62 bell 63 below 64 best 65 better 66 between 67 big 68 birth 69 bit 70 black 71 blue 72 body, bodies 73 book 74 born 75 borrow,borrowed 76 both 77 bottom 78 boy 79 bring, brought 80 Britain 81 British 82 brother 83 brown 84 building 85 bus 86 business 87 busy 88 but 89 buy, bought 90 by 91 call, called 92 can 93 car 94 carefully 95 carry, carried 96 cent 97 centre 98 century, centuries 99 certain 100 certainly 101 chair 102 chance 103 change, changed 104 cheap 105 check, checked 106 child, children 107 church 108 city, cities 109 class 110 close, closed 111 clothes 112 coast 113 coffee 114 cold 115 college 116 colour 117 come, came, come 118 common 119 compare 120 corner 121 cost 122 could 123 country 124 couple 125 course 126 cross, crossed 127 daily 128 dark 129 date 130 daughter 131 day 132 dead 133 December 134 decide, decided 135 definitely 136 degree 137 desk 138 detail 139 dialogue 140 did 141 difference 142 different 143 difficult 144 dinner 145 direction 146 do 147 doctor 148 door 149 double 150 down 151 drink, drank, drunk 152 drive, drove, driven 153 during 154 each 155 early 156 east 157 easy 158 eat, ate, eaten 159 education 160 eight 161 either 162 eleven 163 else 164 emergency 165 end 166 England 167 English 168 enjoy, enjoyed 169 enough 170 entrance 171 especially 172 Europe 173 even 174 evening 175 ever 176 every 177 everyone 178 everything 179 exact 180 exactly 181 examination 182 example 183 except 184 expensive 185 experience 186 eye 187 face 188 fact 189 family, families 190 famous 191 far 192 farm 193 fashionable 194 father 195 February 196 feel, felt 197 few 198 fifteen 199 fifty, fifties 200 figure 201 find, found 202 fine 203 finish, finished 204 fire 205 first 206 five 207 flat 208 floor 209 food 210 foot 211 for 212 forest 213 forget, forgot, forgotten 214 form, formed 215 forty, forties 216 forward 217 four 218 fourteen 219 France 220 free 221 French 222 Friday 223 friend 224 from 225 front 226 full 227 furniture 228 further 229 future 230 game 231 garden 232 general 233 get, got 234 girl 235 give, gave, given 236 glass, glasses 237 go, went, gone, going 238 good 239 goodbye 240 government 241 great 242 green 243 grey 244 ground 245 group 246 had 247 hair 248 half, halves 249 hall 250 hand 251 happen, happened 252 hard 253 hat 254 have 255 he 256 head 257 hear, heard 258 hello 259 help, helped 260 her 261 here 262 herself 263 high 264 hill 265 him 266 himself 267 his 268 history 269 hold, held 270 holiday 271 home 272 hope, hoped 273 hospital 274 hot 275 hour 276 house 277 how 278 however 279 hundred 280 husband 281 I 282 idea 283 if 284 ill 285 important 286 in 287 individual 288 information 289 inside 290 instead 291 instruction 292 interest, interested 293 into 294 is 295 it 296 its 297 itself 298 January 299 job 300 July 301 June 302 just 303 keep, kept 304 key 305 kitchen 306 kind 307 know, knew, known 308 labour 309 lady 310 language 311 large 312 last 313 late 314 later 315 law 316 learn, learnt/learned 317 leave, left 318 left 319 less 320 let 321 letter 322 level 323 license 324 lie, lay, lain 325 life, lives 326 light 327 like, liked 328 list 329 listen, listened 330 little 331 live, lived 332 London 333 long 334 look, looked 335 lose, lost 336 lot 337 love, loved 338 lunch 339 machine 340 magazine 341 main 342 make, made 343 man, men 344 many 345 map 346 March 347 married 348 matter 349 may 350 May 351 maybe 352 me 353 meal 354 mean, meant 355 meet, met 356 meeting 357 middle 358 might 359 mile 360 million 361 mind 362 mine 363 minute 364 miss 365 Miss 366 modern 367 moment 368 Monday 369 money 370 month 371 more 372 morning 373 most 374 mother 375 mountain 376 move, moved 377 Mr 378 Mrs 379 much 380 music 381 must 382 my 383 myself 384 name 385 national 386 nature 387 near 388 nearly 389 necessary 390 need, needed 391 neither 392 never 393 new 394 news 395 newspaper 396 next 397 nice 398 night 399 nine 400 no 401 none 402 normally 403 north 404 not 405 nothing 406 November 407 now 408 numbers 409 October 410 of 411 off 412 office 413 often 414 okay 415 old 416 on 417 once 418 one 419 ones 420 only 421 open 422 opposite 423 or 424 order 425 other 426 others 427 our 428 out 429 outside 430 over 431 own 432 page 433 paper 434 paragraph 435 parent 436 park 437 parliament 438 part 439 particularly 440 party, parties 441 pass, passed 442 past 443 pay, paid 444 people 445 per 446 perhaps 447 person 448 personal 449 phone,phoned 450 photograph 451 picture 452 pink 453 place 454 plan, planned 455 play, played 456 please 457 point 458 police 459 political 460 politician 461 possible 462 pound 463 power 464 practise 465 present 466 press, pressed 467 pretty 468 price 469 primary 470 private 471 probably 472 problem 473 public 474 put 475 quarter 476 question 477 quick 478 quite 479 radio 480 rain 481 rather 482 read 483 ready 484 really 485 reason 486 receive, received 487 recently 488 red 489 remember 490

repeat, repeated 491 reply, replied 492 report 493 rest 494 right 495 ring 496 river 497 road 498 roof 499 room
 500 round 501 run, ran, run 502 same 503 Saturday 504 say, said 505 school 506 Scotland 507 sea 508 season
 509 second 510 secretary, secretaries 511 see, saw, seen 512 seem, seemed 513 send, sent 514 sentence 515
 September 516 service 517 set 518 seven 519 shall 520 shape 521 share, shared 522 she 523 shoe 524 shop 525
 shopping 526 short 527 should 528 show, showed, shown 529 side 530 sign 531 since 532 single 533 sir 534
 sister 535 sit, sat 536 situation 537 six 538 size 539 sky 540 sleep, slept 541 small 542 so 543 social 544 society
 545 some 546 someone 547 something 548 sometimes 549 son 550 song 551 soon 552 sorry 553 sort 554 sound
 555 south 556 speak, spoke, spoken 557 spend, spent 558 sport 559 spring 560 square 561 stairs 562 stand,
 stood 563 start, started 564 state 565 station 566 stay, stayed 567 still 568 stop, stopped 569 story, stories 570
 straight 571 street 572 student 573 style 574 such 575 summer 576 sun 577 Sunday 578 supper 579 suppose,
 supposed 580 sure 581 surname 582 system 583 table 584 take, took, taken 585 talk, talked 586 tea 587 teacher
 588 telephone 589 television 590 tell, told 591 ten 592 tend, tended 593 term 594 than 595 thank 596 that 597
 the 598 their 599 them 600 themselves 601 then 602 there 603 therefore 604 these 605 they 606 thing 607
 think, thought 608 third 609 thirty, thirties 610 this 611 those 612 thousand 613 three 614 through 615
 Thursday 616 till 617 time 618 to 619 today 620 together 621 tomorrow 622 tonight 623 too 624 top 625
 towards 626 town 627 traffic 628 travel, travelled 629 tree 630 trip 631 true 632 try, tried 633 Tuesday 634
 turn, turned 635 twelve 636 twenty, twenties 637 two 638 type 639 under 640 understand, understood 641
 university, universities 642 until 643 up 644 us 645 use, used 646 used 647 useful 648 usually 649 vary, varied
 650 very 651 view 652 village 653 visit, visited 654 wait, waited 655 walk, walked 656 wall 657 want, wanted
 658 war 659 warm 660 was 661 water 662 way 663 we 664 wear 665 weather 666 Wednesday 667 week 668
 weekend 669 well 670 were 671 west 672 what 673 whatever 674 when 675 where 676 whether 677 which 678
 while 679 white 680 who 681 why 682 wife, wives 683 will 684 window 685 winter 686 with 687 within 688
 without 689 woman, women 690 word 691 work, worked 692 world 693 would 694 write, wrote, written 695
 wrong 696 yeah 697 year 698 yellow 699 yes 700 yesterday 701 yet 702 you 703 young 704 your 705 yours 706
 yourself 707 yourselves

Source: WILLIS, D.; WILLIS, J. *The Collins COBUILD English course, level 1 student's book*. Collins ELT,
 p. 111-112, 1988.

APPENDIX 4 – CCEC Level 1 ‘Lexical Objectives’

Note that the words in capital letters refer to the entries in the list.

Unit 1

ADDRESS1 #eg Can I have your address?/ AM 1eg I'm from Athens./ AND 1 to show connection or addition of two or more people, objects, actions; sometimes in lists.eg Bridget, David and Philip. Name and address. Come and meet June./ARE 1eg Who are these people? You're.../ASK 1 eg Chris asked Philip for his phone number./BOOK 1 eg Open your English books.../CAN 2 # used to give or request permission, to make suggestions, offers, requests. eg Can I have your address, please? Can you give me your address?/ CLASS 1 eg Students in your class./COME 1 eg Come in.;2 to originate from. eg She comes from London./DAY 1 day of the week/DIFFERENT 1 not the same. eg Which one is different?/EIGHT 1/EITHER 1 used before the first of two (or more) choices. eg Either three or four./ELEVEN 1/ENGLISH 1 adjective. eg English people.; 2 the language. eg in English.../EXAMPLE 1 eg Can you give me an example?; 2 eg For example.../FIRST 1 eg first name, first lesson/FIVE 1/FORM 3 # eg Write your address on the form./FOUR 1/FRIDAY 1/FRIEND 1 This is my friend, David./ FROM 1 place of origin. eg She comes from Italy./GOODBYE 1 (also BYE! and BYEBYE!)/HE 1/HELLO 1/HER 1 eg her book, her friend/HIS 1 eg his book, his friend/I 1 subject pronoun. Most commonly followed by (in order of frequency) THINK, DO, DON'T, WAS, WASN'T, MEAN, HAVE, HAVEN'T, CAN, CAN'T, WOULD, AM, KNOW, KNEW. Note that AM is not the most common./IS 1 eg Bridget is English. She's from Sussex./KNOW 3 # to be familiar with a person, place or thing. eg Do you know David? I don't know London very well. Note: Teach two set phrases: Do you know...? and I don't know. Do not go into structural explanations here. do and don't are covered in sections 59, 132 and in the Grammar Book./LEARN 1 eg Learn English in England./LETTER 2 eg letters of the alphabet/LONDON 1 the town/LOOK 1 verb. eg Look at page four./ME 1 object pronoun direct and indirect. eg Give me your phone number./MEET 1 eg Come and meet my husband. Nice to meet you./MISS 1 title preceding surname of an unmarried woman. eg Miss Green/MONDAY 1/MR 1 title preceding surname of a man. eg Mr Foll/MRS 1 title preceding surname of a married woman. eg Mrs Andreou. Note: The title Ms in place of either Mrs or Miss is less common but might be useful./MY 1/NAME 1 eg Do you know his name?/NICE 1.1 used to greet or say goodbye to somebody. eg So nice to see you. Nice to meet you. (It's been nice meeting you.)/NINE 1/NO 3.1 used to answer a question where the answer could be "yes" or "no"./NOT 1 eg It's not the same. Not true. Note: n't as in I don't know is covered later as part of the verb phrase./NUMBER 2 eg Phone number. What number?/OF 3 eg The names of the students. Note: This is initial exposure to noun phrases with of only. (See Grammar Book.)/ONE 3.1 the number./OR 1 used to introduce the second of two alternatives. eg Two or three./PAGE 1/PEOPLE 1 men and women in general. eg Who are these people? People call me Mrs Andreou./PERSON 1/PHONE 1 (telephone)/PHOTOGRAPH 2 eg A photo of David./PLEASE 1 used as part of a request to make it more polite. eg Could you give me your phone number please? Please come in./READ 1 silently. eg Read about names in English. Read these examples. 2 aloud. Read out the letters./SAME 1 not different, unchanged, exactly alike. eg Which words have the same sound? 1.1 same as 1, but not followed by a noun. eg The same as in Chinese. Do the same. Is it the same in your language?/SATURDAY 1/SAY 1.2 eg Say Bingo! You can't say "Miss Bridget!"/SEVEN 1/SHE 1/SIX 1/STUDENT 1/SURNAME 1 family name/TEACHER 1/TELL 1 eg Tell the class about your partner. (Philip told Chris his phone number.) Note: told is more frequent than tell./TEN 1/THIS 3.1 used to introduce someone or something. eg This is David. This is a recording of Chris and Philip. (When on the phone you give your name: This is Sue Jones...)/THREE 1/THURSDAY 1/TODAY 1/TOMORROW 1/TONIGHT 1/TRUE 1 based on facts and things that really happen. eg Is it true or not true? Write a T if the sentence is true./TUESDAY 1/TWELVE 1/TWO 1/USE 1 eg We don't use our middle names much. (How do I use this word? Can I use your pen please?)/WEDNESDAY 1/WHAT 2 used in questions to find out information or details./WHERE 2 used in questions which refer to place. eg Do you know where your teacher is from? Where are you from?/WHO 3 a question word used to ask the name or identity of someone. eg Who's that? Note: wh- words are more common in the indirect form, i.e. after know, say, tell. eg I don't know who that is. Do you know where they're from? (See Grammar Book.) Students need only understand, not produce, these forms./WORD 1 eg Find these words. Useful words and phrases./WRITE 1 to write something down. eg Write down the names of.../YES 1 to answer a question./YOU 1 pronoun. May be singular or plural. Note: most frequently followed by can, know, have, see, don't, are, get, want, think. You are is not the most common phrase with you./YOUR 1 eg Ask your partner...

Unit 2

ABOUT 1 concerning a particular subject. eg Tell them about your family. What about...How about...(talk about...)/ANY 2 none at all (with negatives) or some as opposed to none (in questions).eg I haven't got any tissues. Have you got any brothers or sisters? Note: The most frequent use of 'any' is meaning 1: It doesn't matter which; all; every (unit 8). eg Any child under 5 can travel free. Anyone can answer. Any colour. Come any time. 'Any' in questions only accounts for 5% of the total occurrences in English, so don't overteach the use of 'any'in this unit./BABY 1 baby boy, baby girl./BIG 1 referring to the size. Used with 'brother'or 'sister'it tends to mean 'older'./BOTH 1 and 1.1 being the two, the one as well as the other. eg How many things have you both got?/BOY 1/BROTHER 1/BUT 1 used to introduce a clause expressing the opposite or unexpected. eg Why do we say 'a name'but 'an address'? They're married, but have no children./CALL 1 have or give a name. eg A sister called Rosemary. My friends call me.../CAREFULLY 1 thoughtfully and making sure everything is accurate. eg Plan carefully what to say. Be careful!/CHILD 1 a person from baby to becoming an adult. eg a child of 14; 2 a son or a daughter of any age. eg Have you got any children?/ DAUGHTER 1/FAMILY 1 as noun./FATHER 1/FIND 1 eg Find all the words ending in s or 's. 2 to learn something new. eg Find out what their full names are./FINISH 2 eg Have you finished?/GET 1 to indicate possession in all its shades of meaning-obtain, receive, be given, have etc. eg Get your books. Have you got some money?/GIRL 1 girls and boys. Also means daughter (of any age). eg I've got two girls and a boy. 2 young woman. eg men and girls./HUSBAND 1 Note: preceded by 'her' more often than 'my'./IT 1 referring to something that has been talked about. eg Your address? It's 21... Liz's phone number? I've got it at home. In phrases eg It's my turn. I'm sorry! It's okay! That's it! (see Grammar Book)/KEY 1 essential, important. eg key words; 2 a door key eg Have you got your key?/LEARN 1 eg Learn these words.../LIST 1 eg Look at the list of things. Make a list of words to learn./LISTEN 1 eg Listen to the tape./LOT 1 a lot (of) = a large number of or amount of. eg a lot of different companies./MAN 1 eg an old man./MARRIED 1 eg He's married, and has two children./MEAN 1 eg What does 'mine'mean?/MONEY 1 eg Have you got any money on you?/MORE 2.1 phrase: eg more...than...more men than women./MOTHER 1/NO 2 used when you agree with or understand a negative statement. eg No brothers? No. It's not Monday today. No, it's Tuesday./NUMBER 2 amount,quantity. eg the numbers of men and women in your family./OFFICE 1 eg Jenny's office./OKAY (almost always spoken language) 1 to express acceptance of a situation, event etc. eg Shall I start? Yes, okay.; 2 to check the hearer's understanding or to request agreement. eg And my mother-Pat, okay?; 3 as a boundary marker. eg Okay. What about your father?; 4 to say that one is safe and well, all. eg Sorry, are you okay?/ OLD 1 aged, having lived for many years. eg an old man; 3 ten years old. eg How old are they?/OUR 1/PARENT 1 Note: plural 'parents'more common than singular form./PICTURE 1 eg Look at the pictures.; 2 can mean photograph. eg his picture in the newspaper./PLAN 1 eg Plan what you are going to say./REMEMBER 1 eg Sorry, I can't remember your name./RIGHT 1.1 in phrases affirming, agreeing, checking. eg Is that right?/SECTION 1 eg

section 19a./SHALL 2 used with questions or offers. eg Shall I start?/ SISTER 1/SMALL 1 not large in physical size. eg a small bag; 2 containing only a few. eg a small family; 3 young eg a small baby, two small children./SO 1 to introduce a summary. eg So we've finished. (See grammar book)/SON 1/SORRY 1 to apologise. eg I'm sorry; 4.2 when you haven't heard what someone has said.eg Sorry?/START 1 eg Shall we start with you?/STOP 1 eg Okay. Can you stop writing now?/TALK 1 eg Listen to David and Bridget talking about their families./THANK 1 THANK YOU, THANKS. eg Thank you very much (indeed)/THEIR 1/THEY 1/THING 1 eg a list of things. useful things; 2 eg The first thing to remember is, speak English! Oh! One thing about your homework-do it on paper./TODAY 2 present time in general eg Champion mothers of today./USEFUL 1 things, words you use a lot./WE 1 when you are speaking on behalf of two or more people. eg We both had a pen, some money and some keys.; 1.1 contracted forms: eg we've got... we're next; 2 meaning the speaker and the person, people being spoken to. eg We say 'a name'but 'an address'. We say 's', 'z'or 'iz'./WHICH 2 used in a question. eg Which picture is Danny's office?/WIFE 1/WOMAN 1/WRITE 2 to write creatively. eg Write about your family. I've got some writing to do. Have you written that yet?/YEAH 2 used to encourage a speaker to continue; indicates you are listening. eg '...on brother called Paul.' 'Yeah, good./YES 1.1 used to indicate agreement. eg 'We've both got keys with us.' 'Yes.' 'It's equal.' 'Yes.'; 2 as 'yeah' 2 above. eg '...more girls than men, boys.' 'Yes.'; 2.1 discourse marker; used to acknowledge a remark and enter into the conversation. eg 'Yes, right, okay. So your...'/YOUNG 1 eg a young man. one younger sister. Young people today...

Unit 3

AGE 1 eg Victoria became queen at the age of 18./ALL 1 the whole number/extent/amount of. eg Remember all the things./ANOTHER/ARM 1 part of body/BAG 1/BECAUSE 1 eg Why? Because it's a question./BECOME 1 eg Victoria became queen. We've become good friends./BETWEEN 1 after one and before another. eg the orange one is between the blue one and the white one. 2 dividing eg What's the difference between 'red' and 'reddish'?/BLACK 1/BLUE 1/BODY 1 eg parts of the body/BROWN 1/CAR 1/CARRY 1 eg She was carrying a pink bag./CLOTHES 1 shirt, skirt, hat, jacket etc./COFFEE 1 the drink./COLOUR 1/COURSE 1 in the phrase 'of course'. eg Can you carry this for me? Yes, of course./DARK 2 eg dark brown/blue/hair/glasses/DIFFERENCE 1 eg the difference between.../EYE 1/FACE 1/FOOT 1/FORGET 1 eg He forgot two things. I've forgotten your name/my book, sorry!/FRENCH 2 the language./GAME 1 eg Danny and Jenny played a game./GLASS 1 eg glass of water/GREEN 1/GREY 1/GROUP 1 eg groups of students/HAIR 1 eg brown hair/HAND 1/HAT 1/HEAD 1/HER 2 object pronoun. eg Give her the book. I don't know her./HIM 1 object pronoun. eg The woman next to him. Do you know him? See also 'them, us, you'./HOLD 1 eg holding his arm/hand/LADY 1 a very polite word for woman/LANGUAGE 1/LARGE 1 eg a large blue book/LEFT 1 eg on the left, to the left of/LIGHT 1 eg Shall we have the lights on? Switch the lights off. Traffic lights. Headlights. 1.2 eg It's getting light/dark. 2 eg Shall I light the gas? A lighted cigarette. 3 not heavy. eg Her bag was very light. 4 not dark. eg She had light brown hair./MIDDLE 1 eg in the middle (of)/MINE 1 eg Mine has got three people in it. So has mine./NEITHER 2 eg Neither of his daughters goes to school./NEXT 3 indicating position. eg next to him/NO 1 not any. eg no blue ones, no lights on, no children 3.2 used to refuse an offer. eg No thanks./NONE 1 not one. eg None of the yellow shapes are squares./NOTHING 2 emphatic - in phrases like 'nothing else', 'nothing but...'/ONE 1.1 eg this one, the red one/ONES 1 eg the blue ones/PART 1 eg parts of the body/PINK 1/RED 1/REPEAT 1 eg Repeat the short phrases. Could you repeat that please?/RIGHT 5 eg the girl on the right/SECOND 3 eg That's a second difference./SHAPE 1 eg a square shape/SHOE 1/SHOW 1.3 to demonstrate or let someone see something. eg Don't show it to... Can you show her your picture now?/SMALL 1 not big. eg small blue books/SO 5 also. eg So has mine./SOME 1 an unknown/unspecified number or amount, not large. eg some money, some books See also 32d. 1.1 a quantity of. eg some of the/them/SORT 2 used to convey uncertainty. eg Her boots are sort of brown./SQUARE 1 shape/TEA 2 the drink/THANK 1.1 accept or refuse. eg Yes, thanks. No thank you. 1.2 in a greeting. eg How are you? Fine thanks./THEM 1 object pronoun./THERE 3 eg there is/are/was/were/THESE;THIS 3 referring to or indicating something/one near the speaker. eg Look at these pictures. '...red boots', 'Well, these look a sort of brown...'/THIRD 3 eg the third woman.../US 1 object pronoun. eg with/to us/WAS;IS 3 used to indicate something exists. eg there is/are/was/were... Note: 'was' is more common than 'is'./WATER 1 eg a glass of water, a drink of water/WEAR 1 eg the girl wearing an orange blouse/WHAT 1 that which, the thing that. eg I know what you mean. Do you know what this means? What you've forgotten was a letter.../WHITE 1/WHY 2 used in questions. eg Where do the words 'was' and 'are' come? Why?/WITH 3 used to mean 'having'. eg a man with blonde hair/WOULD 3.1 used to make requests, offers, suggestions, to be polite. eg Would you like tea or coffee? Would you switch the light on please?/YELLOW 1/YOURS 1 eg Mine has got a...What about yours?

Unit 4

A 1 one of many, not the only one.eg Bridget lives in a small flat. 2 used with phrases expressing quantity.eg a lot of, a few See Grammar Book./ALONE 1 not with any other people, one your own.eg Do it alone./AN see 'a' above; before a vowel.eg an old man/ANOTHER/ANSWER 1 verb. eg Answer these questions. 2 noun. eg Write the answers down./BACK 2 describing position. eg at the back of the class, a bedroom at the back/BED 1/BORROW 1/BRING 2 eg Bring your books./BUILDING 1 a block of flats, a house etc./ CHAIR 1/CLOSE 1 verb. eg Close your books./COMMON 1 found or occurring regularly. eg David is a common name. 'Nice' is a very common word in English. 2 'in common': having the same. eg What sounds do the words have in common?—What sounds are the same in both sets?/COST 1 noun. eg at a cost of \$30,000 2 verb. eg How much would a house like that cost in your country?/DO;DOES;DID 1 in questions. eg Where do you live? Where did you live before? Why did you move? What does Bob say?/DOOR 1/EAST 1 see north/ EXPENSIVE 1/FINE 1 Yes, that's fine. (agreed)/FLAT 1 noun. eg Do you live in a house or a flat?/FLOOR 1 eg on the ground floor/FRONT 2 eg at the front of the class, there's a front room.../GET 4 GET ON WITH. eg I get on well with my flatmate./HOME 1 eg your partner's home, Are you going home now?/HOUSE 1 place where you live. eg Do you live in a house or a flat? 2 used in a name. eg Biltmore House. The White House/ITS 1 belonging to something. eg with its own walls, What was its name?/KITCHEN 1/LESS 2 eg less expensive/LIVE;LIVED 1 eg Do you live in a house or a flat?/MANY 1 a lot of. eg Many people.../MAY 2 eg May I borrow this for a moment? May I go early?/MIND 2 eg Do you mind if...? Never mind! It doesn't matter./MODERN 1 eg An old or modern house?/ MOST 1 very many but not all. eg Most people have three names. Most houses in Britain have two or three bedrooms. 2 superlatives. eg the most expensive.../MOVE 1 to change position or place or house. eg Why did you move?/MUCH 2 intensifier. eg much nicer, much more modern/NEW 2 different, another, new to the person. eg his new flat/NICE 1 enjoyable or pleasant. eg Was it nice, that place? 1.1 in greetings. eg Nice to meet/see you. 1.2 about the weather. eg Nice day! 1.3 attractive to the senses. eg You look/It looks nice. 1.4 to say someone is thoughtful, often when thanking someone. eg That's/It's nice of you to... 1.5 friendly. eg She's really nice. 2 to give emphasis to another adjective. eg nice and easy, a nice little garden/NORTH 2;3;4 eg north of here, North London, in the North/NOW 1 present time. eg Where do you live now?/OLD 2 no longer new. eg an old house 5 former. eg his old flat/OPEN 1 eg Can we have the window open? 2 eg Open your books at page.../OUT 3 so as to be clearly seen. eg Get your books out. Put your work out on the tables so everyone can read it. 5 with verbs. eg find out, It works out well. We have left some words out./OWN 1 to emphasise possession. eg so it's your own flat. 2 done alone. eg Read it on your own. Note: 'to own' as a verb is much less frequent./POUND 1 money. 35,000/QUESTION 1 eg Are there any questions? Excuse me, may I ask a question?/QUITE 1 eg quite small, quite a large house/REALLY 1 very. eg It was a really nice house./ROOM 1 a room in a house. eg bedroom, sitting-room/SHARE 1 eg She shares a flat. May I share books with you?/SIT 2 sit down. eg She sat down. May/Can I sit here?/SO 2 similar to 'very'. eg So nice to see you! So sorry! Not so nice./SORT 1 eg What sort of house...?/SOUTH 1;2;3;4 eg south of here, South of France See 'north'./STAIRS 1 eg nice big rooms downstairs, a lot of stairs, upstairs/TABLE 1 piece of furniture. 2 containing information. eg Practise

some questions from the tables./THAN 1 in comparatives. eg Nicer than the flat I have now 2 with amounts. eg more men than women, more rooms than mine/THE 1 eg Do you know the names... Which names? The names of the students here./TOGETHER 1 with another person. eg In the flat together. Work together with... 2 joined together, touching eg terraced houses - joined together/VERY 1 intensifier. eg very small/WALL 1 of a house, room./WEST 1;2;3;4 see 'north'/WINDOW 1 eg Shall I open the window?/WORLD 1 eg the biggest in the world/YET 1 but. eg We both lead our own lives and yet we get on well. Expensive, yet not very nice.

Unit 5

ARMY 1 eg Napoleon had a great army./AS 1.2 to mean 'like', 'same as'. eg A man dressed as Napoleon. 'as well as' see 'well'/BORN 1 eg I was born in.../CLOSE 2 to stop working for the day. eg closed on Wednesday/DESK 1/DOCTOR/DRINK 1 verb 2 a drink (often alcohol)/EAT 1/EVER 1 at any time in the future, present or past. eg All the money I'll ever need. Do you ever carry.../FAMOUS 1/FOOD 1/GO;WENT 1.1 go and do something. eg Shall we go and have a drink? A man went to see a psychiatrist./GREAT 1 large, important. eg great army/ILL 1 unwell, sick/INSIDE 2 eg There's a man inside./LIKE 1 similar to. eg towns like Worthing, Do it like this. They look like students. 2 for example. eg newspapers and things like ice-cream 3 to think something is nice. eg I like ice-cream. 4 to want something. eg I'd like an ice-cream. Would you like a drink?/NEED 1 need a drink/NEWS 1 eg BBC News at Ten, Newsagents/NEWSPAPER/OFF eg The TV is off - not on./ON 1 position. eg on the table 2 written/printed. eg on a piece of paper, on a list 3 a place - general idea. eg on the south coast, on the left 4 wearing or carrying. eg She had a coat on. Have you got a 10p coin on you? 5 transport. eg boys on bicycles, on the bus/plane/train 6 in some expressions eg on time, on Monday, on Thursday night. Also: on holiday, on duty 10 electrical appliances - not off. eg Put the light on. Also: on the radio/TV/video/the telephone/the tape/cassette/OPEN 2 start of a working day. eg Open 8.00-5.30./OPPOSITE 1/OUTSIDE 1 outside a particular place. eg outside the estate agents 2 not inside. eg There's a sign outside./PAPER 1 eg a piece of paper 2 eg a newspaper/PARAGRAPH 1 eg Write a paragraph about a member of your family./PROBLEM 1 What's the problem? No problem!/RADIO 1/REPLY 1 answer/SAY 1 direct speech/writing. eg 'It's my wife' said the man... It said: Closed. 1.1 indirect speech/writing. eg He says his meeting starts at seven. 1.3 to express something. eg How do you say ___ in your language?/SEND 2 send someone somewhere. eg send them away to war/SHOP 1 eg near the shop/SHOPPING 1 eg go shopping, a shopping street/SIDE 1 eg on this side of the road/SIGN 1 symbol 2 a notice. eg There's a sign saying 'Open on Sunday'/SIT;SITTING;SAT 1 eg There were two people sitting at a desk. 2 eg Sit down. He sat down./SOMETHING 1 eg I've got something that looks like a telephone...something to eat/drink/SONG/STAND;STANDING;STOOD 1 eg only one woman standing inside 2 to stand up (from a sitting position) eg He stood up./STORY 1/ TELEVISION 1 TV/THAT;THOSE 1 pointing back. eg That's the end of News about Britain. That was a nice lesson. 2 a person/thing. eg Who's that? That's correct. See Grammar Book 'that' 1,2./THERE 2 eg Where's the...? There! I went there last year. I've never been there./THIS;THESE 2 a person or thing nearby. eg Is this yours? 2.1 introducing. eg This is Mrs Kent/the BBC World Service. 3 situation/time/event, present or future. eg These days houses are more expensive. This evening. This Sunday. Do it this way/ like this./TOWN/TREE 1/WAR 1 g the American Civil War, the First World War, before the war 1.1 more general. eg sent them away to war/WELL 1 used to start a sentence if the speaker is not quite sure what to say. eg Well, I've got a... Well, thank you... 2 in the right way. eg He speaks French well. 3 'as well' meaning 'too'. eg I've got that as well. 4 'as well as' = 'in addition to'. eg a large bag as well as a handbag

Unit 6

ABOUT 2 approximately./AFTER 1 eg after six, after that, after a few minutes/AFTERNOON 1/AGO 1 eg some time ago/ALMOST 1 not quite, nearly./AMERICAN 1 adjective. eg the American way of saying the date/BE 1 after 'will/would/can/could...' eg number could be 748. It might be... Could it be...? When would be a good time to phone? (See grammar book)/BEFORE 1 eg before nine, Before she goes out.../BEST 2 the most convenient, expressing preference. eg the best time to... The best thing to do is... the best way is.../BIRTH 1 eg date of birth, birthday/BUS 1/CALL 2 to telephone. eg a phone call, When shall I call you?/CERTAIN 2 definite, sure. eg Does the speaker sound certain?/CERTAINLY 1 definitely. eg 1989 - It's almost certainly a date. I'll certainly remember my birthday! 2 after a request, of course. eg Yes, certainly./CHANGE 1 eg change the meaning, change partners/COULD 1 eg It could be John, but I'm not certain./COURSE 2 a course of study. eg an English course/DATE 1 eg What's the date today?/DAY 2 the part of the day when you are not sleeping. eg all day/DEFINITELY 1 certainly/DIFFICULT 1 not easy/DOUBLE 1 eg 9266-nine two double six/EACH 1 eg each day, each course, each other/EASY 1 not difficult/EITHER 2 eg I can't come either./ ENGLAND 1/ENGLISH 3 the subject. eg General English/EVENING 1/EXACT 1 eg Sometimes you have to be exact/EXAMINATION;EXAM/EXCEPT 1 eg all levels except beginners, any day except Tuesday/FEW 1 A FEW meaning some but not many. eg a few weeks ago/FOR (See SB93 and Grammar Book)/FORWARD 2 eg Looking forward to hearing from you./FROM 3 eg from 12.05 to 12.55/FULL 1 complete, whole. eg a full day, full time 2 'full of' = a lot. eg That shop is full of really nice books. 3 filled. eg The bus was full. The class I wanted was full. My bag was full of books./GENERAL 3 universal, for everybody. eg General English/HALF 1 one of two equal parts. eg half an hour, a half day; not completely. eg half full, half asleep/HOLD HOLD ON = wait (often when telephoning)/HOUR 1 eg an hour later, in two hours' time/HUNDRED 1 eg a hundred and twenty, two hundred/IN 3 eg in two years' time 4 'in' = at home./INDIVIDUAL 2 single, separate. eg individual tuition/lessons/INFORMATION 1 eg I would like some information about English lessons./JUST 2 only a little. eg just over 8 million, just after five pm, Just a minute!/LAST 1 eg last year/night/week/LETTER 1 eg Write a letter to.../LEVEL 1.2 eg All levels of English except beginners./LOT 1.1 adverb - 'a lot' = often/frequently. eg She goes out a lot./MAKE 1 meaning comes from words which follow. eg make a list, make a note of.../a mistake/an announcement, make sure that.../MAY 1 modal verb, similar to 'might' eg It may be John.../MIGHT 1 modal verb. eg It might be.../MILLION 1 eg a million, two million/MINUTE 1 a short time. eg just a minute/MOMENT 1 a short time. eg just a moment/MONTH 1 eg the month of May 2 a four week period. eg a month ago/MORNING 1;2 eg in the morning, early morning/MUST 2 eg It must be John!/NATIONAL 1 eg A national holiday falls on.../NEARLY 1 eg nearly ten thousand/NEXT 1 eg next Sunday/NIGHT 1;2 opposite of 'day'; evening./OUT 1 not in. eg She goes out a lot in the evening./OVER 4 a bit more than. eg over 8 million/PERSONAL 1 eg personal details as opposed to general information/PROBABLY 1/QUARTER 1 telling the time.eg a quarter past four to six 2 eg 11/4-one and a quarter/RING;RANG 1 to telephone/SECOND 1 eg there are 60 seconds in a minute. 2 a short time. eg Wait a second. 3 eg the second of June/ SIR 1 eg Dear Sir, (in letters)/SORRY 3 used when unable to help or giving bad news. eg Sorry but she's out. 4 used to correct yourself. eg in the east, sorry, the west/SOUND 1 any kind of noise. eg English Sounds, the sound of music 2 eg Did they sound certain? What did it sound like?/TERM 3 eg school term/THINK 3 used when unsure eg I should think Cairo's... 5 to consider something carefully. eg Did they think of the same things as you?/THIRD 1 eg the third of July 3 eg 1/3-a third/THOUSAND 1 eg a thousand, two thousand/TIME 1 a period of time. eg Have we got time? this time next week, the best time to phone 1.1 eg What's the time? The time in London is 1pm./UNDER 1 eg She was carrying a duck under her arm. 3 less than. eg under 5,000/WAIT 1 eg Wait a minute./WAY 1 manner. eg The American way of saying the dates. The same as...This way. I don't like the way he sings./WEEK 1 exact period of seven days-Sunday to Saturday. 2 any seven days. eg a few weeks ago... in the week, we.../WEEKEND 1 at the weekend/WHEN 1 after Say/tell you, etc. eg Say when you would like to go. 1.1 eg When's the best time to phone? When is David usually in?/WOULD 2 eg You would say... I'd say.../YEAR 1 from January to December. eg In the year 1988... 2 period of about 12 months./YESTERDAY 1

Unit 7

AGREE 1 eg Did you agree with them?/ALL 2 pronoun. eg first of all, all quite cheap/ALSO 1 eg her boyfriend, Dave, is also in the photograph./ANOTHER 1 additional, or similar. eg Do you want another coffee? 2 different, some other. eg So you took it back, complained, and they gave you another one./BAD 1 morally wrong. eg bad behaviour, Some shops have bad staff. 3 not good quality. eg a bad buy, bad quality, It went bad./BEST 1 superlative of 'good', highest quality etc. eg your best bargain, the best bookshop in town 3 'to do your best'. eg They did their best to finish the work./BETTER 1 comparative of 'good/well'. eg That's a bit better, that one. Do you feel any better today? 2 'had better', to express duty, advice. eg We'd better go. 3 advisable, preferable. eg It's better to learn to swim as a child./BIT 1 a small amount/quantity/piece. eg a bit better/more, a bit of paper, It has a small bit at the top which... 2 to show the speaker is tentative. eg It's a bit cold/difficult. He looks a bit like his Dad./BUY;BOUGHT 1 verb. eg Buy now! a shirt I bought... 2 noun. eg a good buy, your best buy/CENT 1 PER CENT. eg 10% off the price/CHEAP 1/ENJOY 1 eg I work as a surveyor but I don't really enjoy it./FASHIONABLE/FEEL 1 eg feel tired/ hot 3 This bed feels very hard. 4 to want something eg I feel like a drink./GIVE;GAVE;GIVEN 1 in phrases with nouns. eg I'll give you an example. The answers are given at the bottom of the page. Give us a smile! 2 They gave me a new shirt. Things given to the shop./GOOD 1 high quality. eg a good book, not very good at speaking 1.1 referring to mental processes. eg a good idea/reason for speaking English 2 in a more general sense. eg a good thing/good job you came today, What good news! made me feel good 3 expressing degree. eg a good deal of, a good many people/INTEREST 4 something you enjoy. eg people whose main interest is photography/INTERESTED 5.1 eg boys are interested in bikes/KIND 1 sort/type. eg What kind of magazines do you buy?/LITTLE 1 eg little children/LONG 3 measuring. eg long hair/LOOK 1.1 with 'have/take'. eg Let's have a look at... 2 eg to look for something 4 eg to look after someone Also: eg Look out! look forward to, look up, look through/MAGAZINE 1/MAKE 4 to create. eg I make most of my clothes. Make some sentences.../MAYBE 1/MAYBE I'll think about it./MUSIC/NATURE 2 in the sense of wildlife/NEW 1 eg I bought it new, not second hand./ONLY 1.1 nothing more, no one else. eg only 2 dollars, only me 1.2 no others in same group/of same quality. eg I'm an only child. The only thing is... The only way to do it.../ORDER 4 in sequence. eg Put the pictures in order./OTHER 1 additional. eg Talk to other people in class. 2 the second of a pair. eg on the other hand 3 'each other'-usually in a pair. eg Tell each other about... Also: eg in other words, the other day/night/lesson (referring to past time)/OTHERS 1 the rest of a group of people or set of things. eg As you listen to the others.../PAY 1 to give money to. eg How much did they pay for it?/PER 1 for each. eg per year, per person Also: per cent (%)/PRICE 1/REALLY 1 intensifier. eg really nice 2 to gain time, or to express uncertainty. eg It's a bit long, really. I don't really enjoy it./REPORT 1 eg Write a report like the one in the magazine./SHORT 2 eg short hair/SIZE eg a size bigger, a town the size of London/SOCIETY 2 a large group of people and their particular kind of political, cultural etc system. eg New Society, in our society today.../SOMEONE 1 eg someone who is planning to buy something expensive/STILL 1 continuing to this time. eg I still go to college, when you're still young/STYLE 1 eg hairstyles, Which style do you like best?/SURE 1 free from doubt. eg I'm quite/not sure. 2 to agree. eg Can I...? Yes, sure./TAKE;TOOK 1 eg take a look at, take notes, take better photographs, take a break now 2 hold, move, carry something. eg Take your books out./THAT 5.1 relative. eg a shirt that I bought/THINK 1 to express an opinion. eg What do you think of that one?/THIRD 1 eg 1/3 one third 2 phrases. eg the Third World countries/TO see Grammar Book and SB101/TOO 1 more than a good. eg too many people 2 also eg I've got one, too. You'd better come too./WANT 1 would like to. eg people who want to take better photographs 1.1 with a direct object. eg Do you want a cup of coffee?/WARM 1/WHICH 1 relative use see SB105/WHO 1 relative use see SB105

Unit 8

ABLE 1 eg She was able to go.../ACTUALLY 1 in truth, in reality. eg Which of these questions does Myf actually ask? 2 used conversationally to introduce a comment, or a point of clarification. eg That's quite a long working day, isn't it, actually./ AFRAID 1 to show politeness. eg I'm afraid we tend to be rather late... Sorry, I'm afraid I can't come tomorrow./ANY 1 in positive statements—it doesn't matter which one. eg Come any time! 2 in questions and with negatives. See SB121c./ANYONE See 'any'./ ANYTHING See 'any'./ANYWAY 1 in any case. eg Sorry I can't come, but thanks anyway./AT See Grammar Book and SB111./COLLEGE/DINNER 1 eg we have dinner at... after dinner.../DURING 1 eg during the day/EARLY 1 eg we go to bed early, in the early days, early on/ELSE 1 eg someone else, no-one else, anything else?/EVERY 1 eg every day/evening etc./EVERYONE 1/EVERYTHING 1/GET See Grammar Book and SB116./GROUND 1 surface of the earth, outside. eg on the ground - inside. phrase. eg on the ground floor=American first floor/HARD 1 not soft. eg the ground was hard 2 difficult. eg He was quite hard to understand. 3 done with a lot of effort. eg hard work, who works harder?/HOME 1 noun phrases. eg phone her at home, in my own home 2 adverb phrases. eg go home, get home, on my way home/JOB 1 work done everyday in order to earn money. eg I've got a good job. What's your job? 2 small amount of work, not necessarily paid. eg jobs around the house/garden/LATE eg We go to bed late./LEAVE 1 to go away from. eg I leave the house at 8. 2 to allow something to remain/continue as it is. eg Leave the door open. Don't leave the lights on. Leave some cake for me./LUNCH 1 midday meal. eg What's for lunch?/ MAIN 1 most important. eg the main meal, on the main road, the main thing/ problem is... main characters/MATTER 1 never mind. eg It doesn't matter./MEAL eg dinner, lunch/MEAN 3 eg What do you mean by 'work'?/NORMALLY 1 usually. eg I normally start work at.../OFTEN 1 frequently. eg I quite often come back from swimming and... but very often it's after midnight.../ONCE 1 on one occasion. eg once a week, once or twice a month Also phrases. eg once more, once again, at once—at the same time/POINT 2 eg At that point, he.../QUICK 2 eg a quick lunch, Who's the quickest?/RATHER 1 a bit. eg You're rather late. Rather expensive/REALLY 3 to show that what is said may be contrary to expectations. eg Oh, red. I really wanted blue. Oh really?/SEE 6 to discover or find out something. eg See how many examples of the word 'get' you can find. Let me see if I can help you./SOMETIMES 1 not always. eg Myf sometimes has a meeting in the evening./STOP 2 to interrupt a journey. eg He stops off at the shop to buy.../SUPPER 1 eg After supper.../TEA 3 a light meal at about 4 pm 4 evening meal, dinner/ supper./TEND 1 to do something very often, to happen in the way described. eg We tend to have supper, well, any time really, between 6 and 7. We tend to be rather late, really./THEN 1 next in sequence. eg I start at...and then I finish.. 2 at that particular time. eg By then it's about 7.15./TILL similar to 'until' eg ...start at 8.30 and go through till 5.30. I watch TV till bedtime./TIME 5 how often something happens. eg two or three times a week/UNIVERSITY 1 eg at (the) University, go to university.../USUALLY 1 eg she usually gets back home by 9 am./VARY 1 to be different from something else, not always to be the same. eg It varies, this weekend I had a lot to do.../VIEW 2 something seen from a place. eg a nice view of the town/WORK 1.1 verb: to do a job. eg Where do you work? 1.2 to study. eg I have to work today. See SB108. 2 noun. eg It's hard work. 3 noun. eg written work, the works of Shakespeare, a work of art

Unit 9

ACROSS 1 eg across the road/ALONG 1 preposition. eg along the street - adverb. eg walk along a bit/ALREADY 1 eg She was already eleven by then./AWAY 1 at a distance from. eg He turned and walked away. 2 distant. eg about three miles away/BEHIND 1 eg They walked up behind me and said 'Boo'. It's behind the door./CAN See SB138/CENTRE 1 eg to the city centre/CHECK 1 eg check the map to see if.../CHURCH 1 the building. eg past the church/CITY 1 large town. eg New York City, city centre/CLOSE 3 very near to something. eg another place very close/CORNER 1 eg on the corner/COUPLE 1 eg a couple of hundred yards/CROSS 1 eg And then cross Oakfield Road./DIRECTION 1 the way you are moving to/from. eg a different direction, go on in the same direction/general direction 2 directions-instructions. eg Phil gave Chris directions to his house./DOWN 1 in a lower direction. eg down the hill 2 along a bit further. eg go down the road/EDUCATION 1 the teaching of a variety of subjects. eg system of education, a good education/END 1 the finish, referring to points in time. eg at the end of a lesson/course, in the

end, by the end of... 2 the far point of. eg walk right up to the end of the road/ENTRANCE 1 opposite to 'exit', the way in to somewhere. eg by the park entrance - Also teach 'Fire exit; Way In; Way Out'./EXACTLY 1 eg That's exactly right./FACT 3.1 IN FACT. eg In fact there's a slight bend.../FAR 1 intensifier, similar to 'much/very' eg far quicker by car, far more expensive, you work far too hard, The lady on the far left. 2 a long distance. eg How far is it from the town centre? Not too far./FORM 4 class/level in secondary school. eg First Form (age 11), 6th Form College (at the age of 17-18)/FROM 2 eg coming from the centre of town/FURTHER 1 adjective - additional, extra, more. eg Further Education, a further fifty yards 3 comparative of 'far'. eg further down the road/GO 2 to attend, visit. eg go to college/university/hospital 3 'go on' meaning continue. eg Go on further down the road.../HOSPITAL 1/INTO 1 entering. eg turn left into.../MAP 1 eg It's on the map, a street map of.../MILE 1/NEAR 1/NEITHER 1 eg neither do I/have I/OFF See SB139f./ON 9 continue. eg go on up the road, carry on, hang on/OVER 1 not under, above. eg a footbridge over the road /PARK 1 area of land with trees and grass 1.1 eg car park 2 eg to park a car/PASS 1 to go past something. eg You pass Oakfield Road. 2 to be successful in a test/exam. eg He passed his 'O'levels (Ordinary Level school leaving exams taken at the age of 16). /PAST 2 preposition: after, beyond. eg half past four, just past the hospital 4 adverb eg he walked past, cars going past all day/PLACE 1 a point in space which can be general or specific, meaning town, house, shop etc. eg Choose a place on the map 1.1 home, house. eg to get to my place, you.../POINT 3.1 a specific location/place. eg At that point you will see... Find a point on the map where.../POLICE 1 eg the police, the police station/PRIMARY 1 eg primary school/RIGHT 3 intensifier: completely. eg Go right up to the end./ROAD 1 eg The road where I live. Bristol Rd 2 route/way. eg Which is the road to the city centre?SCHOOL 1 eg When did you leave school?/STATION 1 eg a railway station, bus station, police station/STRAIGHT 1 same direction. eg Go straight on, straight across the park 1.1 eg straight hair/STREET 1 eg down the street/SYSTEM 1 eg the British system of Education, the school system, the telephone system/THROUGH 1 eg Go straight through Valley Parkway... 3 eg He slept all through the lesson./TOWN 1 eg Stratford is the town where Shakespeare was born. 2 the town closest to you. eg going to town, two miles out of town, a bus from town (no determiner)/TRAFFIC 1 eg traffic lights, lots of traffic/TURN 1 eg He turned and walked away. Turn round now. 2 to spin round. eg Turn the key this way... 3 to change direction when travelling. eg Turn right... 4 to change the position of something. eg Turn over. 5 eg Whose turn is it? My turn./UNTIL 1 eg Go on until you see Barclays Bank. I worked until five./UP 1 to a higher point. eg up the stairs 2 towards the North, or to the end of a road, but not uphill. eg Walk right up to the end of the road, further up 3 to someone/something. eg They walked up behind me... 7 out of bed and awake. eg They got up at..., stayed up till midnight/WALK 1 eg Walk on up the road. They walked away./WAY 2 eg When people ask the way, we give directions using landmarks. Which way, left or right?/WHEN 1 eg I started school when I was 5. When I left school, I...

Unit 10

AS eg works as an accountant. Phrases: eg as well as(=in addition to), Be as helpful as you can./BEGIN(BEGAN is more common) 1.1 eg He began to eat... 1.2 eg The film begins at 8 pm. 1.3 eg the beginning of the course, beginners. Also revise 'start, finish, end, over'./ENOUGH 1.1 eg old/big/small enough 1.2 eg enough money/time 1.3 eg enough? (pronoun)/FEW 1 some but not many. eg a few people, A few days ago.../FIND 2 to learn or discover. eg Did you find you had any friends in common?/GLASSES eg a pair of glasses, Do you wear glasses?/HERSELF, HIMSELF, ITSELF, MYSELF, THEMSELVES, YOURSELF, YOURSELVES (also OURSELVES) 1 eg I bought myself a.../got myself a drink. (reflexive) 2 eg I bought it myself. Do it yourself (emphatic). (ITSELF is more common in the emphatic use.) See SB144./HOW 1 conjunction. eg I don't know how old he is. Tell me how to do it./INSTEAD 1 INSTEAD OF eg Instead of being called A and B.../JUST 1 only. eg just a bit tired 2 only a little, to do something small. eg just past the Bank, Can I just ask you something? 3 a short while ago. eg I've just had lunch. 4 exactly. eg That's just right./MANY 1 a lot, a large number. eg many people/things, Write as many true sentences as you can. Note: MANY occurs comparatively rarely with negatives and in questions - contrary to expectations./MORE 2 eg more coffee? any more? some more?/ORDER 1 eg in order to... Also 'to'. eg I leave the house at 8 to catch the bus to go to work./OVER 6 finished. eg That's over! The film will be over by 11.20./PLAY 1 eg He was playing with the children. 2 Can you play chess? 3 He played the piano well./ROUND 1 eg a round shape, Sit round the table, turn round 2 eg People round here are friendly. He came round by this route. The wrong way round. Come round to my place./SOME 3 quite a lot. eg Some years ago (quite a long time)/TRY 1 eg We tried to remember what was in the picture./USED TO 2 for past tense. eg I used to know... We used to live in.../WHO 1 conjunction. eg Do you know who that woman is?/WITHOUT 1 eg without a smile, without using any...

Unit 11

A See also Grammar Book 3 non-specific use. eg went to a meeting 4 with quantifier. eg a lot, a sort of, a bit, a few 5 after verbs like 'take, have'. eg have a meal, take a rest, had an easy day, make a list/AND 1.1 used to show logical connection between clauses. eg Bridget's cousins came over and she took them shopping, 2 in a sequence of events. eg And then you had a short break./AGREE 2 eg agree to/BIG 2 important/BUSINESS 1 trade. eg to do business, a businessman, a business deal 3 eg a small business 4 one's work. eg away on business, business before pleasure/BUSY 1/COUNTRY 2 as in 'countryside'/DRIVE 1 to go by car. eg She drove down to Sussex./FORM 2 verb=to start. eg to form a club, a political party/GO See SB159./GOVERNMENT 1 eg the Labour government/HAVE See SB156./IMPORTANT 1 influential, that matters a lot. eg an important meeting/person 2 necessary. eg That's important, so don't forget it./LABOUR 1 eg the Labour party (one of the top two political parties in Britain, the other being the Conservative (or Tory) party). 2 very hard work/LAW 1 eg problems with the law, Law Courts/LESS 2.1 eg more or less/LIE 1 eg lying in the sun, reading/LIFE See SB162./MEETING 1 eg business meeting 2 romantic. eg his first meeting with Alice/MIDDLE 2 referring to time. eg in the middle of the night/week/MUCH 1 lot. eg So much to do! too much, not much/ONE 1 eg one of the/my 2 eg one day/morning/OR 3 standing for. eg The Social Democratic Party, or SDP as it's called. Your surname, or family name.../PARLIAMENT 1/PARTICULARLY 1 for emphasis. eg Sussex...with quiet villages, particularly around the South Downs. 2 with adjective. eg a particularly busy week/PAST 1 eg in the past.../PARTY 1 political (eg Labour)/PLEASE 2 used when really pleading with someone. eg Please come!/POLITICAL/POLITICIAN/PRESENT 1 eg the present generation 2 eg at present/PRESS 1 newspapers. eg It was reported in the press that... 1.1 journalists. eg a press conference/RATHER 2 instead of. eg run rather than walking/RECENTLY 1 lately. eg the busiest day I've had recently/REST 2 eg to take a rest, get some rest/SEEM 1 eg He seemed tired./SHORT 1 limited in time/duration. eg a short break, life's too short/SLEEP 1 verb. eg sleep less, Go to sleep! 2 noun. eg How many hours of sleep do you need a night?/SOCIAL 1 eg social system/problem/worker 2 level. eg social position 3 leisure. eg social life/SPEND (SPENT more common than SPEND) 1 time. eg spent three years in the South, spent all day... 2 money. eg spent a lot of money, spent 450 on a computer/STAY 1 to continue in a particular place/condition. eg stay at home, stayed awake/up 2 to live somewhere for a short time as a visitor. eg she was staying in the same hotel, I've come to Liverpool to stay with my parents for a week's holiday. 3 not to leave an organisation. eg stay in politics, stay on at school, I stayed at the boarding school for seven years./SUCH 2 eg It's such a lovely day./TAKE;TOOK See SB169a. 2.1 transport or accompany a person. eg I took them to school. We took her shopping./THEN 1 specific time in the past. eg and then, until then/TRAVEL 1 eg travelling round the world/TRIP 1 eg had a trip to South America/VILLAGE 1 eg a small village in Sussex/VISIT 1 eg I went to visit my.../WHO 2 used, usually after a comma, to add a further comment about the person/people just mentioned. eg an aunt of mine, who lives nearby.../WRONG 1 not correct. eg The address is wrong. 'Wrong!' said the first child./YEAH 1 meaning yes, in answer to a question.

Unit 12

AFRICA 1/ALIVE not dead./ALWAYS 1 very often, typically. eg Tourists always look like that. 2 every time. eg When I see a windmill I always think of Holland. 3 all the time. eg The sea is always darker than the sky./AMERICA 1 USA. 2 the continent./ AS See Grammar Book and SB177./AUTUMN 1/BAD 3 eg bad weather/BELL eg front door bell/BOTTOM 1 eg at the bottom of the page/hill/BITAIN 1 eg Great Britain (England, Scotland, Wales, but not including Northern Ireland)/BRITISH 1 adjective./CENTURY 1 eg 15th century/COAST 1 eg on the south coast/COLD 1 eg cold drinks 2 eg cold weather, a cold climate/COUNTRY 1 land 2 countryside/DEAD 1 or alive/2 eg The place is dead. 3 eg The battery/phone went dead./DECIDE 1 eg They decided it was time for bed. They decided to go./DEGREE 2 eg 32 degrees centigrade/DETAIL eg I'll give you the details later./EUROPE 1/EVEN 1 intensifier. eg It can be cold even in Summer. I didn't even have time to have lunch. 2 with adjective. eg even bigger/EXPERIENCE 1 eg Do you have any experience of farmwork?/FARM 1 eg on the farm, farmland/FINE 2 eg that's fine 3 eg a fine example of... 7 eg fine weather/FOREST/France/HAPPEN 1 eg What will happen next?/HERE 1 near the speaker. eg here at the top, English is spoken here 1.1 at this point in the conversation. eg we toss a coin here 2 at beginning of clause. eg Ah, here we are. Here you see.../HIGH 1 eg high buildings 1.1 eg 10 feet high 2 eg high cost of living/HILL 1 eg hills and mountains/HISTORY 1 eg York is a town with a history./HOT 1 eg It's hot. 2 eg I feel hot./IDEA eg Great idea! What a good idea! Whose idea was that?/INTO 2 showing change of state. eg made/changed into 2.1 eg divided into parts/groups/KNOW 1 eg to know a fact. I don't know where that is in Spain. As far as I know, it's... 2 to have the skills/ability. eg to know how to do something, to know a language 4 phrase. eg you know...(used in conversation). eg Oh, you know, Paris... You know, just a pure guess./LANGUAGE 1 eg French/LATER 1 eg later on, I'll tell you later, 10 minutes later/LET 1 allow. eg Let others read your letter. 2 suggesting. eg Let's say/put.../MOUNTAIN 1 eg high mountains/NEVER 1 eg I've never been to Spain. Never mind./OVER See SB180/PERHAPS 1 eg Oriental perhaps? Perhaps he's not well. 2 polite suggestion. eg Perhaps we could start the meeting now.../POSSIBLE 1 eg anything is possible, as soon as possible, if possible/PRETTY 1 eg The countryside is very pretty in Spring./PUT 1 to place something somewhere. eg Put your books away now. 2 to express, say, write. eg We put Canada for that, didn't we?/RAIN 1 noun and verb./REASON 1 eg Give one reason why.../RIVER 1 eg the River Forth/ROOF 1 of a building/ROOM 2 space. eg Is there room for me here?/RUN 1 to move fast. eg He came running back. 2 administered/organised by. eg a school run by the government/SCOTLAND 1/SEA 1/SEASON of the year/SEEM 2 eg I was going to say Italy, but Italy doesn't seem to be there./SINGLE 1 eg a single span bridge 2 not married. 3 eg every single one/SKY 1/SPRING 1/ STATE 1 eg state schools, a one party state 1.1 eg the state of California 2 eg in a sad state/bad state of health/SUCH 1.1 SUCH AS to introduce an example. eg Old towns, such as York.../SUMMER 1/SUN 1 sun v. moon. eg sunny weather 2 eg in the sun (v. shade)/SUPPOSE 1 to agree. eg I suppose so./SURE 3 certain. eg not too sure, I'm sure they do./THEN 4 in that case. eg We know something then./THERE 2 eg just sit there, Have you been there? 2.2 eg over there 3 eg You were right there. (when you said that)/THINK (all categories revised) 2 quality. eg Think of someone as a friend. 3 not sure. eg I only think it was him... 4 make a mental effort. eg He thought hard for a minute./TOP 1 eg the tops of the hills, at the top/TYPE 1 kind/sort. eg this type of roof/WARM 1 temperature, weather. 2 eg a warm coat/WEATHER 1 eg How's the weather?/WHY 1 eg Give the reason why you think so. I don't know why./WILL See Grammar Book./WINTER/WORK to be operational. 5 eg all the bells work! in working order/WOULD See Grammar Book.

Unit 13

ABOVE 1 overhead. eg the sky above us 2 eg With regard to my travelling arrangements for the above seminar...(opposite of 'below')/AFRAID 2 frightened. eg She was afraid as she didn't recognise the man./AGAIN 1 eg I would like to see you again. Listen again./AM 1.1 eg I'm a secretary for Alistair. (noun) eg For the time being I'm happy. (adjective) 1.2 eg I am married with two children. (past participle) 2.1 eg I am writing with regard to my travel arrangements. 2.2 eg I am allowed to ask you four questions. (passive)/ARRANGEMENT 1 eg make arrangements for.../ARRIVE 1/BE 1 eg These words could be used to replace the words underlined. (passive) 3 eg I do not know yet whether I shall be staying with Vijay Bhatia./BEEN See SB202 and Grammar Book. /BELOW 2 eg Put these words into the sentences below. (See 'above')/BOOK 2 eg I haven't booked my ticket yet. The return booking is for 5.30 on 4th May./BOTH 1.2 BOTH...AND. eg Warmest regards to both you and Jane./COME 1.1 to arrive. eg This evening, if you come home tomorrow, I won't be there./FUTURE 1 general. eg Have you got any long term plans for the future? 1.1 personal. eg What does Bridget say about her future? 2 adjective. eg Think of four questions you could ask your partner about his or her future plans./GREAT 3 a really good thing/idea etc. eg Great!/HEAR 4 receive a letter or phone call. eg ...as soon as I have heard from him/INSIDE 1 preposition. eg a game you play inside a house/LOSE;LOST 1 eg lost a suitcase/PLAN 1 PLANNING preparations /QUITE 2 completely. eg So you're quite happy with it?/RECEIVE 1 get. eg I received your letter of.../SEE See SB189/SHALL 1 eg I shall have to confirm these timings. I shall be travelling by Royal Jordanian Airways./SHOULD 3 eg ...and should arrive in Singapore at 13.50 on 18th April./SOME 2 unknown or unspecified. eg I'll have to go shopping at some stage. for some reason or other, at some time in the future/SOON 1/TRAVEL 1 verb. eg to travel by air; noun. eg travel plans/arrangements/agency/THEREFORE 1 expressing result./UNDERSTAND 1 eg If I understand it correctly he is arriving by Royal Jordanian Airlines at 13.50 on April 19th./USED 1 past tense form of 'use' and past participle. eg A racket is used for playing tennis. This word is used.../WHETHER 1 eg I do not know yet whether I shall be staying with Vijay Bhatia./YET 2 eg I do not know yet... I haven't been here a year yet. Are you ready? Not yet!

Unit 14

ANSWER 1 eg to answer the phone/door/question/advert 4 a solution to a problem. eg One answer would be to.../AVAILABLE 1/DAILY 1/DARK 1 eg in the dark/DURING 1 at a point in time. eg I'll ring during the week. 2 throughout. eg during the term, during your holiday/EMERGENCY 1 eg In an emergency.../ESPECIALLY 1 eg it's easier to dial direct, especially from a British Telecom payphone!/FIRE 1 eg a fire, on fire, Fire service. Do not use near fire or flame./FIRST 2 eg At first,... You must first buy a phonecard/FREE 2 without payment. eg These calls are free. 4 not busy. eg Are you free on Sunday?/FURTHER 2 more. eg Insert further coins as necessary./HAVE 5=there are. eg Airports have new blue payphones. 2 obligation. eg without having to get your money out 7 eg having breakfast/tea, after/before having.../HEAR 1 eg Can you hear? 2 hear someone talking about something. eg Heard the news? 3 to learn. eg I heard that he.../HELP See SB220c./IF See Grammar Book/INSTRUCTION 1 eg Follow the instructions. /KEEP See SB218/MACHINE 1 eg washing machine, Your money falls into the machine./MORE 1 eg more important/recent/MUST 1 have to. eg You must put in the money before.../NECESSARY 1 eg it is necessary to... Give other necessary information./NEED 1.1 noun. eg There's no need to... the needs of the poor/POWER 1 eg It's not in my power to... political power 2 eg nuclear power, power stations, power cut/PRESS 2 eg to press a button/PRETTY 1 quite, fairly. eg pretty good/modern (this category more common than category 2 meaning nice-looking)/PRIVATE 2 ownership: not public. eg private phone 3 private schools - schools not run by the Government/PUBLIC 1 eg public telephone/transport 2 eg the public, in public/SERVICE 1.1 eg telephone services/bus services/ SHOULD 1 eg You should close the windows.../SITUATION 1 eg What would you do in this situation?/SPEAK 1 to talk. eg speak to the operator 2 have a conversation with. eg Could I speak to.../TAKE 3 eat or drink, eg medicine. eg One tablet to be taken 3 times daily after food./THEY 2 a collective body. eg I phoned the hotel and they said... 3 used to avoid saying 'he or she', for 'someone' whose sex isn't known or which he speaker doesn't want to reveal./USE 1 eg to use these phones... use a green phonecard 2 noun. eg the use of, it's no use, out of use/WHATEVER 1 eg whatever you like/WHILE 1 during the time when. eg Please don't smoke while we are eating./WITHIN 1 within a time 2 within a place. eg from within the area/YOU 2=anyone.

Unit 15

ALL 3 completely. eg All night long Jup studies the book. 4 intensifier. eg He forgot all about his book. We all did. 5 the only thing. eg All you need to know about telephoning.../AIR 3 eg travel by air, airport/BUT 1.1 eg sunny but cold 3 used to get a turn to speak. eg But, it's, er, I think it'll be okay./CHANCE possibility. eg a good chance of winning. No chance! 2 opportunity. eg She got the chance to talk to a lot of people./FACT 1 true things. eg Facts about Britain 2 THE FACT THAT. eg My 81 year-old mother is proud of the fact that she doesn't look her age. 3 eg It was cold, in fact freezing. In fact, wherever you see a group of phones, there is usually a phonecard phone. 3.3 eg as a matter of fact/FIGURE 1 a person. eg a tall figure, a solitary figure/FREE 2 not busy/FROM 4 eg stop/prevent from 5 eg from experience, from the point of view of... 6 eg from behind, from here 7 eg different from, apart from, away from/HAD for past perfect tense./HOLIDAY 1/HOPE 1 eg I hope you are well. Hope to see you. Hope so. I am hoping to... 2 noun. eg He went back in the hope of finding his book./HOWEVER 1 but. eg Two things, however, did not turn out as hoped./LIE;LAY 1 eg She lay on her bed, asleep. a woman lying asleep 3.1 to be situated. eg It lies about 330 kms west of Lusaka./LOVE 2 used to end a friendly letter to someone you know very well. eg Love from Ruth. Give my love to your parents. Note: If you don't know the other people well you say Give my regards to your parents./MATTER 1 a subject of concern. eg a matter of interest/chance It's a different matter now. 2 to be important. eg It doesn't matter which one./MISS 1 not to go to/get. eg We missed a day of school. We missed the bus./OLD 2 not in a good state. eg an old clock, an old windmill 3 eg seven years old, my eighty-year-old mother 4 eg an old friend of mine, that's an old problem/PART 1.1 of Britain/the world/SET 1 eg a set of keys, set of words, set of household objects 2 eg The sun sets later in summer. the sunset/SET OUT;OFF 1 to leave for. eg He set off up the mountain./SINCE 1.1 eg since I left home 1.2 eg Since February/then 1.3 eg ever/long since/SOMETHING 1 eg something you eat, something to do with.../SURE 3 certain. eg Aminah has her book, I'm sure. In summer in England - it's sure to rain. 4 FOR SURE eg Sure you can borrow it. (American)/THAT 1.1 THAT OF replacing a noun. eg the size of Wales, or half that of Switzerland/THING 2 exemplifying. eg going on safari, all sorts of exciting things, that type of thing 4 life in general. eg How are things? Take things easy./THIS 1 in a spoken narrative. eg There was this man, walking... I got this flight... 4 a situation or activity. eg God, this is really difficult!/TIME era. eg in Roman times, at the present time 3 eg We had a nice time. Talked about old times. 4 the time when eg the first time, the next time/TOWARDS 1 eg run towards 5 money. eg 500 towards the cost of your trip/VIEW 1 opinions. eg to get to know their views, what worries them/WORK 3 eg it won't work, all the bells work, You press a button to work it.

Source: WILLIS, D.; WILLIS, J. *The Collins COBUILD English course, level 1 teacher's book*. Collins ELT, 1988.

APPENDIX 5 – CCEC Level 1 list of functions

The functions listed below are taken from the session ‘Social Language’ in the map of contents of CCEC Level 1 Teacher’s Book.

UNIT 1 - Greetings. Introductions - informal/formal. Saying you don’t know/understand. Saying Goodbye. Asking for things.

UNIT 2 - Checking on names. Stating ownership. Apologising. Starting and finishing a shared activity. Asking for things.

UNIT 3 - Saying where things/people are or were. Identifying people. Asking questions about language. Offering people things; responding.

UNIT 4 - Asking and giving permission. Giving opinions. Responding to an apology. Asking for and giving explanations of words.

UNIT 5 - Saying what you would like to have/do. Talking about likes. Listing things.

UNIT 6 - Asking where people are. Telephoning: getting put through. Agreeing and disagreeing. Asking people to wait.

UNIT 7 - Informal inviting, accepting, refusing and giving reasons. Shopping for clothes: asking for other things, making queries.

UNIT 8 - Asking about what people do. Making and responding to more formal invitations. Classroom questions, instructions and queries.

UNIT 9 - Asking for and giving directions. Making suggestions, offers, requests. Asking about someone else’s education.

UNIT 10 - Comparing experiences to find something or someone in common.

UNIT 11 - Apologies and excuses. Speculating about what happened.

UNIT 12 - Making suggestions, welcoming. Expressing feelings: certainty / doubt / pleasure / enthusiasm / neutrality, etc. Reaching agreement.

UNIT 13 - Arranging to meet. Discussing future activities, sports. Understanding business correspondence.

UNIT 14 - Getting people to do things. Phoning for emergency services. Giving advice. Making complaints.

UNIT 15 - Talking about future travel plans. Questions about a recent journey.

APPENDIX 6 – Table of occurrences in Blueprint One and CCEC Level 1

The information below was collected with the assistance of the computer programme MicroConcord, which provided the concordances of the words. Note that the asterisk (1235*) represents the maximum of entries the programme was able to register, i.e., there are either exact 1,235 or more than 1,235 occurrences of the word in question.

5

LIST OF WORDS FROM CCEC LEVEL 1	BLUEPRINT ONE	CCEC LEVEL 1
1 a	1235*	1235*
2 able	1	15
3 about	352	457
4 above	12	19
5 across	7	17
6 actually	7	42
7 address	38 (addresses-0)	54 (addresses-0)
8 afraid	35	18
9 Africa	3	33
10 after	65	144
11 afternoon	28	16
12 again	35	70
13 age	18 (ages-3)	37 (ages-3)
14 ago	26	23
15 agree	4	32
16 air	8	12
17 alive	3	9
18 all	102	233
19 almost	2	17
20 alone	9	7
21 along	2	28
22 already	2	18
23 also	24	47
24 always	51	48
25 am	88	56
26 America	5	49
27 American	23 (Americans-1)	14 (Americans-0)
28 an	146	166
29 and	1235*	1235*
30 another	24	74
31 answer, answered	93/2	24/5
32 any	96	161
33 anyone	2	29
34 anything	29	52
35 anyway	10	13
36 April	7	28
37 are	490	594
38 arm	16	8
39 army	-(armies-0)	4 (armies-0)
40 arrangement	-(arrangements-9)	3 (arrangements-12)
41 arrive, arrived	29/8	13/6
42 as	73	310
43 ask, asked	152/9	87/45
44 at	469	627
45 August	14	7
46 autumn	9	4
47 available	3	8
48 away	16	41
49 baby, babies	13/2	15/3
50 back	55	121
51 bad	23	10
52 bag	13 (bags-1)	32 (bags-1)
53 bank	37 (banks-8)	13 (banks-1)
54 be	61	338
55 because	39	59

56 become, became, become	8/1/-	5/5/2
57 bed	46 (beds-0)	42 (beds-0)
58 been	47	96
59 before	53	79
60 begin, begun, began	8/2/5	14/1/4
61 behind	9	12
62 bell	- (bells-0)	4 (bells-0)
63 below	46	28
64 best	31	104
65 better	40	45
66 between	11	52
67 big	54	64
68 birth	4 (births-0)	2 (births-0)
69 bit	11	67
70 black	38	32
71 blue	24	53
72 body, bodies	8/-	2/1
73 book	63 (books-27)	101 (books-32)
74 bom	16	26
75 borrow, borrowed	1/1	9/2
76 both	7	74
77 bottom	4	15
78 boy	14 (boys-5)	10 (boys-28)
79 bring, brought	3/2	23/5
80 Britain	46	65
81 British	33	45
82 brother	41 (brothers-11)	56 (brothers-55)
83 brown	15	47
84 building	13 (buildings-7)	14 (buildings-5)
85 bus	25 (buses-3)	74 (buses-1)
86 business	8	16
87 busy	11	31
88 but	150	251
89 buy, bought	40/12	38/38
90 by	69	146
91 call, called	21/43	38/84
92 can	417	475
93 car	113 (cars-7)	31 (cars-5)
94 carefully	7	15
95 carry, carried	7/-	15/2
96 cent	4 (cents-0)	2 (cents-0)
97 centre	52 (centres-0)	19 (centres-3)
98 century, centuries	3/-	6/1
99 certain	3	7
100 certainly	8	9
101 chair	14 (chairs-6)	8 (chairs-0)
102 chance	- (chances-0)	5 (chances-1)
103 change, changed	23/-	19/4
104 cheap	14	7
105 check, checked	45/5	33/3
106 child, children	7/61	40/87
107 church	11 (churches-0)	5 (churches-2)
108 city, cities	70/21	15/1
109 class	36 (classes-10)	103 (classes-3)
110 close, closed	16/1	14/13
111 clothes	63	28
112 coast	21 (coasts-0)	9 (coasts-0)
113 coffee	40	29
114 cold	38	17
115 college	35 (colleges-0)	34 (colleges-3)
116 colour	25 (colours-13)	30 (colours-8)
117 come, came, come	106/6/3	154/30/8
118 common	3	28
119 compare	16	16
120 corner	12	20
121 cost	14	15

122 could	25	150
123 country	56 (countries-17)	49 (countries-20)
124 couple	6 (couples-0)	11 (couples-0)
125 course	18 (courses-0)	55 (courses-17)
126 cross, crossed	17/-	23/3
127 daily	10	7
128 dark	19	15
129 date	15 (dates-4)	18 (dates-14)
130 daughter	16 (daughters-1)	21 (daughters-8)
131 day	89 (days-28)	146 (days-39)
132 dead	5	5
133 December	9	13
134 decide, decided	9/3	22/6
135 definitely	-	13
136 degree	- (degrees-4)	2 (degrees-0)
137 desk	14 (desks-0)	16 (desks-0)
138 detail	-	1
139 details	16	12
140 dialogue	18 (dialogues-0)	6 (dialogues-13)
141 did	114	208
142 difference	1 (differences-4)	26 (differences-26)
143 different	30	82
144 difficult	16	22
145 dinner	14 (dinners-0)	24 (dinners-0)
146 direction	- (directions-3)	3 (directions-16)
147 do, does	546/107	705/105
148 doctor	27 (doctors-1)	9 (doctors-0)
149 door	19 (doors-2)	30 (doors-3)
150 double	28	23
151 down	48	159
152 drink, drank, drunk	24/2/1	10/2/1
153 drive, drove, driven	36/2/1	5/6/1
154 during	4	19
155 each	69	143
156 early	14	19
157 east	17	16
158 easy	13	29
159 eat, ate, eaten	28/4/2	21/2/11
160 education	3	31
161 eight	47	85
162 either	3	57
163 eleven	12	21
164 else	15	41
165 emergency	- (emergencies-0)	16 (emergencies-4)
166 end	20	36
167 England	24	39
168 English	119	140
169 enjoy, enjoyed	19/17	8/2
170 enough	1	21
171 entrance	1 (entrances-0)	24 (entrances-0)
172 especially	3	8
173 Europe	10	11
174 even	9	23
175 evening	92 (evenings-6)	72 (evenings-17)
176 ever	42	42
177 every	33	28
178 everyone	4	9
179 everything	14	11
180 exact	2	7
181 exactly	14	8
182 examination, exam	5/6 (examinations-3/exams-0)	6/2 (examinations-5/exams-2)
183 example	95 (examples-7)	37 (examples-64)
184 except	5	13
185 expensive	42	27
186 experience	1 (experiences-6)	4 (experiences-2)
187 eye	8 (eyes-10)	2 (eyes-10)

188 face	1 (faces-1)	5 (faces-0)
189 fact	4 (facts-3)	15 (facts-1)
190 family, families	57/5	128/24
191 famous	26	12
192 far	14	34
193 farm	10 (farms-0)	6 (farms-0)
194 fashionable	4	7
195 father	40 (fathers-3)	33 (fathers-0)
196 February	11	9
197 feel, felt	36/5	18/7
198 few	12	23
199 fifteen	13	25
200 fifty, fifties	12/-	37/1
201 figure	1 (figures-1)	5 (figures-2)
202 find, found	64/7	211/20
203 fine	23	14
204 finish, finished	22/6	43/17
205 fire	- (fires-0)	17 (fires-0)
206 first	80	132
207 five	125	121
208 flat	34 (flats-3)	111 (flats-12)
209 floor	8 (floors-1)	39 (floors-1)
210 food	46	18
211 foot	7 (feet-3)	2 (feet-7)
212 for	369	663
213 forest	1 (forests-0)	6 (forests-0)
214 forget, forgot, forgotten	3/1/-	9/6/10
215 form, formed	4/1	7/4
216 forty, forties	12/-	10/1
217 forward	3	19
218 four	129	119
219 fourteen	7	10
220 France	38	8
221 free	14	13
222 French	47	23
223 Friday	29 (Fridays-2)	25 (Fridays-1)
224 friend	72 (friends-20)	72 (friends-50)
225 from	247	327
226 front	14	14
227 full	19	26
228 furniture	6	3
229 further	-	28
230 future	19	46
231 game	3 (games-0)	29 (games-3)
232 garden	10 (gardens-6)	17 (gardens-9)
233 general	2	9
234 get, got	151/290	225/433
235 girl	30 (girls-6)	31 (girls-40)
236 give, gave, given	52/5/2	68/10/9
237 glass, glasses	18/1	12/1
238 glasses (a pair of)	10	26
239 go, went, gone, going	239/67/11/150	293/126/18/171
240 good	136	119
241 goodbye	35	6
242 government	6 (governments-0)	4 (governments-0)
243 great	28	20
244 green	15	50
245 grey	11	8
246 ground	1 (grounds-0)	11 (grounds-1)
247 group	11 (groups-17)	42 (groups-19)
248 had	42	237
249 hair	49	42
250 half, halves	31/1	35/1
251 hall	11 (halls-0)	7 (halls-0)
252 hand	17 (hands-1)	30 (hands-0)
253 happen, happened	9/12	23/21

254 hard	19	26
255 hat	6 (hats-4)	10 (hats-0)
256 have	486	843
257 he	448	397
258 head	8 (heads-0)	5 (heads-0)
259 hear, heard	55/10	38/21
260 hello	66	28
261 help, helped	44/-	66/3
262 her	166	207
263 here	136	125
264 herself	2	6
265 high	10	15
266 hill	4 (hills-0)	18 (hills-4)
267 him	53	56
268 himself	1	15
269 his	149	131
270 history	2 (histories-0)	5 (histories-0)
271 hold, held	5/-	8/1
272 holiday	47 (holidays-4)	16 (holidays-4)
273 home	89 (homes-3)	189 (homes-7)
274 hope, hoped	15/-	24/2
275 hospital	12 (hospitals-0)	24 (hospitals-0)
276 hot	24	13
277 hour	24 (hours-20)	20 (hours-44)
278 house	51 (houses-3)	174 (houses-31)
279 how	284	293
280 however	1	9
281 hundred	20 (hundreds-1)	49 (hundreds-0)
282 husband	30 (husbands-0)	13 (husbands-0)
283 I	1235*	1235*
284 idea	10 (ideas-2)	10 (ideas-9)
285 if	91	250
286 ill	6	7
287 important	10	31
288 in	1215	1235*
289 individual	-	6
290 information	48	24
291 inside	9	14
292 instead	1	23
293 instruction	2 (instructions-19)	4 (instructions-25)
294 interest, interested	-/6	1/12
295 interested (in)	6	11
296 into	36	72
297 is	937	886
298 it	791	1011
299 its	18	9
300 itself	-	2
301 January	32	14
302 job	60 (jobs-9)	40 (jobs-11)
303 July	23	13
304 June	19	7
305 just	59	169
306 keep, kept	11/2	32/10
307 key	9 (keys-4)	15 (keys-19)
308 kitchen	19 (kitchens-0)	19 (kitchens-0)
309 kind	4 (kinds-0)	15 (kinds-2)
310 know, knew, known	55/1/3	245/14/4
311 labour	-	6
312 lady	-(ladies-3)	13 (ladies-3)
313 language	31 (languages-8)	103 (languages-6)
314 large	38	27
315 last	42	78
316 late	23	29
317 later	25	18
318 law	3 (laws-0)	4 (laws-0)
319 learn, learnt/learned	44/2/1	20/2/1

320 leave, left	75/12	34/58
321 left	18	88
322 less	6	25
323 let	45	70
324 letter	55 (letters-34)	47 (letters-35)
325 level	1 (levels-1)	7 (levels-7)
326 licence	- (licences-0)	8 (licences-0)
327 lie, lay, lain	6/1/1	6/1/1
328 life, lives	17/1	41/7
329 light	10 (lights-3)	21 (lights-16)
330 like, liked	315/5	163/4
331 list	29 (lists-4)	44 (lists-4)
332 listen, listened	326/1	60/1
333 little	22	16
334 live, lived	112/8	143/43
335 London	75	152
336 long	61	48
337 look, looked	142/6	275/20
338 lose, lost	14/15	4/11
339 lot	24	71
340 love, loved	21/-	6/1
341 lunch	47 (lunchs-0)	81 (lunchs-0)
342 machine	9 (machines-1)	9 (machines-1)
343 magazine	13 (magazines-3)	25 (magazines-9)
344 main	30	17
345 make, made	76/6	143/20
346 man, men	54/9	90/28
347 many	51	133
348 map	14 (maps-0)	32 (maps-1)
349 March	11	11
350 married	14	48
351 matter	26	23
352 may	2	31
353 May	17	14
354 maybe	13	18
355 me	116	210
356 meal	19 (meals-4)	29 (meals-9)
357 mean, meant	15/-	84/3
358 meet, met	40/6	44/8
359 meeting	10	27
360 middle	1	43
361 might	1	47
362 mile	3 (miles-20)	9 (miles-26)
363 million	5 (millions-2)	11 (millions-0)
364 mind	3	28
365 mine	15	39
366 minute	6 (minutes-17)	34 (minutes-22)
367 miss	9	4
368 Miss	10	18
369 modern	8	26
370 moment	33 (moments-0)	20 (moments-0)
371 Monday	37 (Mondays-3)	35 (Mondays-1)
372 money	36	85
373 month	11 (months-14)	14 (months-9)
374 more	44	122
375 morning	90 (mornings-0)	80 (mornings-7)
376 most	47	82
377 mother	54 (mothers-0)	58 (mothers-2)
378 mountain	11 (mountains-1)	11 (mountains-3)
379 move, moved	18/1	13/16
380 Mr	65	29
381 Mrs	93	49
382 much	94	85
383 music	31	11
384 must	41	50
385 my	233	297

386 myself	1	11
387 name	173 (names-25)	123 (names-60)
388 national	4	6
389 nature	1	7
390 near	54	33
391 nearly	4	11
392 necessary	6	12
393 need, needed	25/1	50/8
394 neither	-	18
395 never	42	49
396 new	59	58
397 news	23	13
398 newspaper	17 (newspapers-4)	12 (newspapers-4)
399 next	68	128
400 nice	45	95
401 night	39 (nights-0)	35 (nights-0)
402 nine	55	75
403 no	243	255
404 none	1	14
405 normally	1	22
406 north	19	71
407 not	190	248
408 nothing	7	13
409 November	5	8
410 now	166	136
411 number	52	169
412 numbers	17	53
413 October	9	15
414 of	723	1191
415 off	7	83
416 office	39	54
417 often	37	38
418 okay	-	183
419 old	72	57
420 on	378	511
421 once	5	9
422 one	281	557
423 ones	5	54
424 only	41	83
425 open	30	34
426 opposite	20	15
427 or	232	544
428 order	18	38
429 other	34	148
430 others	4	19
431 our	33	55
432 ourselves	-	1
433 out	73	259
434 outside	13	33
435 over	37	61
436 own	15	38
437 page	16 (pages-1)	33 (pages-3)
438 paper	2 (papers-1)	9 (papers-3)
439 paragraph	28 (paragraphs-2)	10 (paragraphs-4)
440 parent	2 (parents-15)	2 (parents-27)
441 park	47 (parks-0)	48 (parks-4)
442 parliament	1	3
443 part	9,(parts-14)	21 (parts-9)
444 particularly	2	8
445 party, parties	28/2	19/3
446 pass, passed	3/1	12/9
447 past	65	78
448 pay, paid	9/3	9/9
449 people	128	241
450 per	5	5
451 perhaps	1	13

452 person	35 (persons-0)	71 (persons-1)
453 personal	13	5
454 phone, phoned	43/2	127/3
455 photograph	10 (photographs-15)	8 (photographs-14)
456 picture	29 (pictures-23)	124 (pictures-42)
457 pink	4	9
458 place	36 (places-32)	84 (places-48)
459 plan, planned	8/1	29/8
460 play, played	65/-	38/8
461 please	150	102
462 point	4 (points-2)	17 (points-1)
463 police	16	17
464 political	-	3
465 politician	1 (politicians-0)	3 (politicians-1)
466 possible	10	19
467 pound	11 (pounds-12)	6 (pounds-14)
468 power	-	7
469 practise	10	20
470 present	60	40
471 press, pressed	2/-	11/2
472 pretty	5	14
473 price	8 (prices-9)	8 (prices-7)
474 primary	2	19
475 private	2	11
476 probably	4	28
477 problem	9 (problems-10)	8 (problems-4)
478 public	8	10
479 put	31	129
480 quarter	10	17
481 question	41 (questions-143)	32 (questions-102)
482 quick	4	5
483 quite	64	101
484 radio	41 (radios-0)	24 (radios-4)
485 rain	23	11
486 rather	2	14
487 read	118	102
488 ready	7	17
489 really	42	61
490 reason	3 (reasons-2)	5 (reasons-2)
491 receive, received	2/2	6/5
492 recently	5	18
493 red	38	50
494 remember	17	92
495 repeat, repeated	60/-	9/3
496 reply, replied	2/1	6/6
497 report	7 (reports-0)	12 (reports-1)
498 rest	7	12
499 right	67	311
500 ring, rang	3/-	23/8
501 river	13 (rivers-5)	9 (rivers-0)
502 road	22 (roads-2)	139 (roads-1)
503 roof	4 (roofs-0)	8 (roofs-1)
504 room	44 (rooms-20)	41 (rooms-25)
505 round	5	28
506 run, ran, run	8/2/2	6/17/2
507 same	38	131
508 Saturday	29 (Saturdays-2)	33 (Saturdays-3)
509 say, said	198/34	284/84
510 school	48 (schools-0)	145 (schools-16)
511 Scotland	5	11
512 sea	18 (seas-1)	6 (seas-0)
513 season	3 (seasons-6)	5 (seasons-5)
514 second	16	23
515 secretary, secretaries	4/-	16/2
516 section	- (sections-0)	45 (sections-5)
517 see, saw, seen	122/9/25	229/38/22

518 seem, seemed	-/-	50/3
519 send, sent	10/2	9/10
520 sentence	20 (sentences-86)	24 (sentences-168)
521 September	13	18
522 service	2 (services-5)	11 (services-5)
523 set	2	38
524 set out/off	-/-	3/4
525 seven	72	121
526 shall	1	57
527 shape	1 (shapes-0)	2 (shapes-42)
528 share, shared	3/-	8/3
529 she	431	395
530 shoe	2 (shoes-25)	2 (shoes-19)
531 shop	22 (shops-29)	33 (shops-33)
532 shopping	39	47
533 short	83	43
534 should	3	45
535 show, showed, shown	20/1/-	21/1/7
536 side	6 (sides-0)	29 (sides-1)
537 sign	3 (signs-2)	20 (signs-5)
538 since	2	22
539 single	4	5
540 sir	6	8
541 sister	21 (sisters-13)	74 (sisters-49)
542 sit, sat, sitting	7/4/28	26/6/32
543 situation	6 (situations-4)	5 (situations-5)
544 six	89	94
545 size	25 (sizes-0)	7 (sizes-0)
546 sky	- (skies-0)	7 (skies-0)
547 sleep, slept	9/2	7/2
548 small	71	81
549 so	72	381
550 social	1	21
551 society	1 (societies-0)	8 (societies-0)
552 some	168	205
553 someone	30	72
554 something	39	95
555 sometimes	24	31
556 son	10 (sons-1)	20 (sons-9)
557 song	4 (songs-6)	5 (songs-0)
558 soon	12	30
559 sorry	32	92
560 sort	20 (sorts-0)	58 (sorts-5)
561 sound	33 (sounds-31)	24 (sounds-40)
562 south	22	62
563 speak, spoke, spoken	95/2/4	32/4/15
564 spend, spent	22/16	13/9
565 sport	6 (sports-34)	14 (sports-4)
566 spring	9	6
567 square	11 (squares-20)	44 (squares-0)
568 stairs	3	3
569 stand, stood, standing	4/1/4	4/4/10
570 start, started	60/15	53/24
571 state	7 (states-4)	16 (states-4)
572 station	22 (stations-1)	19 (stations-3)
573 stay, stayed	18/6	33/21
574 still	11	26
575 stop, stopped	20/4	58/8
576 story, stories	23/1	46/17
577 straight	11	25
578 street	47 (streets-3)	52 (streets-3)
579 student	75 (students-31)	53 (students-40)
580 style	7 (styles-0)	6 (styles-0)
581 such	1	31
582 summer	28	20
583 sun	12	6

584 Sunday	20 (Sundays-1)	22 (Sundays-1)
585 supper	6	18
586 suppose, supposed	3/-	19/1
587 sure	13	42
588 surname	9 (surnames-0)	30 (surnames-6)
589 system	3 (systems-0)	10 (systems-0)
590 table	35 (tables-2)	39 (tables-5)
591 take, took, taken	85/5/1	95/27/12
592 talk, talked	65/2	36/19
593 tea	31	26
594 teacher	22 (teachers-0)	37 (teachers-1)
595 telephone	73 (telephones-7)	71 (telephones-2)
596 television	15 (televisions-0)	19 (televisions-0)
597 tell, told	52/5	151/12
598 ten	50	65
599 tend, tended	-/-	9/1
600 term	2	10
601 than	53	78
602 thank, thank you, thanks	5/39/65	3/41/51
603 that	247	702
604 the	1235*	1235*
605 their	45	89
606 them	43	192
607 themselves	-	5
608 then	80	228
609 there	236	407
610 therefore	1	6
611 these	98	367
612 they	251	317
613 thing	6 (things-69)	56 (things-189)
614 think, thought	143/15	254/47
615 third	11	33
616 thirty, thirties	45/-	69/4
617 this	199	360
618 those	16	45
619 thousand	- (thousands-2)	23 (thousands-0)
620 three	173	174
621 through	2	25
622 Thursday	9 (Thursdays-0)	16 (Thursdays-0)
623 till	-	5
624 time	163	280
625 to	1235*	1235*
626 today	30	32
627 together	6	31
628 tomorrow	39	55
629 tonight	4	17
630 too	73	86
631 top	10	48
632 towards	1	13
633 town	31 (towns-4)	49 (towns-7)
634 traffic	2	10
635 travel, travelled	38/2	23/3
636 tree	4 (trees-0)	18 (trees-4)
637 trip	18 (trips-1)	11 (trips-0)
638 true	9	66
639 try, tried	31/8	31/15
640 Tuesday	14 (Tuesdays-0)	9 (Tuesdays-0)
641 turn, turned	12/2	58/4
642 twelve	14	35
643 twenty, twenties	58/-	47/1
644 two	194	303
645 type	9 (types-2)	16 (types-16)
646 under	12	19
647 understand, understood	9/3	13/2
648 university, universities	29/-	37/3
649 until	7	38

650 up	100	126
651 us	13	43
652 use, used	135/37	115/92
653 used to	-	21
654 useful	3	51
655 usually	50	48
656 vary, varied	-/-	6/1
657 very	189	160
658 view	3 (views-0)	5 (views-2)
659 village	6 (villages-0)	16 (villages-2)
660 visit, visited	14/6	21/3
661 wait, waited	4/2	18/4
662 walk, walked	19/3	27/7
663 wall	10 (walls-3)	9 (walls-4)
664 want, wanted	105/17	67/23
665 war	6 (wars-0)	4 (wars-0)
666 warm	8	9
667 was	158	406
668 water	18	23
669 way	16 (ways-4)	51 (ways-16)
670 we	233	446
671 wear	44	9
672 weather	78 (weathers-0)	24 (weathers-0)
673 Wednesday	19 (Wednesdays-1)	20 (Wednesdays-2)
674 week	46 (weeks-10)	93 (weeks-14)
675 weekend	34 (weekends-1)	47 (weekends-13)
676 well	119	206
677 were	34	114
678 west	19	18
679 what	683	672
680 whatever	-	5
681 when	131	217
682 where	175	231
683 whether	-	25
684 which	145	363
685 while	4	20
686 white	28	28
687 who	99	188
688 why	62	83
689 wife, wives	27/2	21/1
690 will	104	256
691 window	13 (windows-1)	21 (windows-4)
692 winter	8	14
693 with	278	424
694 within	-	8
695 without	6	33
696 woman, women	33/7	61/33
697 word	43 (words-100)	99 (words-271)
698 work, worked	80/8	145/14
699 world	56 (worlds-0)	42 (worlds-0)
700 would	83	231
701 write, wrote, written	190/7/7	279/22/24
702 wrong	31	27
703 yeah	-	71
704 year	41 (years-45)	41 (years-64)
705 yellow	16	32
706 yes	328	405
707 yesterday	26	14
708 yet	4	23
709 you	1235*	1235*
710 young	14	23
711 your	500	617
712 yours	22	32
713 yourself	13	37
714 yourselves	1	8

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