The comparison of the effectiveness of the Observe Hypothesise Experiment and the Presentation Practice Production models on teaching procedural language of circumlocution and stalling devices to upper intermediate EFL students

by

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ABSTRACT

The study presented in this thesis compared the effectiveness of two teaching frameworks: Presentation Practice Production (PPP) and Observe Hypothesise Experiment (OHE). The investigation was conducted in the context of teaching formulaic sequences with pragmatic functions, in this case procedural language for two communication strategies (stalling and circumlocution) to twenty upper-intermediate students enrolled on an International Foundation Programme (IFP) in a UK university. The focus of this study was on the following areas: a) the effect of explicit instruction on productive and receptive acquisition of chunks b) the comparison of the effect of the frameworks to teach the same chunks c) the students' views on the usefulness of the chosen formulaic sequences and their opinions on the frameworks employed. In order to address the notions in focus, a mixed-methods design was used. First, the participants who were already assigned to two intact classes, completed productive and receptive vocabulary pre-tests, next they received a 90-minute instruction on the chunks (with the use of either PPP or OHE), then they completed post-tests, and after two weeks a delayed test was distributed. The pre-test-treatment-post-test-delayed test design allowed an assessment of the effectiveness of the frameworks within each group and their comparison against each other. The use of questionnaires and focus groups permitted an enquiry into students' views on the teaching frameworks employed and their attitudes with regards to teaching the chunks used in this study, as well as other kinds of formulae with pragmatic functions. The results revealed that both types of instruction had a short-term impact on the students' productive knowledge and a sustained effect on their receptive knowledge. However, no significant difference between the effect of each framework upon receptive and productive knowledge of the target forms was found. The qualitative data revealed that the learners were positive towards instruction on formulaic language and emphasised the need for instruction on interpersonal language within the context of IFP. In terms of evaluation of the teaching frameworks, PPP students expressed more positive views on the activities, due to the presence of output practice. The students' strong views on the place of practice in ELT highlighted the need for defining effective practice in a given context.

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4.0 ABBREVIATIONS

B2 level – Level of English with the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages equivalent to upper-intermediate standard (Council of Europe, 2001).

BAAL – British Association for Applied Linguistics (2004)

BNC- British National Corpus

CANCODE - Cambridge and Nottingham Corpus of Discourse in English

CEC – Cambridge English Corpus

CEFR - The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

COBUILD - Collins Birmingham University International Language Database

EFL – English as a Foreign Language

ELT – English Language Teaching

EAP – English for Academic Purposes

HE – Higher Education

IELTS - International English Language Testing System

IFP – International Foundation Programme

L1 – A person's first language

L2 – A person's second language

PPP – Presentation Practice Production

OHE – Observe Hypothesise Experiment

OHO - Observe Hypothesise Observe

SLA – Second Language Acquisition

UCLan – University of Central Lancashire

5.0 INTRODUCTION

Over the last four decades, the analysis of large volumes of spoken and written texts in the field of Applied Linguistics has allowed scholars to establish that native speakers' language production relies to a great extent on the retrieval of prefabricated chunks which are stored and produced as if they were single words. Corpus studies have revealed that language production is more repetitive than it was previously assumed (Erman and Warren 2000; Foster, 2001) i.e. native speakers resort to expressions which are 'idiomatic', that is to say, automatically accepted as the 'preferred' linguistic choices in a given context and extracted whole as is the case with idioms. Thus, it has been argued that speakers do not tend to construct utterances 'from scratch' at the moment of speaking as it was suggested by Chomskyan theory of Generative Grammar. Pawley and Syder (1983) illustrate this concept by comparing the idiomatic and pragmatically correct expression 'I want to marry you' with less frequent but grammatically possible 'I wish to be wedded to you' and 'I desire you to become wedded to me' amongst others.

Apart from the role formulaic sequences have in idiomatic language use, it has been recognised that they are central to fluency (Pawley and Syder, 1983; Wood, 2001, 2006, 2009), and have various pragmatic and socio-linguistic functions. The pragmatic function of chunks has been first emphasised by Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) and it is nowadays argued that chunks with pragmatic meaning allow for successful and socially accepted communication in a given context (Kasper and Rose, 2001) since they are often the 'default' ways of performing a communicative action or expressing an idea (Wray, 1999). What is more, Dornyei (1995) proposes that certain chunks of language can help students overcome communication breakdowns, as is the case with communication strategies such as stalling devices, circumlocution, appeal for help and approximation.

Considering the various functions chunks have in native speakers' discourse and their prevalent nature, it has been suggested that they would be beneficial for L2 learners (Willis, 1990; Nattinger and DeCarrico, 1992; Lewis; 1993, 1997, 2000). However, research into what constitutes the most effective ways of teaching formulaic sequences is limited, and the studies conducted to date have produced mixed results (Boers and Lindstromberg, 2012). This study aims to contribute to this discussion by comparing two teaching frameworks Presentation Practice Production (PPP) and Observe Hypothesize Experiment (OHE) in the context of teaching twelve chunks

(presented as procedural language needed for circumlocution and stalling) to adult learners enrolled on an International Foundation Programme (IFP) at the University of Central Lancashire (UCLan).

The reason for this study is twofold. First, Lewis (1993), who argued for the inclusion of formulae in English Language Teaching (ELT), presented the OHE paradigm in opposition to PPP, claiming that a framework based around high volumes of input, reflection and noticing such as OHE, is more effective in aiding acquisition of chunks. Lewis (1993, 1997) provided extensive criticism of PPP, and considered it ineffective in ELT. However, to my knowledge, no empirical research verifying Lewis' assertions has been conducted and this study addresses this gap. Second, it is argued that English for Academic Purposes (EAP) courses, such as the IFP, do not tend to provide learners with explicit instruction on interpersonal and socio-pragmatic language (Clennell, 1999; Jarvis and Stakounis, 2010; Halenko and Jones, 2011), which can lead to communication difficulties in the L2 culture. This study explores students' views on the necessity of explicit instruction, both in the context of the chunks chosen for this study, and the wider context of features of spoken discourse.

In order to gain deeper understanding of the acquisition of chunks, a mixed-methods design was employed. First, with the use of vocabulary tests it was possible to compare the effectiveness of the treatment types in terms of aiding receptive and productive knowledge of chunks. Then, through the use of questionnaires and focus groups I was able to explore students' views on the language chosen for this study and the frameworks employed. It is felt here that considering students' opinions on such issues is an important part of classroom research, and one that tends to perhaps be overlooked in experimental research design involving classroom intervention. It is argued that students' views and attitudes towards classroom activities influence the learning process, and thus should be considered (Campillo, 1994).

To sum up, this study addresses a research gap in the area of pedagogical treatment of formulaic sequences. It provides empirical evidence on the effectiveness of the chosen paradigms and also approaches the notion of teaching formulaic sequences from the perspective of EAP students. Despite its small-scale, this investigation is considered a potentially valuable contribution to instructed SLA studies since it allows us to explore the pedagogical issues in question from two perspectives: a quantitative enquiry and a more subjective approach which takes into account students' views.

5.1 The Aims of the Study

Having introduced the context and purpose of this thesis the research questions will be now presented:

RQ1: Does explicit instruction affect students' productive knowledge of chosen chunks necessary for stalling and circumlocution and is either of the treatments (PPP or OHE) more effective than the other in terms of aiding students' ability to produce the target forms?

RQ2: Does explicit instruction affect students' receptive knowledge of chosen chunks necessary for stalling and circumlocution and is either of the treatments (PPP or OHE) more effective than the other in terms of aiding students' ability to understand and recognise the target forms?

RQ3: What are the learners' views on the teaching framework used and the language points in focus?

In order to answer the above research questions the thesis will be structured in the following way. Chapter One will present and examine the literature related to the phenomenon of formulaicity and its place in ELT. Next, in Chapter Two the methodology will be reviewed and it will be followed by the discussion of the results in Chapter Three. The implications for ELT pedagogy and further research will be discussed in Chapter Four.

6.0 CHAPTER ONE: LITERATURE REVIEW

6.1 A Brief Introduction to the Phenomenon of Formulaicity and its Place in ELT Pedagogies

The formulaic nature of language is nowadays a concept widely agreed on (Firth, 1957; Hymes, 1962; Filmore, 1979; and more recently Sinclair 1991, 2004; Nattinger and DeCarrico, 1992; Wray, 1999, 2000, 2005; Schmitt and Carter, 2000, 2004). With the development of corpora, such as the Collins Birmingham University International Language Database (COBUILD), the British National Corpus (BNC) and the Cambridge English Corpus (CEC) it is now evident that words recur in multiple units and that formulaicity is a major feature of language. Corpus data has demonstrated that among the recurring patterns we can observe a great number of formulaic sequences varying in degrees of length and fixedness. Thus, the phenomenon of formulaicity is not restricted to word partnerships such as 'strong coffee' or 'heavy rain', usually referred to as 'collocations', nor is it only a case of idioms where the meaning cannot be derived from component parts such as 'to kick the bucket' or 'pig in a poke'. On the contrary, it has been calculated that formulaic sequences constitute 58.6% and 32.3% of the spoken and 52.3% of the written texts examined (Erman and Warren, 2000; Foster, 2001) and involve fixed phrases such as 'out of work', 'this morning', pragmatically appropriate chunks such as 'Sorry to keep you waiting', 'Sorry to bother you' and frames such as 'If I were you…I'd', 'Perhaps we could…' or 'I thought I'd…' (Swan, 2006).

Considering the prevalent nature of formulaic sequences in native speakers' discourse it has been argued that they deserve a place in ELT methodology (Willis 1990; Nattinger and DeCarrico 1992; Lewis, 1993, 1997, 2000). Nevertheless, to date no agreement has been reached on the most effective ways of aiding the acquisition of chunks. In this chapter the phenomenon of formulaicity is going to be reviewed, taking into account its emergence in the field of Applied Linguistics, its place in the ELT classroom and the research which has sought to establish how to best teach formulaic sequences.

6.2 The Theory of Generative Grammar and Early Studies into Formulaic Language

The earliest enquiry into formulaic language has been dated to the mid-nineteenth century neurologist, John Hughlings Jackson (1932, cited in Wray, 2005) who noticed that aphasic patients were able to produce rhymes, prayers and routine

greetings but were unable to produce completely new utterances. Jackson's observation was followed up by Jespersen (1924/1976, cited in Wray, 2005) who claimed that it would be a 'burden' for the speaker if they had to remember every unit of the language separately, thus we 're-use' phrases by retrieving them from our long-term memory. Firth (1935) popularised the term 'collocation' claiming that words do not occur at random, and emphasised the dependence of word meaning on its accompaniment. Hymes (1962) also contributed to this discussion by proposing that the majority of linguistic behaviour consists of 'linguistic routines' and Fillmore (1979, p.92) argued that "a very large proportion of a person's ability to get along in a language consist in the mastery of formulaic utterances". Therefore, a new description of language started to emerge where recurring chunks of language were seen as central to language production and understanding. However, the lack of empirical evidence and Chomsky's theory of Generative Grammar overshadowed these propositions, and Chomsky's model came to dominate theories of language acquisition for almost two decades.

Chomsky (1966) proposed that all sentences are generated through subconscious rules referred to as 'Universal Grammar', which are 'stored' in native speakers' minds. These innate rules 'dictate' the word order in utterances, allowing speakers to generate grammatically correct sentences. Therefore, a speaker is able to produce an infinite number of correct utterances using the finite number of lexical items available to them. This "creativity of language" (Chomsky, 1966, p.8) lies at the centre of Generative Grammar, where the only restriction in language production is its 'grammaticalness' i.e. following the rules of syntax. Chomsky argued that the innate linguistic knowledge allows speakers to produce sentences which are immediately acceptable to the other members of their speech community and to understand completely novel utterances (Chomsky, 1975). The concept of ideal linguistic knowledge underlies what Chomsky termed 'competence'. Chomsky contrasts competence with 'performance' which, in turn, is concerned with how the speaker uses language in practice. According to Chomsky, 'performance' does not always reflect 'competence' since it is affected by memory limitations and psychological processes.

Despite its appeal, Chomsky's theory was challenged by Hymes (1972) who argued that the notion of purely linguistic competence is too narrow to account for real-life communication, and proposed the concept of 'communicative competence'. According to Hymes, successful communication does not rely solely on the ability to produce grammatically correct sentences, but also on the knowledge of whether an utterance is appropriate in context. Thus, Hymes argued that the speakers' linguistic

knowledge cannot account for all communicative behaviour since it is also essential to know the "rules of use" (1972, p.60) which ensure that an utterance performs the desired function in discourse.

Chomsky's concept of Generative Grammar was also challenged by Pawley and Syder (1983) in their seminal paper on native like selection and fluency. Pawley and Syder proposed that although native speakers have the creative ability to produce an infinite number of utterances, they tend to resort to a repertoire of set phrases. Pawley and Syder noticed that among all of the grammatically correct possibilities available at the moment of speaking, speakers choose ones which are 'idiomatic' i.e. automatically accepted as 'native-like' and not 'odd', by the other members of the speech community. To illustrate this point, they provide the example of 'I'm so glad you could bring Harry' which would most likely be chosen by a native speaker over 'That Harry could be brought by you makes me so glad', 'That you could bring Harry gladdens me so' or 'Your having been able to bring Harry makes me so glad' amongst others. Thus, unlike Chomsky, they saw prefabricated 'lexicalised sentence stems' stored in speakers' long-term memory, rather than the ability to generate correct sentences, as the basis for a fluent and 'native-like' language production.

The formulaic view of language was also supported by Nattinger (1980, 1986) and Nattinger and DeCarrico (1989) who coined the term 'lexical phrases' defined as "multi-word lexical phenomena that exist somewhere between the traditional poles of lexicon and syntax and which are similar to lexicon in being treated as units, yet most of them consist of more than one word" (Nattinger and DeCarrico, 1992, p.1). Examples of lexical phrases include chunks such as 'as it were', 'on the other hand', 'as X would have us believe' (ibid.). Nattinger and DeCarrico focused on the pragmatic functions that many of these formulaic sequences have in discourse and on this basis considered them applicable to ELT, which will be reviewed in section 6.7. However, the limitation of their work, similarly to Hymes' and Pawley and Syder's, was that at this point they could not base it on an analysis of real texts. However, once corpora became more widely used, the formulaic view of language was confirmed.

6.3 Corpus-driven Description of Language

As discussed, Chomsky's linguistic theory provided an interpretation of language where grammar and lexis were seen as separate entities and where language production depended on generating grammatically correct sentences. As demonstrated, these claims were challenged by Hymes, Pawley and Syder and later Nattinger and

DeCarrico; however it was not until corpora started to be more widely used as a research tool (Altenberg and Eeg-Olofsson 1990; Renouf and Sinclair 1991; Sinclair 1991; Kjellmer 1994; Altenberg 1998; Stubbs, 2001) that high volumes of empirical evidence confirmed that words recur in clusters which are on a cline from almost random partnerships to fully fixed expressions and that lexis and grammar can be seen as two elements of the same continuum. In this section Sinclair's (1991) corpus-driven language description will be discussed followed by the review of the notion of lexico-grammar.

It has been mentioned that Firth (1935) promoted the concept of 'collocation' which is defined as the tendency of certain sequences of lexis to recur with greater likelihood than chance, for instance: 'strong tea', 'stiff breeze' or 'to commit a crime'. Firth (1957) also put forward the idea of 'colligation' where words have their own grammatical associations. Hoey (2003) illustrates the concept of colligation by presenting the grammatical features of two words: 'consequence' and 'preference'. 'Consequence' has a very low likelihood of appearing as the object of a clause (4% of the analysed texts), whereas 'preference' occurs in this grammatical position over a third of the time. Thus, sentences where something 'has a tragic consequence' are very rare, whereas it is common to 'have a preference'. On the other hand, 'consequence' follows the verb 'to be' with much higher frequency than other abstract nouns, including 'preference'.

The concepts of collocation and colligation were further developed by Sinclair (1991, 1996) and became central to his dual language model. Sinclair proposed that in order to explain how texts convey meaning it is necessary to operate between two models: the idiom principle and the open-choice principle. The former is based on the recurrence of collocations and colligations; thus it can be described as a 'non-creative' use of language. The open-choice principle, on the other hand, relies on the speakers' creative ability and is based on a 'slot-and-filler' model, similar to Chomsky's concept of Generative Grammar. The slot-and-filler model can be illustrated by Pawley and Syder's (1983) example of alternatives to "I'm so glad you could bring Harry" discussed earlier, which are syntactically correct but pragmatically anomalous.

Sinclair posited that the majority of spoken and written texts are constructed and can be interpreted using the idiom principle, and not the open-choice principle as Chomsky proposed. Sinclair suggested that language production is more repetitive than previously thought, and that words do not occur at random in texts. What is more, the main feature of the recurring chunks is that they are encoded and decoded as single

choices i.e. their components are not analysed as separate units in terms of grammar. To illustrate this point Sinclair (1991, p.111) provided the example 'of course' where 'of' has lost its grammatical function of a preposition and 'course' no longer functions as a countable noun. In addition, even though frequent verbs such as 'take' or 'make' can constitute a proposition (e.g. 'take medicine', 'make a cake'), in chunks such as 'take a look at this' or 'make up your mind' they have very little meaning (Sinclair, 1991, p.112). This phenomenon was labelled by Sinclair (1991, p.113) as "a progressive delexicalization" since the meaning is "spread across the whole phrase, rather than being restricted to one word or another" (Hunston and Francis, 2000, p.25).

The concept of progressive delexicalization is related to the notion of lexico-grammar introduced by Halliday (1961) and Hasan (1987) and further developed by Sinclair, who proposed that the correlation between syntax and lexis makes it impossible to analyse either of them in isolation, since different words appear to have their own grammar with distinctive collocational, colligational, semantic, pragmatic and generic associations (Aston, 2001, p.15).

To sum up, the more widespread use of corpora provided evidence which supported the claims that the generative view of language is not sufficient when explaining language production. O'Keeffe, McCarthy and Carter (2007, p.60) posit that "language is available for use in ready-made chunks to a far greater extent than could ever be accommodated by a theory of language which rested upon the primacy of syntax". Therefore, while the open-choice model is useful for creating and interpreting novel utterances whenever needed, if speakers relied solely on this model the utterances produced would not be pragmatically appropriate. Conversely, if speakers were to use the idiom model only, it would not allow for unexpected changes of meaning that perform functions such as irony, sarcasm or create shocking effect (Wray, 2005).

The corpus-driven language description provided by Sinclair influenced ELT pedagogies where the focus started to shift from grammar-led instruction to a more lexical approach. Before examining how the new findings in Applied Linguistics shaped ELT pedagogies, it is essential to examine some of the definitions and taxonomies of formulaic language and establish how this phenomenon is going to be understood in this thesis.

6.4 Working Definition of Formulaic Sequences and Their Taxonomies

As previously stated, the emergence of large volumes of corpus data confirmed the formulaic nature of language. At the same time, corpus analysis revealed the

complexity of formulae and the difficulty of defining and categorising it. Throughout the years, different terms were used to refer to the same aspect of formulaicity or, on the contrary, the same terms were applied to describe different features. Wray (2005, p.9) presents more than fifty terms, which have been used to refer to this phenomenon. Given the abundance of terms it is felt that the working definition should be as inclusive as possible. For that reason Wray's term 'formulaic sequences' will be employed:

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

> (Wray, 2005, p.9)

This term will be used here interchangeably with terms such as 'chunks', 'word strings', 'multi-word units' and 'prefabricated' or 'formulaic' language.

Apart from the numerous definitions, various attempts at categorising formulaic sequences have been made (Becker, 1975; Bolinger, 1976; Coulmas 1979, 1999; Nattinger and DeCarrico, 1992; Lewis, 1993; Howarth; 1998). Since Nattinger and DeCarrico and Lewis created their typologies in the context of ELT their work will be reviewed below, followed by a categorisation created for the purpose of this thesis.

As previously stated Nattinger and DeCarrico (1989) challenged the grammar-driven view of language and coined the term 'lexical phrases' to refer to the phenomenon of formulaic language. In their later work, Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) proposed form and function- based taxonomies (Nattinger and DeCarrico, 1992, pp. 60-66) which are presented in Table 1 and Table 2 respectively.

Table 1 Nattinger and DeCarrico's form-based taxonomy of lexical phrases

Category	Definition	Examples
Polywords	Invariable phrases which function like individual lexical items	Strictly speaking, in other words, at any rate, what on earth?
Institutionalised Expressions	Invariable proverbs, aphorisms, formulaics,	Get a life, be that as it may, nice meeting you
Phrasal constraints	Variable short-to-medium length phrases	As far as I (know/can tell) As a result of...
Sentence builders	Items which provide a framework for the whole sentence	It seems to me that My point here is There's no doubt that I think

Table 2 Nattinger and DeCarrico's function-based taxonomy of lexical phrases

Category	Definition	Examples
Social interactions	Phrases used to establish social relations and which demonstrate how conversations begin, continue and end.	1 **Conversational maintenance:** • summoning (e.g. how are you; I didn't catch your name) • clarifying (e.g. what did you mean by X?) • shifting turns (e.g. could I say something here?) 2 **conversational purpose:** • questioning (e.g. do you X?) • refusing (e.g. I'm sorry but X) • expressing sympathy (e.g. I'm very sorry to hear about X). • autobiography (e.g. my name is __) • time (e.g. what time X?; a __ ago) • location (e.g. what part of the __?) • weather (e.g. it's (very) __ today)
Necessary topics	Phrases which are necessary in daily conversation	• autobiography (e.g. my name is __) • time (e.g. what time X?; a __ ago) • location (e.g. what part of the __?) • weather (e.g. it's (very) __ today)
Discourse devices	Phrases which connect the meaning and structure of discourse.	• temporal connectors (e.g. the day/week/month/year before/after __) • exemplifiers (e.g. in other words; it's like X) • summarizers (e.g. to make a long story short; my point (here) is that X)

Nattinger and DeCarrico present their categories as a framework applicable to ELT. Nonetheless, it is argued there are a few issues which would need to be considered if one wished to apply Nattinger and DeCarrico's typologies in practice.

First of all, in terms of the form-based taxonomy, the criteria of utterance length and degree of fixedness are "vaguely defined" (Hudson, 1998, p.15). 15. Hudson (1998) claims that descriptions such as 'short', 'medium' and 'long' are not sufficient indicators of utterance length and the degree of subjectivity involved in such categorisation should be considered. Moreover, ambiguous terms such as 'relatively fixed' or '(extremely) low variability' would make distinguishing amongst chunks challenging both for the teacher and the students. Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992, p.46) recognise the limitations of their form-based taxonomy and admit that the categories may in fact "obscure rather than clarify" the boundaries separating the groupings presented. Therefore it could be suggested that in the context of ELT, where the focus is on the development of communicative competence rather than on learners' ability to categorise chunks, the function-oriented classification might be more applicable. The function-based categories present students with pragmatically appropriate chunks which they can use almost immediately. 12. For instance, if we examine the category 'conversational purpose' it can be proposed that sub-categories such as 'autobiography' and 'questioning' link to speech acts often found in the ELT classroom and thus their use can be monitored in classroom situations.

Wray (2005) describes Nattinger and DeCarrico's function-oriented classification as a potentially useful descriptive tool; however, she also recognises that the abundance of sub-categories might be more of a burden than a help in the context of ELT. Kavaliauskienë and Janulevièienë (2001), for instance, argue that it is not important whether students are aware which category a chunk belongs to, and Sinclair (2004, p.273) claims that we need to find a "new way of talking about lexical choices rather than a terminology". Moreover, while Nattinger and DeCarrico highlight the pragmatic functions of formulaic sequences, they do not provide information on the source of the chosen chunks, nor on the process of selecting and categorising them (Leech, 1994). Thus, it is not clear whether the authors relied solely on intuition, or whether their propositions were to some extent corpus informed. If the former is assumed, the pedagogical value of the chosen phrases should be questioned since "the problem about all kinds of introspection is that it does not give evidence about usage (…) one would be recording largely ideas about language rather than facts of it" (Sinclair, 1991, p.39)

To sum up, due to the ambiguity of Nattinger and DeCarrico's definitions and the lack of information on the process of selection and categorisation of chunks, the categories presented here should perhaps be seen as a "useful introduction" (Leech, 1994, p.164) to the inquiry into the categorisation of formulae, rather than an applicable framework.

Lewis (1993) introduced the term 'lexical items' which encompass single words and various multi-word items. Among multi-word items he distinguishes between 'polywords', 'collocations', 'institutionalised expressions' and 'idioms'. Table 3 presents these categories together with their definitions and examples provided by Lewis (1997, p.92-95).

Table 3 Lewis' taxonomy of lexical items

Category	Definition	Examples
Polywords	Short multi-word items which consist of two or three words but act like single words. They may belong to any word class and their meaning can but does not have to be apparent from the component parts.	Taxi rank Record player All at once By the way To look up
Collocations	The way words habitually co-occur. Collocations range from free (novel) to entirely fixed ones (habitually used, not allowing any variations). In between these two poles we can encounter collocations which vary in their degree of fixedness. Fixed collocations are examples of polywords.	Free collocations: a red car, a nice house, a dark night, a good chance Fixed collocations: vested interest, auburn hair, to foot the bill Other collocations: strong tea, golden age, drug addict, personal business
Institutionalised expressions: • Short, hardly grammaticalised utterances • Sentence heads or frames • Full sentences with readily identifiable pragmatic meaning, which are fully recognised as institutionalised	Fixed items, chunks of language pragmatic in character.	• Not yet. Certainly not. Just a moment, please. • Sorry to interrupt, but can I just say...That's all very well, but...I see what you mean, but I wonder if it wouldn't be better to.. • Would you like some more? Can I help you? Shall I get your coat?

Idioms	A group of words established by usage as having a meaning not deducible from those of the individual words	To beat around the bush It's raining cats and dogs

Lewis' (1997), just as Nattinger and DeCarrico, presents his categories in the context of ELT and, recognising the complexity of the task at hand, states that "fortunately we are not looking for rigidly defined categories, only useful ways of grouping" (ibid. p.93). However, when examining Lewis' definitions one could indeed question their usefulness and clarity.

First of all, it appears that the categories provided by Lewis overlap. While 'by the way' is classified as a polyword, it could also be treated as an institutionalised expression due to its pragmatic function of topic shifting. At the same time, it is not clear why 'not yet' and 'certainly not' are examples of institutionalised expressions and *not* polywords. Thus it appears that, while Lewis' typology consists of categories where both form and function are considered, he does not distinguish between those, creating an impression that there are clearly defined boundaries between the categories and that one chunk can belong to only one category. Furthermore, Lewis defines polywords as two or three-word chunks which are processed holistically. However, his definition does not cater for formulaic sequences such as 'for better or (for) worse' and 'once and for all', which are not analysable but consist of four or even five component parts.

The inconsistencies in Lewis' typology make its usefulness for the language classroom questionable. In addition to this, similarly to Nattinger and DeCarrico's work, it is not clear how Lewis arrived at his categorisation and what source was used to select the chunks. Since Lewis does not refer to corpora, apart from the 1960s written Brown´s Corpus of a million words, it would appear that his work relied mainly on intuition, which brings up the same issues discussed in the context of Nattinger and DeCarrico's work.

The review of Nattinger and DeCarrico's and Lewis' classifications has demonstrated that creating comprehensive categorisations of formulaic sequences is a challenging task and this assertion seems to be confirmed by the lack of a widely accepted framework. Due to the absence of an established taxonomy researchers are often required to create typologies for the purpose of their studies (Granger, 2001) and that is also the case here. The categories presented below have been chosen for two

reasons: their perceived usefulness in classroom practice and their relevance to this thesis. It has been decided that categories such as 'idioms', 'collocations', 'variable chunks' traditionally referred to as 'polywords' and 'non-variable chunks' in literature referred to as 'frames' might prove pedagogically effective. While terms such as 'idioms' and 'collocations' are already present in teaching materials, the term 'chunks' whether variable or non-variable, is considered a more 'learner-friendly' term than 'polywords' or 'frames'. Moreover, since 'polywords' and 'frames' have various pragmatic roles in spoken and written discourse, they could be presented to students in the context of apologising, thanking, requesting, summarising or as stalling or circumlocution devices as it is the case in this study. The category of 'clusters' has been included in order to distinguish between formulaic sequences with pragmatic integrity and those which have no pragmatic function to speak of. Clusters are distinguished solely on the frequency of their recurrence and include chunks such as 'it was a', 'it's a', 'where do you'. However, it is not suggested here that there is a need for introducing this term in the classroom. ELT

- **Idioms** - a group of words whose meaning is different from the meaning of the individual words combination (Hornby and Turnbull, 2010). For example, in phrases such as 'to be in the same boat' or 'to kick the bucket' the literal meaning is easy to understand, but the common idiomatic or figurative meaning cannot be inferred from its literal meaning.
- **Collocation** - the tendency of certain words to co-occur more frequently than others. We can distinguish between 'weak', 'medium' and 'strong' collocations by examining their collocates (Lewis, 1997). For instance, 'inclement weather' and 'auburn hair' are strong collocations since 'inclement' almost exclusively collocates with 'weather' and 'auburn' only collocates with 'hair'. 'White wine', on the other hand, is an example of a weak collocation since 'white' can co-occur with almost any noun. In between these two poles, medium collocations can be encountered, i.e. those that collocate with more nouns than strong collocations but fewer than weak. An example of a medium collocate is 'to recover from an operation' since there are several things that one can recover from but not a great number.
- **Non-variable chunks** - non-variable, multi-word items (not necessarily restricted to two or three items, i.e. 'as a matter of fact', 'to be honest with you', 'once and for all'). Even though they are comprised of several parts, they are

processed as a single unit and they can have various pragmatic functions (Gerard, 2007).

- **Variable chunks** - chunks of language with slots where different lexical items can be inserted*: to know___like the back of _____'s hand, to win_____over, to have a roof over ____head.* Frames can extend over a large amount of text as it is the case with frames such as 'to lift a finger' or 'as if X wasn't enough' in the following texts: "You never **lift** one miserable **finger** around here" and " **As if** rising from a bed in Joel's mother's trailer at 5:30 a.m. for a day of intense physical labor **wasn't enough** of a departure from his Bay area life, Pollan says he did so without even a sip of coffee. ("Michael Pollan", 2006, p.9) (Gerard, 2007).

- **Clusters** – electronically-derived recurrent word combinations based on statistical calculations of how often words occur and co-occur in texts when compared to a reference corpus (Scott, 1999). Clusters are understood here as word-string with no pragmatic integrity, for instance: 'at the', 'it was a', 'what do you'.

To sum up, this section has presented two pedagogically-oriented taxonomies which demonstrated the difficulty involved in creating a comprehensive framework of formulaic sequences. Nonetheless, an attempt has been made to provide a classification relevant to both this thesis and the wider context of ELT since, although lexis has become more prominent in language teaching, grammatical terms are still prevailing. In the upcoming sections the pedagogical rather than theoretical issue of formulaic sequences will be reviewed.

6.5 Formulaicity and Second Language Teaching

As previously discussed, claims made by Hymes (1972), Pawley and Syder (1983) and Sinclair (1987, 1991) challenged the Chomskyan model of Generative Grammar and proposed a formulaic view of language where grammar and lexis were no longer seen as opposites. However, as previously highlighted, these propositions at the time were not supported by real language analysis and thus their influence was limited. However, during the 1980s, the advances in technology allowed linguists to start conducting computerised analysis of large amounts of spoken and written texts and corpora started to become more widely available. As discussed in section 6.3 the empirical evidence obtained through text analysis allowed scholars, such as Sinclair

(1991) to confirm that language was largely made up of prefabricated chunks and that, at the same time, meaning can be realised in ways which go beyond the rules of syntax. The new insights into language use led to the conclusion that, since formulaicity is such a crucial characteristic of native speaker's language, teaching it would most likely benefit L2 learners. Therefore, new pedagogies on implementing the lexical view of language started to be developed, and this section will discuss the three most influential works from that period. Firstly, the Lexical Syllabus developed by Sinclair and Renouff (1988) and put into practice by Willis (1990) will be examined, then the work of Nattinger and DeCarrico's (1992) on the pedagogy of lexical phrases will be presented and finally, Lewis' (1993, 1997, 2000) Lexical Approach will be discussed.

6.6 The Lexical Syllabus

During the 1980s applied linguists were able to conduct computerised discourse analysis and linguistic projects, aiming to incorporate corpus data into ELT, started to be established. One of these developments was the COBUILD (Collins–Birmingham University International Language Database) project founded in 1980 and led by John Sinclair. The work conducted by COBUILD was initially set up to produce the Collins and Cobuild English Language Dictionary. However, it was later decided that the corpora would also serve as a basis for a lexical syllabus. The lexical syllabus is perhaps most widely associated with Willis and Willis' COBUILD English Language Course (1988), which will be discussed here. However, before examining Willis' (1990) work on implementing the lexical syllabus, it is necessary to review the theoretical basis established by Sinclair and Renouf (1988).

Sinclair and Renouf's (1988) notion of a lexical syllabus was developed as an alternative to the traditional grammar-based syllabuses popular at the time. Sinclair and Renouf propose a syllabus based around the most frequent words and word patterns which emerged during text analysis conducted by COUBILD. According to Sinclair and Renouf (1988, p.155), analysis of word patterns, rather than explicit instruction on grammar, leads to language acquisition since "if the analysis of the words and phrases has been done correctly, then all relevant grammar, etc. should appear in a proper proportion since verb tenses are combinations of some of the commonest words in the language". While Sinclair and Renouf indicate what should be taught they do not provide a methodology which would help to achieve the linguistic outcomes. On the contrary, they assert that the lexical syllabus is "an independent syllabus unrelated by any principles to any methodology" (Sinclair and Renouf, 1988, p.155). Sinclair and

Renouf's work was put into practice by Willis (1990) who, together with his wife Jane Willis, designed a course based around the 2,500 most frequent words and word patterns found in the COBUILD corpus. Willis' (1990) practical implementation of the lexical syllabus took the form of three course books (COBUILD English Course). Willis (1990, p.38) justifies the linguistic focus in the following way:

> The commonest patterns in English occur again and again with the commonest words in English. If we are to provide learners with language experience which offers exposure to the most useful patterns of the language we might as well begin by researching the most useful words in the language.

Therefore, the first course was based on the most frequent 700 words of English found in the COBUILD corpus, which constituted 70% of the analysed texts, the second book was then based on the most frequent 1,500 words which constituted 76% and the last course was based on the most frequent 2,500 words which constituted 80% of text. Willis (1990, p.46) concludes the word selection by stating the following:

> (…) 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. (...) the figures illustrate dramatically the importance of careful selection in identifying the lexical content of the syllabus.

Willis (1990, p.77-80) provides examples of words included in the first course. High frequency words such as 'visit', 'window' 'would' and 'so' were incorporated, together with words of high importance in the classroom context such as 'teacher', 'student', 'group' and 'share'. Moreover, words which did not qualify for inclusion on the grounds of frequency alone, but which completed important lexical sets (days of the week, and a number of adjectives of colour and shape) were also included. All words were presented within their most frequent patterns and their uses were highlighted and illustrated with COBUILD data. Willis (1990, p.80) presents an entry from the reference section in the first course which focuses on six uses of 'so':

- **Marking a summary or a change of subject**
  So what do you do at quarter to eight?
- **Expressing amount**
  There are always *so* many tourists.

- **Meaning 'therefore'**

  The suitcase looked exactly like mine, *so* I said 'Excuse me, sir... '

- **Pointing back**

  V: Wouldn't you think Cairo was 1500? DL: Yes, out of the ones given, I would've thought *so.*

- **'So that' used to talk about result or purpose**

  Let me know as soon as you have fixed your travel plans, *so that* I can make sure that you are properly looked after

- **Meaning 'also'**

  JV: The woman next to him has orange trousers. DL: *So* has mine.

Willis (1990, p.81) claims that the lexical organisation of the syllabus allows learners to create an understanding of how language works based on concrete, rather than abstract notions. According to Willis (ibid.), words, unlike grammatical structures, are "immediately recognisable" and learners can refer to them in their discovery of how language is used in natural communication. While Willis (1990) does not provide a clear indication of what the lexical content in the second and third course is, he advocates the recycling of lexical items throughout the duration of the course and encouraging learners to utilise their existing lexical knowledge, without having to resort to less frequent vocabulary.

To achieve the linguistic aims specified, Willis (1990) proposes the use of authentic reading and audio materials and a task-based methodology. Willis refers to the teaching materials as a 'pedagogic' or 'learner' corpus since students are expected to use the authentic input to draw conclusions about how texts convey meaning. Apart from the focus on meaning, learners are guided in their exploration of word grammar, that is, the ways in which certain words change their meaning depending on their company. For instance, the uses of 'so', presented earlier, would be discovered by students through the analysis of samples from the corpus. The teacher's role is to guide students in forming hypotheses on how language conveys meaning and to help them make generalisations about the language system from the sample data. As discussed earlier, the linguistic analysis would be combined with a task-based methodology since it was believed that "people learn a language best by actually using the language to achieve real outcomes" (Willis, 1990, p.1). Learners would perform communicative tasks and then compare their linguistic choices with those of native speakers when performing the same communicative action.

As demonstrated, the lexical syllabus constituted a radical attempt to move away from a grammar driven approach to language teaching. Thornbury (1998, p.9) describes Willis' work as "a brave and principled project" and Richards and Rodgers (2001) refer to it as the most ambitious attempt to realise a syllabus based on a lexical rather than grammatical principle. Nonetheless, it is essential to review some of the criticisms that the lexical syllabus has received.

First of all, while Cook (1998, p.58) recognises the importance of corpus data, he also argues that language courses should be influenced by corpus and *not* corpus driven since "computer corpora (…) can never be more than a contribution to our understanding of effective language teaching". Moreover, using frequency as the only indicator of course content has been questioned. Dellar (2013), for instance, claims that knowing the most common words will allow learners to "say a lot about not very much" and that frequency counts cannot tell us what is useful, necessary or teachable. Therefore, while it is argued that frequency information is valuable in ELT, since the commonest units of language are the ones most likely to be met by learners outside the classroom (Koprowski, 2005), frequency should not constitute the sole factor in defining what to teach. Harwood (2002) suggests that apart from frequency, it is essential to consider the learning context. For instance, developing a pre-sessional EAP course requires consulting different corpora than would be the case when designing an intermediate general English course. Another objection put forward by Wray (2000) and Granger (2011), concerns the assumption that acquisition of formulaic sequences constitutes a means of accessing knowledge of lexis and syntax, just as it takes place in L1 acquisition. Wray (2000) and Swan (2006) argue that there is very little empirical evidence which would support the notion that L2 learners are able to generalise linguistic knowledge from formulaic sequences without explicit instruction.

As demonstrated, the lexical syllabus and the COBUILD English Course constituted a practical application in the shift from grammar-based syllabuses to instruction which was based around the notion of lexico-grammar. Despite its innovative approach, however, it did not constitute a commercial success. Harwood (2002) suggests that one of the reasons could be that teachers were not ready for such a radical change. Moreover, Hanks (2013) suggests that the lack of a systematic body of research into formulaic sequences at the time could have contributed to the hesitation on the part of teachers. Hanks (2013, p.423) also mentions more practical issues such as off-putting presentation of the materials and describes the textbook pages as "unpleasantly cluttered". Nonetheless, the influence of Willis' work on bringing lexis

into the forefront of ELT needs to be recognised, as argued by Thornbury (1998) and Richards and Rogers (2001).

6.7 Nattinger and DeCarrico's Lexical Phrases

As previously stated, Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) coined the term 'lexical phrases' which they defined as "multi-word lexical phenomena that exist somewhere between the traditional poles of lexis and syntax" (Nattinger and DeCarrico, 1992, p.1). Nattinger and DeCarrico perceived lexical phrases as crucial elements for pragmatically successful communication and on this basis advocated instruction on chunks in ELT.

Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) emphasise the pragmatic roles chunks have in conversation and categorise them under the following headings: 'social interactions', 'necessary topics' and 'discourse devices', as shown in Table 3. They consider lexical phrases pedagogically applicable, particularly at the early stages of language development where students are not able to use the L2 creatively. Nattinger and DeCarrico propose that teaching lexical phrases allows students, even at the lowest levels of language competence, to communicate effectively in a way which resembles native-speakers' discourse. Moreover, they argue that lexical phrases prevent frustration and promote motivation and fluency due to their holistic nature. Finally, since they are associated with the most common social situations, learners can encounter and eventually use them outside of the classroom. However, despite the clear purpose underlying Nattinger and DeCarrico's work, the pedagogical value of their proposition needs be questioned due to the lack of information on the source of the chosen lexical phrases and the process of their categorisation, as discussed in section 6.4.

In terms of methodology, Nattinger and DeCarrico did not develop a separate procedure for the implementation of lexical chunks. Instead, they advocated incorporating lexical phrases into communicative activities which were already present in the classroom. Moreover, they suggested that teachers should design activities which would aid "the progression from routine to pattern to creative language use" (Nattinger and DeCarrico, 1992, p.116). They posited that such activities should focus on sentence builders (e.g. I'm [very] sorry [to hear about X]) since they allow room for future variations. In terms of grammar, Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992, p.121) did not advocate explicit teaching of tenses. Instead, they suggested using activities where students analyse lexically varied phrases in terms of their syntax, since in this way "the grammar would not be presented as primary but as consequence of the achievement of

meaning through the modification of lexical items" (ibid.). Therefore, the methodological suggestions made by Nattinger and DeCarrico resemble Willis' assertion that analysis and acquisition of high volumes of lexical phrases will lead to the development of all the necessary knowledge needed for successful language use. Wray (2000) argues that there are two main issues with such a view. Firstly, it now appears that while there are certain similarities between L1 and L2 acquisition, these two processes cannot be treated as equal. Thus, assuming that L2 learners will become successful language users solely through the acquisition of chunks has not been justified. What is more, Wray (2000) argues that encouraging students to analyse chunks in terms of syntax goes against their *holistic* nature.

Despite its limitations, it is argued that Nattinger and DeCarrico's pedagogical proposition could be seen as a useful "introduction to the potential applications of lexical phrases to second-language pedagogy" (Leech, 1992, p.163) and it is essential to recognise its importance in the context of changing practices of ELT Nattinger and DeCarrico stressed the pragmatic functions of formulaic sequences and nowadays it is argued that formulaic sequences play an important role in speakers' pragmatic competence since they allow for successful and socially accepted communication in a given context (Kasper and Rose, 2001).

6.8 Lewis and The Lexical Approach

'The Lexical Approach: The State of ELT and a Way Forward' was published by Lewis in 1993 and was followed by 'Implementing the Lexical Approach' in 1997, with the intention of changing the practices of language teachers and providing them with a practical guide to applying the lexical view of language. Similarly to Willis and Nattinger and DeCarrico, Lewis wishes to include the teaching of prefabricated language chunks, which he refers to as 'lexical phrases', into the ELT classroom. However, Lewis posits that The Lexical Approach is a much wider concept than the work presented by the previously discussed scholars:

> Lexis 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.
>
> (Lewis, 1993, p.35)

Drawing on the work of Sinclair (1991), Lewis posits that a lot of native speakers' language behaviour relies on the retrieval of prefabricated lexico-grammatical chunks of language and thus challenges the traditional distinction between grammar and lexis. He states that language should be seen as 'grammaticalised lexis' and not 'lexicalised grammar', thus giving more importance to the behaviour of words and word patterns in language production and understanding.

In his theory of language, Lewis presents a clear distinction between vocabulary and lexis, where the former consists of single words and the latter of lexical items. Lexical items are defined as "socially sanctioned independent units" (Lewis, 1997, p.90) that encompass single words as well as chunks and which can have various pragmatic functions. According to Lewis (1993, p.20) these lexical items are subconsciously acquired and "carried" in the speaker's mental lexicon[1] in order to be retrieved as wholes to encode and decode meaning. Therefore, Lewis sees lexis, rather than grammar, as central to language use.

Lewis, similar to Nattinger and DeCarrico and Willis, emphasises the pragmatic role of language and stresses the importance of intelligibility and successful, rather than correct, language use. His strong belief that language should be treated as a "means to an end, rather than an end in itself" (Lewis, 1997, p.70) significantly shaped his dissatisfaction with grammar-led classroom practices at the time. Lewis' views on the theory of language are inevitably related to his theory of learning which will be examined below.

To begin with, Lewis sees a clear connection between L1 and L2 acquisition. He claims that, although these processes are not identical, the similarities between them should be explored in ELT. On this basis Lewis advocates, first, providing learners with high volumes of comprehensible input and, secondly, encouraging students to treat the knowledge of their L1 as a tool in learning L2. In terms of the first assertion, Lewis' theory of learning is influenced by Krashen's (1983) Natural Approach where authentic spoken and written input constitute the basis for L2 acquisition and where language is acquired rather than learnt. Lewis proposes that, at lower levels, the teachers themselves should act as a source of comprehensible input, allowing students to observe language. However, at the very early stages, students would not be expected to produce language, since they need to undergo a period of non-verbalisation before being able to communicate. In terms of the place of L1 in the classroom, Lewis postulates that

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[1]The idea of a mental lexicon, widely used in Lewis' writings, originates from the field of psychology and refers to the abstract 'space' in speakers' minds where words are stored.

students should draw on their experience of learning their mother tongue, although one could question the extent of conscious processes involved in L1 learning. Moreover, Lewis advocates translation as a classroom tool and encourages the search for L1 equivalents of the L2 lexical items, considering it a form of consciousness-raising. The notion of consciousness-raising in ELT and in the Lexical Approach will be reviewed next; however, it is noteworthy that the use of translation in ELT has been recently advocated by Cook (2010). Cook argues that exclusively monolingual teaching does not reflect the needs of learners and teachers and that using students' L1 supports language awareness through providing meaning equivalence to which learners can easily refer.

The notion of 'consciousness-raising', central to the Lexical Approach, has been present in ELT since the early 1980s when Sharwood Smith (1983) coined this term to refer to drawing students' attention to formal features of language i.e. grammar. Sharwood Smith was writing in opposition to Krashen's (1982) Acquisition and Learning theory, where explicit instruction (learning) was believed to have no effect on language acquisition. Thus, while Sharwood Smith was advocating formal focus on form, he did not specify in what ways teachers should do so. In Lewis' work, on the other hand, consciousness-raising refers specifically to input-centred activities where students observe language and develop a hypothesis about the underlying rules. These conscious processes allow students to 'notice' (Schmidt, 1990) linguistic patterns previously referred to as grammar and lead to converting input (the language learners encounter) into intake (language that is internalised). The emphasis on conscious processing in the Lexical Approach is founded upon cognitive learning theory where L2 acquisition is believed to be based on the progression from conscious mental activity to subconscious automatic use (Thornbury 2006, p.31). The importance of conscious processes in L2 acquisition is reflected in Lewis' Observe Hypothesise Experiment (OHE) framework which will be reviewed in the upcoming section.

Having reviewed Lewis' theories of language and learning, it is essential to focus on the objections that have been raised to some aspects of Lewis' work. First of all, Timmis (2008) points out that, although Lewis advocates teaching of chunks with the use of high volumes of input, there is no specification in terms of what chunks should be taught or how they should be categorised. Nor is there a guideline in terms of what texts should be used in the classroom. Thornbury (1998, p.11) states that, even though Lewis advocates using his and Jimmie Hill´s 'Dictionary of Selected Collocations' as a basis for the selection of collocations, he does not provide any further guidance on this matter which "makes is difficult to visualise how the Lexical Approach

is operationalized in the long term". Moreover, as Lea and Runcie (2002) observe, Lewis and Hill´s dictionary was largely based on the authors' intuition and on a relatively small (a million words) 1960s Brown's Corpus based on written texts. Thus, entries found in the dictionary include chunks such as 'smouldering suspicion' or 'fritter away the gains', and their usefulness for learners needs to be questioned. Furthermore, Harwood (2002) states:

> Although Lewis (1993) gives us an insight into the kind of syllabuses he does *not* favour and a range of classroom activities which bring lexis to the fore (Lewis 1997), we are never presented with a comprehensive syllabus based around a lexical approach that Lewis *does* approve of.

And Timmis (2008) goes as far as to say that that due to the methodological issues the Lexical Approach should not be called an approach at all.

Another criticism concerns the notion that through the acquisition of formulaic sequences learners can gain all the necessary linguistic knowledge required for correct and idiomatic language use, just as it happens in L1 acquisition. As previously discussed in the context of Willis' and Nattinger and DeCarrico's claims, this assumption has been criticised by Granger (1998) and Wray (2000) who argue that there is no evidence to suggest that L1 and L2 acquisition are similar in this respect. Thornbury (1998, p.10) agrees stating: "it is not clear whether multi-word units play a part in the reconstructing of the learner's internalised second-language grammar". Therefore, while Lewis (2000) points to his colleagues' reports which suggest that learners appeared to have benefited from consciousness-raising activities, little empirical evidence exists to confirm the efficacy of such pedagogical interventions (Wood, 2009, p.43).

In sum, Lewis proposes a radical change from grammar-oriented approaches to one that treats lexis as the basis for L2 acquisition. Although it has been argued that the term 'approach' might not reflect the nature of Lewis' work, his propositions have influenced ELT in the long term. For instance, the recent work of Dellar and Walkley (2004, 2010) on the 'Innovations' and 'Outcomes' coursebooks is based to a large extent on Lewis' Lexical Approach and puts lexis at the forefront of classroom practice.

6.9 Comparison of Presentation Practice Production and Observe Hypothesise Experiment Frameworks

It is now essential to explore the theoretical and pedagogical notions represented by PPP and OHE. In order to gain a fuller understanding of PPP the discussion here will be based not solely on Lewis' interpretation, but also on the works of Byrne (1986), Gabrielatos (1994) and Ranta and Lyster (2007). First, however, the notions of deductive and inductive teaching will be explained, since they are central to understanding the PPP and OHE paradigms.

As stated by Gollin (1998), a 'purely' deductive approach is characterised by conscious and explicit focus on rules which are then applied to examples, and it is associated with the grammar-translation method. A deductive approach is teacher-fronted as the students are given explanations at the beginning of the class and then complete activities which focus on the rule in question. An inductive approach, on the other hand, is best illustrated by audiolingualism "where meaning and grammar were not explicitly explained but induced from carefully graded exposure to and practice with examples in situations and substitution tables" (Gollin, 1998, p.88). With regards to the two teaching frameworks in focus, PPP has been traditionally considered a deductive approach and OHE an inductive one. However, while the deductive and inductive approaches are seen as opposites, it is possible for teachers to resort to techniques where explicit focus is used together with analysing examples (where the explanations take place before or after the practice) and where the degree of guidance the students receive in working out the rules varies (ibid.). It is argued that PPP can, and often does, involve learners in language discovery where explicit explanations and inference from examples are combined.

As pointed out by Gabrielatos (1994), the stages in PPP have been interpreted in various ways. However, typically the following is understood: in the Presentation stage the language point is presented in context and it is followed by explicit focus on form and meaning; then, in the Practice stage, the students take part in controlled activities such as drills or simple personalisation where the focus is on form (Byrne, 1986); finally, in the Production stage, the focus is on meaning and students are encouraged to use the newly-presented language point in a freer activity such as a role-play or a writing task and thus hopefully integrate it into their interlanguage.

Lewis' interpretation of PPP is that of a rule-driven deductive teaching framework based on behaviourism. According to behaviourism, people learn through

habit formation where the repetition of positive behaviour leads to skill development. Therefore, all 'negative' habits, such as linguistic errors in the case of L2, should be avoided (Thornbury, 2006). Lewis (1993, 1997) and Skehan (1996) link PPP with behaviourism due to the presence of practice drills in the Practice stage and argue that PPP does not provide students with the opportunities to consciously analyse the language in focus. Lewis claims that PPP does not reflect the non-linear nature of L2 acquisition arguing that teachers cannot prescribe what is learnt and when. While it is assumed here that Lewis' strong disapproval of PPP might have originated from the classroom practices he witnessed at the time, it is necessary to review other perspectives on PPP.

Ellis (1992) and Gabrielatos (1994) suggest that PPP can employ either a deductive or an inductive approach to presenting language. That is, while students might be instantly provided with explicit information on the rule in one instance, they might be involved in inferring rules from numerous examples in another. Moreover, although Lewis (1993) sees a close connection between PPP and the behaviourist theory, Ranta and Lyster (2007, p.149), suggest that PPP is more related to cognitive learning theory than behaviourism. They justify this claim by drawing a comparison between PPP and Anderson's (1982) three phase skill building model where, at each stage, students are consciously involved in the learning process: from consciously striving to understand the form and meaning; through applying the knowledge into practice; to eventual automatic production.

In terms of OHE, Lewis does not provide an exhaustive explanation of each of the stages, thus they are open to interpretation. Having examined The Lexical Approach (1993) the following has been understood. First, in the Observe stage, learners are provided with spoken or written input and, with the teacher's guidance, they are involved in 'chunking' the language i.e. looking for and highlighting regularities in the language data and drawing conclusions about the language from these regularities. Next, in the Hypothesise stage, the students form a hypothesis about the rules underlying the observed linguistic behaviour. Once the hypotheses are formed, learners proceed to the Experiment stage where they test their theory in a communicative situation, but not necessarily during class time. If they come across a limitation of their hypothesis they need to modify their existing knowledge, thus in the Lexical Approach errors are seen as essential components of L2 development. Due to the influence of Krashen's Natural Approach, when using the OHE model the focus is on input and "although learners may participate through speaking, they can also do so perhaps more

effectively, by listening, noticing and reflecting" (Lewis, 2001, p.49). Thus, the OHE model reflects Lewis' theory of learning discussed in section 6.9, where conscious awareness of learning process and language use, combined with exposure to high volumes of comprehensible input, constitute the basis for language acquisition.

Table 4 compares PPP and OHE both in terms of Lewis' views of PPP and a more current view, which is how PPP is interpreted in this study.

Table 4 Comparison of PPP and OHE

Lewis' interpretation of PPP	PPP	OHE
Deductive	Inductive or deductive	Inductive
Behaviourism	Cognitive theory	Cognitive theory
Linear view of language acquisition	Incremental view of language acquisition	Incremental view of language acquisition
Focus on output	Focus on output	Focus on input
Provides explicit instruction on an isolated grammar point	Provides explicit instruction on an isolated grammar point	Lack of explicit instruction on syntax grammar, however, there might be explicit focus on word grammar

6.10 Previous Studies

Despite the fact that the notion of chunks has been established in theories of language and SLA, empirical research into the most effective ways of teaching formulaic sequences remains limited (Boers and Lindstromberg, 2012). It has not been possible to encounter a study which would directly compare PPP and OHE in the context of teaching formulaic sequences. Therefore this section will discuss investigations into the effects of consciousness-raising and production-oriented activities on the acquisition of chunks. The studies reviewed do not represent the complete empirical evidence available. However, they have been chosen based on their relevance to this study.

As previously discussed, one of the central activities in the Lexical Approach is that of chunking text. Boers, Eyckmans, Kappel, et al. (2006) compared the performance of two groups of advanced adult EFL students. In the first group text chunking was incorporated into classroom activities during the school year, whereas in the second group students took part in activities where the traditional grammar-lexis

dichotomy was maintained. At the end of the course both groups were asked to retell a story based on a text. The results demonstrated that, while the experimental group succeeded in incorporating more formulaic sequences into their discourse, one third of those chunks were phrases present in the text. Thus, while students' awareness of formulaic sequences was raised and enabled them to recognise and use chunks in the test, the evidence does not suggest that during the course the experimental students built a repertoire of formulaic sequences which were available for productive use. Stegners, Boers, Housen and Eyckmans, (2010) replicated this experiment; however, to prevent students from recycling the chunks from the original text, the material used was in students' L1. The results revealed no difference in the production of formulaic sequences between the groups.

An earlier study conducted by Jones and Haywood (2004) investigated the acquisition of chunks during a 10-week EAP pre-sessional course. During the course the students engaged in various consciousness-raising activities such as highlighting chunks in texts, discussing word patterns with the use of concordance lines and discussing the usefulness of the encountered chunks in EAP writing. Similarly to the studies discussed above, the learners demonstrated an awareness of the presence of chunks, as they were able to highlight useful chunks in newly encountered texts and recommend them to other students. At the same time, however, it was not possible to establish whether the conscious raising activities the students took part in led to retention of chunks since the final essays did not contain a higher number of formulaic sequences than in those in the control group.

Wray and Fitzpatrick (2008) involved six English language learners of upper-intermediate level in a series of activities which actively promoted the memorisation of selected chunks. The participants worked with native speakers and were first asked to identify five to six future conversations and the chunks which would be useful and appropriate in those instances. The native speakers then provided a model for the chosen utterances which was recorded and practised by the learner at home. After a few days the students rehearsed the formulaic sequences in a "practice performance" (Wray and Fitzpatrick, 2008, p.129). Finally, the students attempted to use the phrases in real time conversations, specified at the beginning of the study. The results revealed that learners were able to use the memorised chunks to a certain degree; however, at times the students were not able to produce the models accurately or even produce them at all due to the unpredictable nature of the spoken encounters.

Wood (2009) reported a study where he focused on providing one learner of English with extensive instruction on formulaic sequences through a six-week set of "fluency workshops" (Wood, 2009, p.48). The workshops took the form of input-automatization-practice and production-free talk sequences. In the input stage the learner completed a listening activity with the use of authentic material and later was guided in noticing the target chunks. In the next stage, the learner practised her pronunciation through the use of shadowing (where written text is read aloud while simultaneously listening to a recorded model) and took part in other activities designed to promote automatization (see Wood, 2009, p.49). Later, the learner was required to prepare a narrative and tell it to three students. First with a four minute limit, then three and finally a two-minute limit to assess fluency. At the end of the fluency workshop the student was required to speak spontaneously on a randomly-drawn topic. The results indicated a significant gain in the students' ability to use formulaic sequences and many of the formulaic sequences she used came from the native-speaker model previously presented.

Finally, Halenko and Jones (2011) investigated the effect of explicit instruction on the acquisition of chunks with the pragmatic function of request. Over the course of six hours students received instruction in the following way: introduction of topic/awareness-raising, explicit instruction, production practice (students practised making spoken requests in pairs and in front of the class) and discussion of used chunks. The results revealed that the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group on the post-test. However, the chunks were not retained in the long-term suggesting that "sustained input is required to maintain the competence levels" (Halenko and Jones, 2011, p.247).

The studies reviewed in this section have aimed to establish the most effective ways of teaching chunks; however, they have produced mixed results. Therefore, the question as to whether formulaic sequences can be taught in the same way as other language points remains unanswered and further research into pedagogical implications for chunks is needed. The study presented in the upcoming sections aims to contribute, albeit to a limited extent, to the discussion surrounding the teaching of formulae, by comparing two teaching frameworks: PPP and OHE. It has been recognised that while Lewis (1993) advocated OHE as *the* framework for teaching formulaic language and provided extensive criticism of PPP, he did so without any empirical evidence. Moreover, while PPP has been compared to Task Based Learning (Roohani and Saba, 2010; Sato, 2010; Mei-xia, 2009; Shintani, 2012) and consciousness-raising (Al

Ghazali, 2006) in a variety of educational settings, it appears that there are no published studies which compare it with OHE in particular. Moreover, while studies such as Jones (2011) and Baleghizadeh and Ghobadi (2012) investigate the effectiveness of PPP and are conducted in the Higher Education settings, again neither of the investigations seeks to compare PPP with OHE specifically. Thus, this study seeks to address this research gap.

In the following section the methodology employed in this study will be presented and justified. The upcoming discussion will be focused on the language point chosen for this study, the sample and the data collection and analysis tools.

7.0 CHAPTER TWO: METHODOLOGY

Having reviewed the literature and research related to this study, the decisions concerning its design will be described and justified. This section presents and explains the research setting, the sample, and the data collection and analysis methods, and aims to demonstrate how these permitted answering the following research questions:

RQ1: Does explicit instruction affect students' productive knowledge of chosen chunks necessary for stalling and circumlocution and is either of the treatments (PPP or OHE) more effective than the other in terms of aiding students' ability to produce the target forms?

RQ2: Does explicit instruction affect students' receptive knowledge of chosen chunks necessary for stalling and circumlocution and is either of the treatments (PPP or OHE) more effective than the other in terms of aiding students' ability to recognise and understand the target forms.

RQ3: What are the learners' views on the teaching framework used and the language points in focus?

7.1 Research Setting

The University of Central Lancashire (UCLan) is the fifth largest university in the UK in terms of student numbers with a population of 32, 000 students in 2011. International students constitute a big part of the student community with 102 nationalities present. According to the records, in 2011 there were 1,820 overseas students and 828 EU nationals enrolled on degree programmes at UCLan (personal communication with UCLan International Office). Due to such high numbers of international students UCLan provides a yearlong International Foundation Programme (IFP) which aims to equip students with skills and knowledge in areas of Academic English which will allow them to complete their chosen degrees.

English for Academic Purposes (EAP) lies at the centre of the IFP and the development of both receptive and productive skills in Reading, Writing, Speaking and Listening is based around academic materials. It has been observed (Clennell, 1999; Jarvis and Stakounis, 2010, Halenko and Jones, 2011) that EAP courses do not tend to

focus on conversational and interpersonal English, thus EAP students residing in English speaking countries are often unable to communicate in a pragmatically effective manner in and around the academy. To address this issue, the chunks chosen for this study were ensured to fulfil clear pragmatic functions; in this case the focus was on time gaining and circumlocution devices. It is argued that instruction on chunks with these specified roles would aid the IFP students' ability to communicate in the L2 culture.

7.2 The Participants

The participants chosen for this study were students enrolled on the IFP at UCLan in the academic year 2011/2012. The learners were already assigned to intact classes of fifteen. However, only data sets obtained from ten[2] participants from each group were suitable for analysis.

The participants were all in their early twenties with the mean age of twenty three and on average they had received six years of formal language instruction prior to their arrival in the UK. In terms of gender, the sample consisted of thirteen females and seven males, and the following nationalities were present: Japan (nine learners), China (five learners), Saudi Arabia (four learners), Jordan (one learner) and Poland (one learner). All participants were preparing for undergraduate programmes either at UCLan or other HE institutions in the UK.

In terms of their language proficiency, the students are defined as B2 (upper intermediate) in accordance with the Common European Framework (CEFR). The estimation of the students' level was achieved through the comparison of the mean score they achieved on their IELTS (International English Language Testing System) exam prior to entering the IFP. The mean score was 5.0 (personal communication with IFP coordinator), which is the equivalent of the broadly defined B2 level (Taylor, 2004a, 2004b). The CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001, p.24) provides the following description of abilities at B2 level:

> Can understand the main ideas of complex texts on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical definitions in his/her field of specialisation. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.

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[2] Due to issues with attendance only ten participants in each group completed all stages in the study

7.3 Sampling and Rationale for Sample Size

The sample was chosen using "purposive sampling" (Dornyei, 2007, p.126), and the participants represented students enrolled on the IFP course at UCLan. The process of sampling was approached taking into account both the quantitative and qualitative aspects of the study and the possible implications it may have on its validity.

First, Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) suggest that in order to receive valid quantitative results, the sample should involve at least thirty participants. The number of students enrolled on IFP in 2011/2012 was thirty and the aim was for all of the students to take part in the treatment; however, only ten students from each group completed all stages of the experiment. It could be argued that the sample size being smaller than the recommended thirty affects to an extent the validity of the results. However, there is no intention of generalising the results over a larger population of language learners, and the number of students who participated is not incomparable to the average IFP class size at UCLan (for example, in the academic year 2012/2013 there are twenty students enrolled on the IFP) (personal communication with IFP coordinator). Thus, the sample here does represent, at least to some extent, the population under investigation i.e. multilingual B2 learners enrolled on the IFP at UCLan, a characteristic which Dornyei (2007, p. 96) considers crucial with regards to sampling. In terms of the qualitative dimension of this investigation, Dornyei (2007, p.126) claims that in this context "the main goal of sampling is to find individuals who can provide rich and varied insights into the phenomenon under investigation" and it is believed that this criterion was fulfilled. Moreover, as discovered by Norris and Ortega (2000, 2001) sample sizes in experimental studies of this type vary from 6 to 319 participants, with 32 being the most common number. Therefore, it appears that classroom research tends to be small-scale due to the practical implications involved in obtaining access to a large number of participants and while this issue constitutes a limitation, it is also a reality that ELT researchers are faced with.

7.4 The Choice of Language Focus

The formulaic sequences chosen for this study were divided into two 'sets': Stalling Devices and Circumlocution Devices, with the former encompassing nine multi-word chunks and the latter three.

Table 5 Chunks used in the study

Stalling Devices	Circumlocution Devices
What I mean is	It's a bit like
As a matter of fact	It's (a) kind of/sort of
I know what you mean	The thing you use for + -ing.
At the end of the day	
I'm not entirely sure	
Let's put it this way	
To be honest with you	
What I'm trying to say is	
Let me think/see	

It was felt that even though the students were most probably at least receptively familiar with some of the chunks, a number greater than twelve would not be feasible considering the complexity of the target forms and the length of treatment (90 minutes).

In terms of the distribution of chunks, fewer circumlocution devices were selected, since I would argue that they are sufficient to allow students to describe unknown vocabulary and sustain conversation. A greater number of stalling devices was included for two reasons. First, I have recognised that although the chunks are presented here as time-gaining devices, their functions depend on the communicative situations they are used in (Prodromou, 2008). Thus, 'as a matter of fact' can be used to emphasise the truth of the speaker's assertion; 'I know what you mean' can express agreement; 'at the end of the day' can be a summariser and 'let's put it this way' can mean 'in other words' when the speaker attempts to clarify something. However, despite their various pragmatic functions, it is argued that these chunks might not always be salient to L2 learners since they are not crucial for conveying meaning. Therefore, it is hoped that explicit instruction on these chunks will allow learners to notice them in language input and eventually develop a sense of their uses in different contexts. Moreover, even though the assumption was that some level of receptive knowledge was present, Bardovi-Harlig (2009) who compared learners' receptive and productive knowledge of the same chunks, suggests that, while the recognition of formulas is a necessary condition for their production, it is not a sufficient one. Bardovi-Harlig posits that students need to be able to interpret relevant contexts in which they can use pragmatic routines, and this is where highlighting such contexts in class might be useful for learners.

In terms of selection of chunks, the following procedure was employed. First, Dornyei and Thurrel's (1992, p.44 and p.65) lists of stalling and circumlocution devices were consulted. The frequency of all multi-word strings was checked against the British National Corpus (BNC) using the Compleat Lexical Tutor (2012) online corpus data tool. Some of the most frequent chunks were then selected following Schmitt's (2010) assertion that teaching frequent vocabulary gives students more opportunities of recognising it in input and, hopefully, eventually leads to acquisition. Two chunks: 'what I'm trying to say is', 'the thing you use for', which appeared in Dornyei and Thurrel's (1992) list, were also added, despite not being significantly frequent in the BNC. Moreover, 'at the end of the day' and 'I'm not entirely sure' were included, even though they were not present in Dornyei and Thurrel (1992). These two decisions were based on the researcher's intuition which is also considered a valid factor in specifying items for instruction (Dornyei, 2007).

In terms of form, the decision was made to only include three or more-word chunks following Lewis' (2000, p.13) claim that teaching longer chunks is more beneficial for learners since "the larger the chunks are which learners originally acquire, the easier the task of re-producing natural language later". Thus, two-word chunks and items such as 'well', 'actually' 'um/err' which appear in Dornyei and Thurrel (ibid.) were discarded.

7.5 The Choice of Pedagogy

Conducting a comparison of two teaching frameworks required that the procedures used in each lesson represented each approach in the best possible way. For that reason, the activities were designed following the guidance of Byrne (1986) and Gabrielatos (1994) with regards to PPP, and Lewis (1993, 1997) with regards to OHE. However, it has to be noticed that, while the design of a PPP class is relatively clear-cut, there is no 'recipe' for a 'typical' OHE lesson. Therefore, the OHE lesson was designed using Lewis' suggestions on the use of activities such as vocabulary grouping, highlighting chosen lexical features and re-assembling cut up phrases. A decision was made to adopt some of the tasks found in Lewis (1997, p.150-163), which had been developed and reported by ELT teachers. Table 6 presents lesson procedures in PPP and OHE and the lesson plans can be found in Appendices 1 and 2.

Table 6 Lesson procedures in PPP and OHE

PPP	OHE
Presentation	**Observe**
1 SS work in pairs and choose the 5 most popular/useful places on campus. SS share their ideas and we put them on the board.	1 SS work in pairs and choose the 5 most popular/useful places on campus. SS share their ideas and we put them on the board.
2 The teacher shows pictures of places that would have hopefully come up: the I, the library and the new gym.	2 The teacher shows pictures of places that would have hopefully come up: the I, the library and the new gym.
3 The SS need to think of and write up 3 topics of conversations (1 for each place) and the teacher elicits ideas.	3 The SS need to think of and write up 3 topics of conversations (1 for each place) and the teacher elicits ideas.
4 The SS complete a matching activity to pre-teach vocabulary.	4 The SS complete a matching activity to pre-teach vocabulary.
5 The SS listen to the recording and match the conversations with the places in the pictures	5 The SS listen to the recording and match the conversations with the places in the pictures.
6 SS answer comprehension questions	6 SS answer comprehension questions.
7 The teacher gives the SS the script with gaps, the SS listen again and fill the gaps with the appropriate chunks.	7 The SS need to put together the cut up dialogues (the matching point will be always a chunk).
8 The SS need to decide what the functions of those chunks are.	**Hypothesise**
9 The teacher elicits more chunks.	1 The SS need to categorise the chunks.
10 The teacher drills the chunks chorally and individually.	2 The SS are asked to put the chunks in two columns: expressions that give you more time to think and expressions used for describing things/situations.
Practice	In pairs the learners decide the following:
1 The SS play a game where in 3 minutes they need to describe as many items as possible using circumlocution	Which expressions they feel comfortable using.
2 The SS play a game where they need to match and say out loud stalling chunks: for example one student puts down a "Let's" card and the student who puts down a card with "put it this way" and says it out loud gets a point.	Which they think they'll never use and why. Why they like/dislike certain expressions. **Observe** 1 The SS work in groups of 4 and read a text out loud and the rest need to listen carefully, the text will be read out twice, the second time there will be errors in the target chunks, and whoever spots the mistake calls out the exact word used in the original.
Production	2 The students play a game of domino matching the phrases.
1 The SS need to choose another spot on campus and write a dialogue similar to those listened to and present it to the class (the SS will be able to choose from 3 topics or pick their own)	3 The students arrange the cut up phrases – jigsaw exercise.
2 The SS choose the best one	

The PPP lesson needed to give students the opportunity to first focus on form and function of the language and then to practice it in controlled and freer activities. The OHE lesson, on the other hand, did not require the students to produce the language at any point. The aim of the OHE class was to develop learners' awareness of the chosen chunks so that they would notice them in the input and eventually acquire them.

As can be seen in Table 6, the first five stages of the classes did not differ at all. In each group the students were first led into the topic, prepared for the listening comprehension activity (transcript in Appendix 3) and completed the first part of the comprehension exercise. However, when completing the second part of the comprehension exercise, the PPP students were asked to fill out gaps with chunks they heard, while the OHE group needed to re-assemble chunks which had been separated prior to the class. In the PPP group the students had to then decide what functions these chunks played in the conversation, as a part of focus on function (Gabrielatos, 1994). In the OHE group, on the other hand, the students were already given the two functions and their task was to categorise the chunks. This first stage has been described as the Presentation stage in the case of PPP and the Observe stage in the OHE framework. It could be argued that the two stages do not differ to a great extent, since both of them 'show' the language to the students in context. In the PPP group the students also took part in choral and individual drills which constitute an element of focus on form and are employed to increase students' confidence in the next stages. In the OHE group, at no point were the target forms repeated by the students and the students' only task was to observe the language, in this case listen to it and to read it.

In the Practice stage in PPP group, the students took part in activities which elicited the language in focus. These involved a matching activity where the final choice needed to be said out loud and a description game where the students had to make use of circumlocution devices when describing vocabulary items. In the freer activity, typically labelled as the Production stage, the students had to come up with a conversation which they would be likely to have on the university campus. Thus, at this point, the students were expected to successfully use the target chunks together with other language features. In the OHE cycle, the second phase involved creating hypothesises about the use of the language in focus. Drawing on an activity found in Lewis (1997, p.66), students were set a task where they had to categorise the chunks i.e. create a hypothesis about their use. The whole class was based around guiding the students to see how the chunks 'behave' in discourse and what their uses are, in order for them to experiment with the language, by using it outside of class and reporting back. It is realised that this part was not present in the study due to limited time; hence the OHE cycle could not be repeated. For this reason the OHE model has been interpreted as Observe Hypothesise Observe (OHO), where students are provided with as much comprehensible input as possible and then 'experiment' with the language in

communicative situations outside the classroom. The process of experimenting is supposed to aid acquisition, which was verified in the delayed test.

7.6 The Choice of Study Design

In order to answer the research questions posed a mixed methods design was necessary. Dornyei (2007, p.163) describes a mixed-methods study as one which "involves the collection or analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data". Dornyei (2007) states that mixed methods research is prominent in the context of ELT and classroom research in particular, since it allows us to investigate classroom processes which influence learning. Van Lier (1988) points out that very little is known about the relationships between instruction and acquisition, thus, classroom research which employs a mixed-methods approach is believed to yield reliable results since it allows us to investigate L2 acquisition from various perspectives.

In the case of this investigation a mixed methods design was chosen for two reasons. First, the use of vocabulary tests allowed an objective evaluation of the effectiveness of the frameworks. Second, the use of questionnaires and focus groups permitted accessing, at least to some extent, the mental processes involved in acquisition of the chosen language. Moreover, the qualitative data allowed me to explore not only students' views on the language in focus and the applied frameworks, but also students' attitudes towards teaching formulae with pragmatic meaning in the context of the IFP. It was considered essential to consider students' views, since it has been argued (Campillo, 1994) that students' beliefs and attitudes towards the language presented affect acquisition:

> (…) if the learner perceives the vital personal relevance of an item, he may acquire it whether the teacher pays great attention to it or not. On the contrary, the learner may consciously or subconsciously reject some of the items being taught.
>
> (Campillo, 1994, p.43)

Critics of mixed-method approach such as Guba (1985) and Morgan (1998) argue that quantitative and qualitative research methods should not be combined since they represent two separate paradigms and thus are incompatible. Nonetheless, a lot of scholars strongly advocate the use of mixed methods (for example, Johnson et al, 2007, p.116; Denscombe, 2008, p.273; Reams and Twale, 2008, p.133) and Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004, in: Cohen et al, 2011, p.21) go as far as to suggest that "mixed

methods research is a research paradigm whose time has come", implying that the traditional view of quantitative and qualitative methods as opposing paradigms should be reconsidered.

7.7 Overview of Data Collection Methods Used

The data for this study was gathered using several data collection methods, which will be briefly described in this section before reviewing each of them in more detail.

In order to obtain quantitative data, which would allow the comparison of the effectiveness of the frameworks, a quasi-experimental design was employed and a 'pre-test-post-test-delayed-test' design was chosen. Two groups of students enrolled on the IFP were selected and labelled as group PPP and group OHE, with accordance to the framework used. The decision was made not to employ a control group since the aim was to compare the two treatment types. In order to test receptive and productive knowledge of the chosen chunks prior to the treatment, a pre-test was distributed at the start of the class. After completing the pre-test, the students took part in a 90-minute class where the language was presented. Then, immediately after the intervention the students were asked to complete a post-test in order to establish whether the treatment had been successful (Schmitt, 2010, p.156). Then, in order to measure the long term effects of the instruction, the students were asked to complete a delayed test which took place two weeks after the intervention.

With the purpose of gathering qualitative data, a questionnaire was distributed after the treatment and a focus group was conducted two weeks later. Using questionnaires was deemed appropriate since they allowed me to access students' views on the target language and the classroom activities they took part it. The fact that the questionnaires were anonymous minimalized the danger of bias. In order to further triangulate the results, a focus group was conducted where each group's and students' opinions on the target language and teaching frameworks were sought. Table 7, based on Creswell and Clark (2011), illustrates the data collection methods used and clarifies the order of the procedures in each group

Table 7 Overview of Data Collection Methods

Phase	Procedure	Type of data obtained
Pre-test	Completion of pre-tests before the treatment.	Quantitative – test scores
Treatment	Two groups of students receive 90 minutes of instruction on the chosen chunks with the use of PPP and OHE	
Immediate Post-test	Completion of a post-test directly after the instruction	Quantitative – test scores
Questionnaire	Completion of a questionnaire with closed and open-ended questions	Quantitative and qualitative – results from rating scales and students' responses from open ended questions.
Delayed Post-test	Completion of a post-test two weeks after the instruction	Quantitative – test scores
Focus group	A semi –structured focus group was conducted with six participants from each group	Qualitative – transcripts of the discussion

7.8 The Use of a Quasi-Experimental Design

Quasi-experimental designs resemble true experiments in that they allow the researcher to observe the relationship between the treatment used and the achieved outcomes (Green et al, 2006), but they lack some of the features typical for a true experiment (see Cohen et al., 2011, p. 316). Here a quasi-experimental design was considered most appropriate as it represents a logical way, and as Cohen et al. (2011) point out, the only way, of comparing the effectiveness of two teaching frameworks between two existing groups.

There are several ways in which a quasi-experimental design can be structured (Cook and Cambell, 1979). The design chosen here was the 'Non-equivalent Comparison Group Design' where random assignation of participants is impossible, and thus pre-existing groups constitute the sample. In this case it was two intact classes of IFP students. The groups are 'non-equivalent' since differences between them remain

and can potentially affect the results due to 'selection bias', which occurs when the sample does not represent the larger population (in this case IFP students at UCLan) due to numerous differences (Larzelere et al, 2004, p.45). In order to minimise selection bias the chosen groups were assured to be as similar as possible in the context given. All the students were enrolled on the IFP programme which meant that they were of similar linguistic ability (broadly defined B2 level) and their age and educational backgrounds were also comparable, as previously discussed. As pointed out by Dornyei (2007, p.117), "working with non-equivalent groups has become an accepted research methodology" and what we need to realise is that "in such cases we cannot rely on the neat and automatic way the true experiments deal with various threats to validity but have to deal with these ourselves".

Apart from selection bias, an internal validity threat which needed to be considered was "practice effect" (Dornyei, 2007, p.53). Practice effect occurs when students repeatedly take tests which measure their knowledge of a given language point. This threat was considered when the decision was made to use a post-test as well as a delayed test, since the format of all the tests was identical (apart from the changes made in the order in which the questions appeared). In order to minimise the practice effect it was necessary to consider how soon after the post-test the delayed test would be distributed. Kaufman (2003) suggests that a short interval, such as a couple of days, aids the participants' ability to recall particular items on the test and the strategies used to find solutions. On the other hand, longer intervals, i.e. six months carry the danger of producing results where the decrease or increase in the participants' performance cannot be easily explained or attributed to the treatment. Moreover, Schmitt (2010) suggests that a two-week delay is a useful one when measuring vocabulary acquisition and states that no consensus has been reached in terms of the exact best delay. Having considered these arguments it was felt that a two-week period was considered optimal and is believed to have minimalized the probability of practice effect in this instance.

As demonstrated, certain threats to internal validity can pose a problem in a quasi-experimental design. Nonetheless, Johnson and Christensen (2004) argue that while researchers need to be aware of those threats they do not have to automatically assume that they are going to affect their study. What is more, the general notion is that a well-designed and well-executed quasi-experimental design will produce reliable results (Cohen et al, 2011; Dornyei, 2007; Ary, 2004) and such a design was strived for in this study.

7.9 The Use of Tests

Cohen et al. (2001, p.493) posit that the construction and administration of tests is an essential part of the experimental and quasi-experimental model of research, and in this section test design, their distribution and analysis will be discussed.

Vocabulary tests were used to obtain quantitative data which allowed establishing whether the frameworks had an immediate/sustained effect, and whether one framework was more effective than the other in the context given. Following the design of a quasi-experiment, each group was first required to complete a pre-test. This assessed their existing knowledge of the target forms. Next, a post-test was administrated immediately after the instruction and the delayed test took place two weeks later.

Cohen et al (2011, p.480) present a list of factors researchers need to consider before devising a test. One of them is defining its purpose. In this study the pre-test was used to measure the students' pre-existing receptive and productive knowledge of the target forms (Schmitt, 2010). The post and delayed tests were distributed to measure the effect of the treatment on the dependent variable i.e. test scores. The next factor to consider was the type of test necessary for the purpose of the investigation. In this case, vocabulary tests which would assess productive and receptive knowledge of the chosen formulaic sequences were needed since vocabulary knowledge cannot be defined with the use of only one type of test (Schmitt, 2010). It was decided that the tests would be devised by the researcher and then consulted by fellow researchers in order to review their format and to ensure validity. As stated by Cohen et al (2011, p.483) "validity concerns the extent to which the test tests what it is supposed to test".

In terms of the format of the tests, it needed to be assured that the productive test elicited only the target chunks (Hughes, 2003) and that the receptive test measured the students' knowledge effectively. Following Hughes' (2003) suggestions, a gap filling exercise was designed to test productive mastery. The students were provided with twelve example sentences and each sentence needed to be completed with one of the target formulaic sequences (copies of productive tests can be found in Appendix 4.1). Since the difficulty of this task was recognised, the students were provided with an indication of the number of letters in each component word. Moreover, in the pre-test the first letter of each word was given. In the post and delayed tests the first letters of one or two words in the chunks were provided (depending on the length of the chunk). It is recognised that one could question whether providing the learners with such cues

could have affected the test results. This argument was considered when designing the tests. However, it was felt that this kind of help would aid those students who knew the answers but at the same time it would not allow other students to guess the missing words. Moreover, when consulting fellow researchers on the test design it was agreed that even competent and native speakers would find the test challenging had helped not been provided.

Another issue which could be raised with regards to the productive test is that a written test was used to assess production of features of spoken language. It is understood here that designing a spoken test would be more desirable, since it resembles natural language use. However, it was felt that using a less controlled assessment, such as a Discourse Completion Test (Kasper and Dahl, 1991), where students are required to provide language they would use in a particular situation, or role-plays, might not elicit the target forms since they can be easily avoided, i.e. students might decide not to stall. Thus, a written test was deemed most appropriate for the purpose of this study. At the same time, it is acknowledged that a written test does not clearly represent how the target forms would be recalled and the issues of pronunciation and pragmatic appropriacy cannot be addressed. On the other hand, the tests did allow me to measure the students' knowledge of the chunks prior and after the treatment which constituted the main focus of this study.

In order to test receptive mastery of the target forms, a multiple-choice test was designed (copy of receptive test can be found in Appendix 4.2), which constitutes one of the most common formats for this purpose (Hughes, 2003). During the test, the students needed to recognise and select the correct formulaic sequence which would complete a sentence. For each sentence there were three choices available and only one of them was error free. The chunks were presented in context, following Hughes' (2003, p.182) claim that "providing context makes the task more authentic and perhaps results in a more valid measure of the candidate's ability". When designing the receptive pre-test it was necessary to ensure that the context was clear and that it did not contain any words or expressions the students would not understand. The distractors were constructed based on the researcher's knowledge of common learner errors when using the selected chunks i.e. problems in the uses of prepositions: "to be honest to you", articles: "as a matter of the fact" or verbs: "what I'm trying to tell is", thus the focus was on the students' knowledge of the form.

The post and delayed tests, both productive and receptive, were identical to the pre-test in terms of content, since Cohen et al (2011, p.493) emphasise the importance

of maintaining the same level of difficulty between all tests. To prevent memorisation and the possible exchange of information concerning the correct answers, the order of the questions and lexical items was different in each test.

Having designed the tests, it was necessary to consider the scoring. Due to the complexity of the productive part, it was decided that the participants would be given a score of zero if they did not provide an answer or inserted words that were completely incorrect but matched the numbers of letters in each word. The participants would receive one point if they confused only one of the words within the chunk e.g. 'in a matter of fact'. The students would receive two points for every entirely correct answer even if the chunks contained spelling mistakes. This was decided due to the fact that, even though written tests were used for the practical reasons disused above, it was still recognised that the forms in question are a part of spoken, rather than written, discourse. Moreover, as pointed out by Hughes, (2003, p.33) measuring more than one ability, in this case recollection of the correct chunk *and* the spelling of each component makes the measurement of the ability in question less accurate.

Another aspect, which required careful consideration, was the timing of the tests. With regards to the pre-tests, the students were first set the productive test to avoid familiarisation with the target forms. The post-tests were completed directly after the ninety-minute treatment to assess its immediate impact. The delayed tests, on the other hand, took place two weeks after the instruction. Schmitt (2010, p.157) states that a two-day delay is the minimum period which provides useful information on the effectiveness of treatment in the long-term. However, he also states that the ideal time frame would be three weeks since it may be indicative of learning which is stable and durable. Norris and Ortega (2000, 2001) report that, in the studies examined, the follow-up measures occurred between one to four weeks after the treatment. Considering these recommendations and the activities scheduled for the IFP learners by their tutors, it was decided that a two-week delay would yield informative results for this investigation.

After devising the test items and deciding on the scoring, it was necessary to pilot the tests. Dornyei (2007) emphasises the importance of piloting research instruments and procedures in order to ensure reliability and validity. It was necessary to pilot the tests on a group of students who shared as many characteristics as possible with the chosen sample. Since there were only thirty students enrolled on the IFP and all of them were going to participate in the study, an equivalent group was needed. Since UCLan run English Language Elective programmes, permission was sought from the Course Leader and the class tutor to distribute the tests among the students attending the

English Elective class. Twenty students at B2 level were approached after one of their classes and asked to complete the tests and questionnaires. The feedback after piloting the study was invaluable. Firstly, after the test the class was asked to rate the difficulty of the productive and receptive tests on a scale from 1 to 10, 10 being most difficult. The students indicated numbers 7, 8 and 9 for the productive test and 5 and 6 for the receptive. To obtain more information, three students were approached after the class and they further pointed to the challenging nature of the test but also expressed positive views in terms of the selected chunks. These comments were of great help at this stage of the study, indicating that the target language was appropriate for B2 learners, something which would be difficult to address had I not piloted the tests. In terms of feedback on the questionnaires, the main concern was with the comprehensibility of the questions and the pilot group did not point to any issues in this respect.

The test results were analysed using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) software which allows an objective examination of gain scores through establishing their statistical significance. In order to discover whether the instruction had an immediate and/or sustained impact on students' performance a Paired-Samples t-test was conducted. Next, an Independent Samples t-test was used to compare the effectiveness of the frameworks against each other. As pointed out by Dornyei (2007), it is essential to analyse gain scores for statistical significance since a subjective analysis of raw scores cannot tell us whether the obtained results are related to the treatment or whether they have occurred by chance. Similarly, it must not be assumed that higher gain scores in one group automatically mean one treatment type was more effective than the other and statistical significance needs to be established. A validity threat which needed to be considered at this point was the ceiling effect i.e. students in one group having less 'room for improvement' than the other, and thus suggesting that one framework was less effective than the other. The possibility of the ceiling effect was examined when reviewing the statistical significance of the results and the raw scores and gain scores were inspected.

To sum up, tests were used in this study to measure the immediate and long-term impact of the treatment and to compare the effectiveness of the teaching frameworks. It is believed that due to the careful process of test design and implementation, the format employed does not pose a validity threat. Moreover, since the results were analysed for statistical significance it is argued that a biased interpretation of the results was prevented to a large extent.

7.10 The Use of Questionnaires

A questionnaire was used in order to gather qualitative data i.e. students' attitudes and opinions on the usefulness of the target forms and the teaching frameworks, and thus supplement the quantitative data obtained through vocabulary tests. It was decided to employ a questionnaire for two reasons. First, questionnaires tend to yield reliable results due to their anonymity (Cohen et al, 2011) and second, using a questionnaire allowed gathering the views of all participants in the study. A copy of the questionnaire can be found in Appendix 5.

Since the questionnaires were to be distributed after the treatment stage and the post-test, they needed to be as short as possible while being as informative as possible. It was decided to present the students with six questions. When designing the questions it was ensured that the language used was easily understandable since "it is essential that, regardless of the type of question asked, the language and the concept behind the language should be within the grasp of the respondents" (Cohen et al, 2011, p.345). Each question was divided into two parts: a five-option Likert Scale and a 'Please justify your answer' section.

Likert Scales allow representing qualitative data in a quantitative manner making its analysis more manageable. However, when using Likert Scales one needs to be aware of their limitations. First, the recipients must be able to relate to the options provided and the interval between each option must be equal (Cohen et al, 2011). To ensure that, the questionnaire was proofread by two colleagues and later piloted. Second, Cohen et al. (2011) point out that participants tend to be drawn to answers placed on the right of the scale which might skew the results. To prevent that, the possible responses were placed differently in each question.

The open-ended section was used in attempt to gather data supporting the Likert Scale choices. Although Dornyei (2007) advises against this method, since students might not engage with the topic, it was felt that at least some students might provide relevant comments which was considered a valid reason for the inclusion of the open-ended question.

When deciding to employ questionnaires as a research tool the issue of honesty needed to be considered since students might not engage with the questions and answer them recklessly. However, while there is no guarantee that the students are telling the truth, there is no proof to claim otherwise (Cohen et al., 2011), especially since the students were informed of the importance of their honesty.

In terms of analysis, first it was made sure that all of the questionnaires had been completed correctly, as there was a danger of the students choosing more than one answer to a question which would make such an answer invalid. Due to a low number of students this procedure was relatively straightforward. Next, the responses obtained through the Likert Scale were counted and presented in charts to represent the numerical distribution of the students' views. The answers from the open-ended sections were compiled with accordance to each question and then analysed manually for their relevance to the research questions. The complete questionnaire results can be found in Appendix 6.

7.11 The Use of Focus Groups

Focus groups are a research tool similar to one-to-one interviews, in that participants' opinions on certain matters are sought. However, in focus groups it is hoped that by involving a larger number of participants it will be possible to make use of "the group interaction to produce data and insights that would be less accessible without the interaction found in a group" (Morgan, 1997, p.2). When conducting a focus group the researcher acts as a moderator and ensures that the discussion is relevant to the research aim and that every participant has a chance to express their opinion (Dornyei, 2007). It was decided to employ focus groups in order to triangulate the data gathered through the vocabulary tests and the questionnaires with the emphasis on students' views on the teaching frameworks and the target language.

When devising questions for the focus group (Appendix 7), a semi-structured format was chosen since, while it provides students with talking points it also leaves enough room for other issues to emerge as the participants respond to each other. The questions were devised prior to the focus groups ensuring that each group was asked exactly the same questions. In order to avoid bias, it was made sure that leading questions were not used and that any 'yes/no' answers would need to be justified. Once formulated, the prompts were revised by a fellow researcher further ensuring that they would be as neutral as possible. In order to minimise the danger of students providing answers which they believe the researcher wishes to hear, they were reminded at the beginning of the focus group that there were no right or wrong answers and that their honesty was invaluable.

Two focus groups were used each comprising of six participants, who had been instructed either with PPP or OHE. Even though Morgan (1997, p.25) advocates the use of three or four focus groups, he also posits that "in general the goal is to do only as

many groups as required to provide an adequate answer to the research questions". In the case of this study, where the experimental groups were not numerous and the study focus was relatively narrow, it was decided that two focus groups would provide enough data to answer the third research question. In terms of the numbers of participants, each focus group consisted of six students since Morgan (1997) recommends groups between six to ten. The participants were selected based on their willingness to cooperate during the treatment stage, following the assumption that these learners would also be more willing to contribute to the discussion. The OHE focus group consisted of four female and two male students (due to the majority of students being female), whereas in the PPP group there were three male and three female students.

In order to analyse the focus group data, students' contributions were transcribed using a simplified version of the CANCODE (Cambridge and Nottingham Corpus of Discourse in English) conventions (Carter and McCarthy, 1997) (guidelines can be found in Appendix 12 and the complete focus groups' transcription can be located in Appendix 13). Since Dornyei (2007) points out that focus groups are difficult to transcribe due to the number of people involved, the focus groups were audio and video recorded. The transcripts were then entered into NVIVO software which allowed me to analyse the data in an organised manner[3]. Even though using NVIVO does not take away the need to subjectively examine the data, it allows the researcher to do so through creating categories to which students' responses can be assigned. Conducting the analysis using the software, rather than manually, permitted me to revise the categories numerous times before the final decisions were made.

7.12 Ethics and Confidentiality

Having reviewed the design of the study it is now crucial to discuss the issues of ethics and confidentiality. Throughout the entire research process it was ensured that the guidelines regarding protecting the participants' personal information and their work were followed. In accordance to the British Association for Applied Linguistics' (2004) indications, the participants were informed and reminded at every stage of the investigation that they had the right to withdraw from the study, that the investigation was confidential and that the data would not be used for any other purpose. The students

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[3] Focus group transcripts were first entered into NVIVO. Next, categories related to RQ3 were created and participants' responses were analysed and categorised accordingly. The decisions were then revised several times and responses re-grouped as appropriate.

were presented with a Research Information Sheet (Appendix 8) a consent form (Appendix 9) which outlined the stages involved and stressed the lack of consequences if they wished to decline to take part or withdraw at a later date. Moreover, the study was approved by UCLan's BAHSS (Business, Arts, Humanities and Social Science) Ethics Committee in December 2011.

8.0 CHAPTER THREE: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

This section will present and analyse the data which was obtained in this study. The analysis and discussion of results will answer the research questions posed at the beginning of the investigation. It is considered that organising the results in accordance to the research questions, rather than the chronological order they were gained in, will prove most efficient. The first two research questions (RQ1 and RQ2) will be answered with the use of quantitative data obtained through vocabulary tests. The last research question (RQ3) will be answered using the data gathered through the questionnaire and focus groups.

In order to answer RQ1 and RQ2 a Paired Samples t-tests and an Independent Samples t-test were conducted using SPSS software. The Paired Samples t-tests allowed a review of raw scores as well as a statistical comparison of the gain scores within each group, making it possible to decide whether, and to what extent, each treatment was effective. The Independent Samples t-test statistically compared the gain scores obtained in each test in each group enabling me to compare the effectiveness of the frameworks against each other. In this section only the gain scores and p (statistical significance) values will be presented due to space restrictions. The complete statistical information can be found in Appendix 14.

When answering RQ3 the questionnaire and focus group data has been analysed for relevance to the question posed. Thus, the discussion of RQ3 will be illustrated with samples obtained through these research tools.

8.1 Did the treatment affect students' productive knowledge of chosen chunks necessary for stalling and circumlocution and was either of the treatments (PPP or OHE) more effective than the other in terms of aiding students' ability to produce the target forms?

The first set of data illustrates the impact the instruction had on students' productive knowledge in each group. Table 8 presents the mean scores obtained in each test in the PPP group.

Table 8 Mean scores obtained on productive test in PPP group

Type of test	Mean score
Pre-test	1.7000
Post-test	7.8500
Delayed test	4.5000

From Table 8 it is noticeable that there is a substantial difference between the pre-test mean score and the scores obtained in the post-test and the delayed test. However, since reviewing raw scores does not allow us to determine whether the achieved gains are significant and consistent enough to be assigned to the treatment, it was essential to review the statistical data obtained in the Paired Samples t-test. The results are presented in Table 9.

Table 9 Gain scores and their statistical significance in PPP group (productive test)

Gain scores	Mean score	Sig. (2-tailed) (p) value
Pre-test-Post-test	6.1500	.000
Pre-test – Delayed test	2.8000	.011
Post-test-Delayed test	-3.3500	.005

The values in the Sig. (2-tailed) column represent the statistical significance of the results and refer to the degree of probability (p) that the mean gains can be assigned to the treatment and are *not* a result of other factors. It is agreed that when p≤ 0.05 we can assume that the results are statistically significant since in only 0.05% of all cases such a result could be considered to have occurred by chance. As seen from Table 9, there is a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores and, therefore, it is safe to assume that the treatment had an immediate effect on the students' performance. No statistical significance was found with regards to the pre-test – delayed test scores suggesting that the students did not retain enough of the target chunks to consider the treatment effective in the long term. In fact, p=.005 for the difference between the post-test and the delayed test scores indicates that attrition occurred during the two-week period. In summary, it can be assumed that the treatment was effective in the short term but did not have effect on the PPP students' productive knowledge in the long term.

The results obtained in the OHE group were analysed using the exact same procedure. First a comparison of the raw scores was conducted and Table 10 represents the results.

Table 10 Mean scores obtained on productive test in OHE group

Type of test	Mean score
Pre-test	4.8000
Post-test	9.4500
Delayed test	6.1500

It can be seen from Table 10 that the OHE students scored relatively highly on the pre-test, indicating knowledge of some of the chunks prior to the study. While looking at the raw scores could suggest that the treatment had less impact in the OHE group, it is essential to consider the previously discussed ceiling effect i.e. OHE students had less 'room' for improvement than PPP students since their prior knowledge of the chunks was more extensive.

Having reviewed the mean scores for each test within the OHE group, it was necessary to examine the statistical significance of the results in order to decide whether the treatment was effective. Table 11 presents the data from the Paired Samples t-test for the OHE group.

Table 11 Gain scores and their statistical significance in OHE group (productive test)

Gain scores	Mean gain	Sig. (2-tailed) (p) value
Pre-test-Post-test	4.6500	.000
Pre-test – Delayed test	1.3500	.137
Post-test-Delayed test	-3.3000	.003

Table 11 demonstrates that the pre-test – post-test results are highly significant indicating that the treatment had an immediate effect on the students' performance. However, similarly to the PPP group, no statistical significance was found with regards to the gain between the pre-test and the delayed test, suggesting that the instruction cannot be considered effective in the long term. This conclusion is further confirmed by the post-test – delayed test results being statistically significant, indicating that M=-3.3000 should not be assigned to chance, but suggests attrition.

To sum up, the analysis of the test scores within each group has demonstrated that the treatment had an effect on the students' performance on the post-test. Such an

improvement can be attributed to both the effectiveness of the explicit instruction and the students' short-term memory. The pre-test - delayed test results were not statistically significant in either of the groups suggesting attrition. This has been further confirmed when analysing the post-test-delayed test results where the differences between scores are statistically significant indicating that the target forms were not retained.

Despite the fact that neither of the frameworks aided the acquisition of the chosen chunks in the long term it was necessary to compare the effectiveness of the frameworks in this context. It is important to point out that at the beginning of the study a hypothesis was posed that the PPP group would improve significantly more in terms of their productive knowledge as it is argued that productive learning facilitates productive knowledge (Griffin & Harley 1996; Waring 1997a). This hypothesis was rejected, as far as this group was concerned, since the Independent Samples t-test demonstrated no difference between the groups as shown in Table 12.

Table 12 Statistical comparison of gain scores between groups (productive test)

Gain type	Gain score PPP	Gain score OHE	Sig 2 tailed (p) value
Gain post-test pre-test	6.1500	4.6500	.226
Gain delayed –post test	-3.3500	-3.3000	.243
Gain delayed test-pre test	2.8000	1.3500	1.000

The results obtained in this part of the study can be attributed to various factors. First, Schmitt (2000) points to attrition as an inevitable element in vocabulary learning and stresses the need for revisiting newly-learnt lexis. Moreover, Schmitt (2000, p.130) suggests that productive vocabulary knowledge "seems to be more prone to attrition than other linguistic aspects", perhaps due to the lack of patterns and rules which can be found in the grammatical or phonological system. Furthermore, according to Waring (1997a, 1997b), the development of productive knowledge is a slower and a more complex process than that of receptive knowledge due to processing constraints and memory limitations. Thus, considering the complexity involved in developing productive vocabulary knowledge and the lack of recycling of the chosen chunks, it could be suggested that the results could have been affected by these factors to some extent.

8.2 Productive Retention of Chunks

Having established the statistical significance of the gains scores and compared the frameworks' effectiveness, it was considered interesting to discover which chunks were most successfully retained for production in each group. Table 13 and 14 demonstrate the three chunks which were most successfully used in the PPP and the OHE groups (the complete results can be found in Appendix 10).

Table 13 Most retained chunks for group PPP (productive knowledge)

Chunk	Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed test
Let me see	0	9	9
It's a kind of	1	10	9
What I mean is	1	7	7

Table 14 Most retained chunks for group OHE (productive knowledge)

Chunk	Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed test
Let me see	0	9	4
It's a kind of	5	9	7
I'm not entirely sure	0	8	2

It can be observed that in both groups the two most retained chunks are 'let me see' and 'it's a kind of'. The improvement is particularly prominent in the PPP group where the number of students who were able to successfully retrieve these two chunks increased by nine and eight between the pre-test and the delayed test. The improvement in the OHE group was less dramatic which could lead to the following conclusions. Firstly, it has been highlighted that OHE students were more familiar with the target forms than the PPP participants, which, as a consequence, prevented them from improving to the same extent. However, it could also be argued that the increase in the PPP students' productive knowledge of the chunks could be attributed to the framework used, since it has been suggested that productive learning is likely to yield better results in productive knowledge (Griffin & Harley 1996; Waring 1997).

8.3 Did the treatment affect students' receptive knowledge of chosen chunks necessary for stalling and circumlocution and was either of the treatments (PPP or OHE) more effective than the other in terms of aiding students' ability to recognise and understand the target forms?

In order to answer RQ2 the same procedure of analysing the results was used for each of the groups. First, the raw scores were reviewed. Next a Paired Samples t-test was conducted to establish statistical significance. Finally, an Independent Samples t-test was used to compare the effectiveness of the frameworks. Table 15 demonstrates the mean scores obtained on the receptive test in PPP group:

Table 15 Mean scores obtained on receptive test in PPP group

Type of test	Mean score
Pre-test	7.4000
Post-test	10.3000
Delayed test	10.2000

It is noticeable that PPP students were receptively familiar with more than half of the target chunks prior to the treatment. However, their knowledge increased considerably after the instruction. Even though the raw scores suggest that the instruction had both an immediate and sustained effect, it was necessary to discover whether the gain scores were statistically significant. Table 16 demonstrates these results:

Table 16 Gain scores and their statistical significance in PPP group (receptive test)

Gain scores	Mean gain	Sig. (2-tailed) (p) value
Pre-test-Post-test	2.9000	.000
Pre-test – Delayed test	2.8000	.001
Post-test-Delayed test	-.10000	.832

As seen from Table 16 the p value indicates that the treatment had a significant effect on the gain scores both immediately after the instruction and after the two week period.

The same procedure was employed for the OHE group's receptive test results. Firstly, the mean scores obtained in each test were reviewed. Table 17 demonstrates the mean scores for each of the test obtained in OHE group.

Table 17 Mean scores obtained on receptive test in OHE group

Type of test	Mean score
Pre-test	8.900
Post-test	11.500
Delayed test	11.200

As was the case with the productive part of the test (Table 3) the OHE students did better on the pre-test (M=8.9000) than the participants in the parallel treatment group (M=7.4000). The differences in the pre-tests scores suggest that even though all of the participants were described as B2 learners and were completing the same course, the OHE students were of a higher level in the spectrum of B2 language proficiency. However, it is argued that disparities within a broad description of a linguistic level are a common occurrence in the language classroom and are relevant to the EAP context within UCLan. Moreover, the difference in levels has been addressed by analysing gain scores, rather than raw scores in each group. Table 18 provides information on the p values obtained in the Paired-Samples t-test.

Table 18 Gain scores and their statistical significance in OHE group (receptive test)

Gain scores	Mean gain	Sig. (2-tailed) (p) value
Pre-test-Post-test	2.6000	.000
Pre-test – Delayed test	2.3000	.001
Post-test-Delayed test	-.30000	.468

Table 18 reveals that the treatment had both an immediate and sustained effect on the students' receptive knowledge of the chunks, similarly to PPP group. Therefore, even though the students in both groups were receptively familiar with some of the chunks prior to the treatment, the results indicate that both types of instruction aided the acquisition of more chunks in the long term.

Since both frameworks proved effective it was interesting to discover whether there was a difference between them and Table 19 provides the Independent Samples t-test results.

Table 19 Statistical comparison of gain scores between groups (receptive test)

Gain type	Gain score PPP	Gain score OHE	Sig 2 tailed (p) value
Gain post-test pre-test	2.9000	2.6000	.452
Gain delayed –post test	-.1000	-.3000	.745
Gain delayed test-pre test	2.8000	2.3000	1.000

As shown in Table 19, the p values indicate that both frameworks proved equally effective in aiding receptive retention of the target forms, in this case disproving the hypothesis that OHE students would be more successful due to the type of instruction they received (Griffin and Harley 1996; Waring 1997).

The outcomes of this part of the study can be explained by various factors. One explanation could be that the test itself contributed to the high scores on the delayed test in both groups, since the multiple-choice format allowed the students to potentially guess the right answers, a possibility they did not have when completing the productive test. Another explanation, and one that appears more plausible, could be that, as suggested by research (Jenkins, Stein, and Wysocki, 1984; Nagy, Anderson, and Herman, 1987; Nagy and Herman, 1987), the development of vocabulary knowledge progresses from receptive to productive (Nation, 1990; Meara, 1996; Laufer, 1998), regardless of the type of instruction used. These assertions coincide with the findings obtained by Webb (2005) who investigated the effects of receptive and productive learning on productive and receptive knowledge of single words. In Webb's study one group of students completed a reading activity where the target words were highlighted in three sentences, and in the other group, learners were required to write sentences which would contain the target words. Webb found that the development of receptive knowledge was comparable between the groups. It appears that, in this context, comparably to Webb's results, both receptive and productive tasks allowed the participants to significantly improve in terms of their receptive knowledge. This suggests that receptive awareness benefits from explicit instruction before productive knowledge is developed. It is also argued that productive mastery may need more time in terms of classroom input, since there seems to be a greater need for recycling of the target forms.

8.4 Receptive Retention of Chunks

As previously discussed, the test results were also analysed in terms of the retention of each chunk. Tables 20 and 21 show the three most retained chunks in each group and the complete results can be found in Appendix 11.

Table 20 Most retained chunks for PPP group (receptive knowledge)

Chunk	Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed test
I'm not entirely sure	3	6	9
As a matter of fact	5	10	8
What I'm trying to say is	7	9	10

Table 21 Most retained chunks for OHE group (receptive knowledge)

Chunk	Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed test
As a matter of fact	6	10	10
I'm not entirely sure	4	10	8
It's a kind of	7	9	10

As seen from the tables 20 and 21, the two most retained chunks in both groups are 'as a matter of fact' and 'I'm not entirely sure'. However, the improvement between the pre- and delayed test is more comparable between the groups than it was in the case of the chunks retained for productive use.

It is interesting to notice that PPP and OHE students coincide in the retention of two out of three chunks, just as it happened with chunks retained for production. However, the chunks presented in Tables 20 and 21 are on average longer than the ones retained for production. The students seem to be able to actively produce shorter, three and four-word chunks and at the same time they are able to recognise the appropriate form correctly even with chunks that are longer. It would appear that learners' processing and memory capacities allow them to recognise longer chunks when these are encountered. However, the students are unable to retrieve them from their memory for production. If we assume that receptive and productive knowledge are two elements of the same continuum (Faerch et al. 1984; Palmber, 1987; Treville, 1988) rather than two opposites (Meara, 1997), it could be suggested that students can recognise a word string before they can use it themselves, as has been the case here and in Bardovi-Harlig's (2009) study, discussed earlier .

8.5 Summary of results for RQ1 and RQ2

Having reviewed the productive and receptive tests results the following can be concluded. Both types of treatment had an immediate effect on the students' productive and receptive knowledge, which suggests that explicit teaching has an immediate impact, although it is recognised that lexis needs to be recycled in order for productive knowledge to be sustained. Students in both groups retained receptive knowledge of the chunks in the long-term, which indicates that both types of instruction were effective in this regard. The question as to whether one framework was more effective than the other in the context studied was answered negatively, since no statistically significant difference between the treatment types with regards to their effect on receptive or productive knowledge was found. In terms of retention of chunks, it has been established that in both groups learners coincided in successful acquisition of some of the formulas. Moreover, it has been suggested that the length of chunk affects the students' ability to produce it.

8.6 What are the IFP students' views on the language taught and the framework used?

This section answers the third research question by presenting and discussing samples from PPP and OHE focus groups and questionnaires (students' errors have not been corrected). The data presented has been chosen based on its relevance to RQ3 and represents comments made by all participants, since it is not possible to include the complete discussion. In order to make the discussion more manageable, the RQ3 has been divided into two parts: 'students' views on target chunks' and 'students' views on framework used'.

8.7 Students' Views on Target Chunks

This notion was analysed from two perspectives. Firstly, taking into account the formulaic nature of the target forms, and secondly, the pragmatic purpose they fulfil. Each of these issues will be examined here using data samples from the questionnaires and focus groups conducted in each group.

8.8 Students' Views on Learning Chunks as Opposed to Single Words

First, in order to discover students' attitudes towards learning chunks, the following question was posed in the questionnaire: 'Do you like learning whole

expressions/chunks of language rather than single words?'. Figure 1 represents students'
responses:
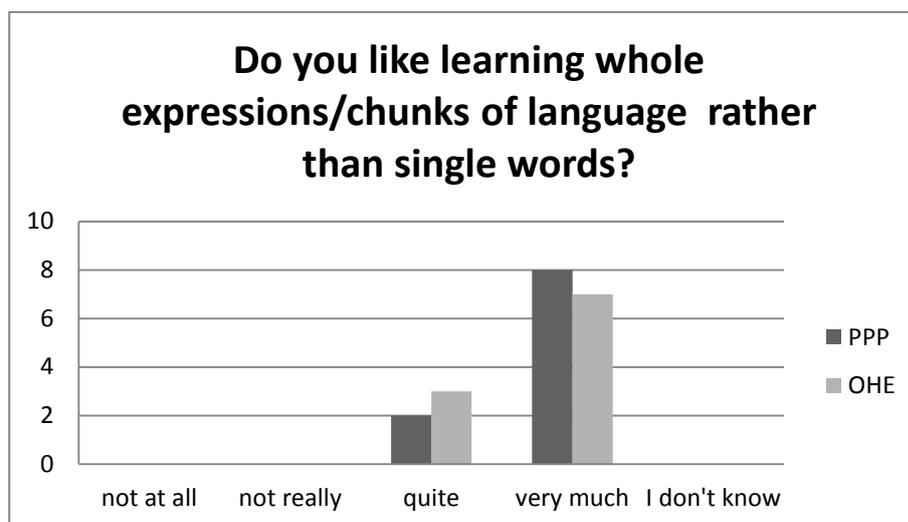
Figure 1 Students' attitudes towards learning chunks

The results demonstrate that, in both groups, the students felt positive towards learning
formulae, with a prevalent majority of PPP students expressing a positive view on the
notion, and with seven out of ten learners in the OHE group sharing the same view. The
typical responses accompanying students' choices on the Likert Scale included the
following comments:

- 'it's easier to remember phrases because you can use them in situations'
- 'it's easier because I can use phrases in conversation'
- 'it's easier to remember'

Moreover, during the focus group, OHE students made the following remarks:

<S00> So do you think that kind of language, phrases rather than single words, are they difficult
to learn or easy?
<S02>I think it's easier to remember a phrase +
<S00> Rather than one word, you mean?
<S02> + because we can know how to use this one.
<S03>And practice, it's not a word it's like a full phrase we don't have to think about what other
words we combine it with.

Therefore, it appears that the participants saw the learning of chunks as a somewhat
easier process than learning single words and this notion needs discussing further.

As previously stated, research into effective ways of teaching chunks is limited and only one study which compares the acquisition of single words versus chunks has been encountered. Alali and Schmitt (2012) investigated the effectiveness of instruction on learning single words and idioms. The results indicated that words and idioms were acquired to a very similar extent; however, the learning of chunks was somewhat lower than that of single words. While the results of Alali and Schmitt's study contradict the participants' claims regarding the ease of learning chunks, it has not been possible to encounter further published studies in this area. However, while it is not possible to confirm whether chunks *are* in fact easier to learn, it is considered justified to assume that, due to their holistic nature, chunks would be memorised at least as easily as single words. Moreover, Peters (1983) claims that learners do not tend to be preoccupied with the unit of language, as long as it provides a particular meaning. Furthermore, as suggested by Nattinger and DeCarrico (1996), due to the pragmatic functions many chunks have in discourse, students can associate them with certain communicative situations (greeting, apologising, requesting, etc.) and retrieve them in those instances. It appears that the students are aware of the various functions formulaic sequences have: 'we know how to use them in situations', and point to them as a factor which facilities their acquisition. Studies where instruction was provided on formulaic sequences required for speech acts such as compliments (Billmyer, 1990), refusals and complaints (Morow, 1996) and requests (Halenko and Jones, 2011) indicated an improvement in the students' use of the target forms. In addition to this, it could be suggested that many chunks can be immediately put to use (providing the student can recognise the appropriate context), whereas in the case of single words, students need to cope with syntactic rules as well as word grammar, as pointed out by one of the students: 'it's not a word it's like a full phrase, we don't have to think about what other words we combine it with', which could affect the acquisition process.

Another issue which emerged during the discussion with regards to learning chunks as opposed to single words was that of chunks as linguistic 'zones of safety' (Boers, 2006, p.247) which provide students with the basis for correct and pragmatically appropriate utterances:

<S 02> Yeah I think one of the best thing we learn this in this lesson = we learn not just one vocabulary. Phrases, many all together. It is good, better than when you learn just one vocabulary, and you = sometimes you know the vocabulary but you don't have =you don't know how native speakers connect the words together.

The student points to the fact that while they might 'know' a vocabulary item, they might still not be able to use it since they are not aware of its collocational and colligational constraints. The fact that the student is not sure how to use a certain word, could lead to them avoiding it, thus preventing its acquisition. The student suggests that it was instruction on phrases, rather than single words, which made the class beneficial, highlighting the participants' positive attitudes towards learning formulae. However, at the same time, the students saw a connection between the length of chunks chosen for instruction and their acquisition:

(PPP) <00> Did you manage to use the phrases in your conversations after our class?
<S01> Not= if we talk in English we not thinking about phrase but if we remember for example 'let me see' it's very short phrase it's very useful, so it's more easy to use but other one is more longer so I forgot.

(OHE) <00> So did you manage to use the phrases in your conversations after our class?
<S03> For me, I already used those phrases. I just use them. I think I don't even realise I use them.
<00>Do you all use those kinds of phrases?
<S01> <S02>Yeah.
<S04> Yeah, some.
<S01>Yeah easy ones like 'let me see' or 'what I mean'.

The students' views presented above seem to confirm the results shown in Tables 13 and 14 (see p.61) which demonstrate that the most successfully retained chunks in both groups were 'let me see' and 'it's a kind of', which consist of three and four component parts. These results are particularly interesting in the light of Lewis' (2000) suggestion that teachers should present students with chunks ranging from two to seven words, since "the larger the chunks are which learners originally acquire, the easier the task of re-producing natural language later" (Lewis, 2000, p.133). However, while it is argued that a repertoire of chunks, of various lengths, is helpful for language learners, it is believed that the issue of memory limitations needs to be considered, something that Lewis does not seem to take into account. It has been recognised that repetition aids memorisation (Hintzman, 1976) and it is argued that this notion should not be ignored in ELT. In the case of teaching multi-word items, it is suggested that instruction on chunks linked to specific speech acts such as apologising, complaining, requesting etc. in contexts of use appropriate to students, would perhaps be most effective if conducted

in a number of classes. The importance of repetition in vocabulary learning has been stressed by Nation (1990, p.44) who claims that a learner needs to encounter a lexical item between five to sixteen times in order to memorise it.

While I have not been able to encounter a study investigating the relationship between chunks' length and their acquisition, the issue regarding the selection of chunks for instruction, could also be approached by looking at the frequency of chunks of different lengths. Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, and Finegan (1999, p.990) have found that three-word chunks, which they refer to as 'lexical bundles' are at least ten times more common than longer sequences in the Longman Spoken and Written English Corpus. Similarly, in CANCODE, three word chunks were found to be second most frequent preceded by two-word chunks (O'Keffee et al., 2007, p.65). Biber et al. (1999, p.990) define lexical bundles as "recurrent expressions, regardless of their idiomacity and regardless of their structural status" which consist of three or more words and design a taxonomy of lexical bundles focusing on their roles in conversation and academic prose presenting the following categories: referential bundles, text organizers, stance bundles, and interactional bundles. Thus, considering the frequency with which three and four-word chunks occur, their roles in spoken and written discourse and the students' views on the optimal length of formulaic sequences for acquisition, it would appear that the length of formulaic sequences chosen for instruction should be carefully considered.

So far, students' views on learning chunks as opposed to single words have been discussed with regards to their potential benefits to L2 learners and the issue of their memorisation. In the following section, the chosen chunks will be discussed considering their functions in discourse, and the students' opinions on learning features of interpersonal language in the context of IFP will be presented.

8.9 Students' Views on Chunks and their Pragmatic Functions

First of all, the students were asked how useful they thought the language presented was. Figure 2 presents the responses provided:
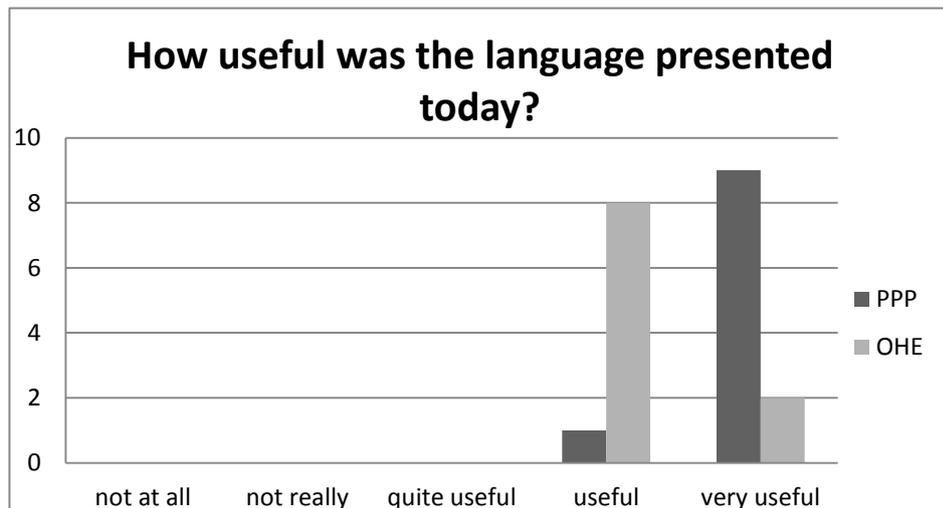
Figure 2 Students' views on the usefulness of the target forms

The results in Figure 2 indicate that the majority of PPP students considered the chosen chunks 'very useful', while almost the same number of students in the OHE group saw them as 'useful'. This difference in the intensity of the attitude could perhaps be explained by the OHE students' previous knowledge of some of the chunks, and some of the comments seem to support this hypothesis:

- 'I learnt some phrases that I didn't know e.g. 'as a matter of fact''
- 'I knew some phrases which I didn't know before'
- 'I have a few things I have never used before so I'm glad to learn that'

Similar comments were made during the focus group:

(OHE) <S04> Some of the few, some of this phrase I already knew so I have used in general speech so +
<S00>So you use them on a daily basis?
<S04>Yes.
<S00>What about you guys? Do you use them?
<S02>Yeah, some.

PPP students, on the other hand, accompanied their Likert Scale choices with comments such as: 'it's different useful language' and 'it's useful when we learn something different' pointing to the difference between the language chosen for this study and the 'standard' EAP language.

Having established the positive views on the target language it is important to discuss why IFP students considered such language beneficial. The comments below illustrate the opinions expressed:

(PPP) <S00> I see and...so you think that it's hard to use it outside of class. But do you think that kind of language is still useful?

<S02> I think it is very useful and really some= I don't think all of is difficult and we learn something like 'to be honest with you' I think it is useful and for me I start to use it in my conversation. It really help you, like what I mean to say is those phrases help you. If you start to understand these phrases and if you start to apply in your conversation it really help you communicate.

(OHE) <00>Uh-huh so do you think those phrases are useful?

<All> Yes

<00>Why are they useful?

<S03> Because maybe we can use them in normal speech not only academic.

<S1>Yes.

<S03>It's not only academic language we can use this everyday life basically.

(OHE) <S00>So do you think that kind of language is useful for learners?

<S01> <S02> Yes.

<S04>I think so.

<S00>Can you give me any reasons why?

<S01>Because there's a lot of kind of phrase in the normal conversation so yeah I think it's more important to study this phrase than academic words+

<S00> Mhm maybe it's equal.

<S01> + yeah for conversation

The students point to several advantages of learning chunks. First of all, they are aware of the role these multi-word items have in overcoming communication difficulties: "if you start to understand these phrases and if you start to apply in your conversation it really help you communicate' as stated by one of the PPP students. It is noteworthy that the student addresses the role of both receptive and productive mastery of these chunks in facilitating communication in the L2 culture. Second, the students claim that such chunks are useful because they can 'use them in normal speech not only academic' and because 'there's a lot of kind of phrase in normal conversation' as seen from the comments above. Thus, the learners recognise the wealth of pragmatic routines in native

speakers' discourse and are aware of the differences between academic and interpersonal language. One student explicitly stated:

OHE <S03> I can say myself that sometimes people say that I sound strange because my vocabulary increased but only in academic way and sometimes just normal people don't understand me and I have to explain because I come up with strange words.

This comment highlights the communicative difficulty IFP students encounter in the context of socio-pragmatic language use in the L2 culture, an issue which does not seem to be explicitly addressed on the IFP course. One explanation could be time constraints, as the tutors need to ensure that students are equipped with all the knowledge and skills necessary for completing an undergraduate course in the UK. It is also possible that it is assumed that by residing in the country where the L2 is spoken the students will 'pick up' such language from the input outside of class time. However, it does not seem to be the case, as the students stated that they do not tend to notice such language since they are mostly preoccupied with understanding the message. Thus, the need for explicit instruction on such language emerges and the following comments illustrate the students' views on the matter:

OHE <00> So do you thinking learning language like that in classroom is useful or would you just hear it on the street and you would learn them because you live in the UK?
<S03> I think it's important as well in the classroom to = erm= see, it's different because even if we hear something on the street or from the people we just hear and we are not sure how to write, how it should be put for example in the, all content when we can use this because some people as well don't always us this in appropriate way, this kind of, so it's important to do a kind of refreshment at class.

<S03> Oh I think it's useful to learn in class because if we don't know the, I don't know what they say I hear it in class one time and outside people talk this phrase oh I remember.

These comments suggest that the participants wished to receive explicit instruction on interpersonal language for two main, interrelated reasons. First, focusing on such language in class allows students to familiarise themselves with the forms and uses of selected chunks. Second, after receiving instruction students start noticing the target forms in the input and hopefully acquire them. Unfortunately, the research into the place of spoken discourse features in EAP courses is limited. Clennell (1999) posits that in

order to address EAP students' communicative needs in the L2 culture it is necessary to include instruction on socio-pragmatic features of spoken discourse in EAP courses, but that it is lacking. Halenko and Jones (2011) observed that Chinese students at UCLan were often unable to produce pragmatically appropriate language when interacting with academic staff. They provided explicit instruction on spoken requests, which was considered valuable by the participants, and had a significant effect on their ability to produce the target forms. However, it was also recognised that further input and recycling of the language was needed in order to maintain the students' competence in this area. Moreover, taking into account the relation between acquisition of formulae and immersion in the L2 culture (Schmitt and Carter, 2003), it appears that instruction on such language in the EAP context is desirable, and the students' wish to receive it justifiable.

8.10 Summary of Results on Students' Views on Target Chunks

A number of issues have been discussed with regards to the chunks chosen for this study, both in terms of their form and use. The data demonstrates that the students were more approving of learning chunks than single words, and emphasised the usefulness of such expressions in successful communication in the target culture. Moreover, the discussion has highlighted the need for explicit instruction on interpersonal language in the context of IFP at UCLan.

8.11 Students' views on teaching frameworks

It is now essential to focus on the students' opinions towards the type of instruction they received and the discussion here will again be illustrated with sample data from questionnaire and focus group data.

First, in order to elicit students' views on the effectiveness of the activities they took part in, they were asked the following question: 'Do you think the activities we did today helped you learn the language presented?'. Figure 3 demonstrates the results:
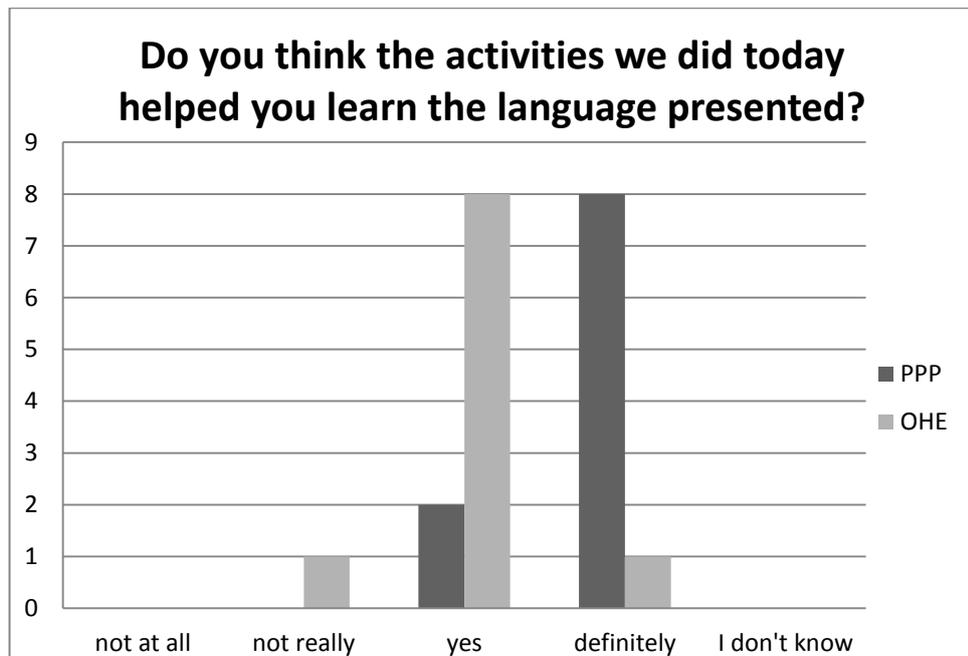
Figure 3 Students' views on the helpfulness of activities in learning the target forms

It appears that, in both groups, the students considered the activities useful; however, the PPP group seem to be more positive in this respect. The PPP students' more positive outlook seems to be explained by the presence of output practice, since they justified their Likert Scale choices with comments such as 'because we try to use in class on time' and 'yes because it's good to use in class'. Moreover, this notion seems to be further confirmed during the focus group; and the students' views on the importance of practice can be seen from Figure 9 in Appendix 6.6. The comments below clearly illustrate students' views on the matter:

<S01>I like the exercise with card and pair because in my situation it's just look some phrase I can't remember so long time but if use in some class I remember because I try to use this phrase to say something so it's more connected.
(…)
<S03> I think the same as them I think it's easy to memorise if you practise activities.

<S02> Repetition it's very good repeat repeat the same phrase it's like help

From the comments above it appears that the students considered the class effective because they were required to produce the language throughout the class. At the same

time, OHE students did not appear as enthusiastic as the PPP group, due to the absence of practice:

<02>Personally, the teacher sometimes let us do group conv= group activity, activity and we talking and I think it is personally it is useful for us to practice the conversation and express our opinions.
(…)
<01>I have played memory game the other classes so I think this kind of memory game it's useful to learn new things but not only games, we need other things like speaking.

<S02> Like I say, if we talk if we speaking the time will go faster and we feel more alive. [laughter]
<S03> I think I prefer role playing because I can practice a lot and learn.

In the case of the OHE group, when asked to evaluate the OHE activities, the students immediately compared them with production-oriented exercises which they considered more engaging: 'if we speaking the time will go faster and we feel more alive' and more effective: 'I prefer role playing because I can practice a lot and learn.' This view was shared by PPP students who claimed that consciously trying to apply the new language into their existing language knowledge is more effective: 'just look some phrase I can't remember so long time, but if use in some class I remember because I try to use this phrase to say something (…)'. The students mentioned drills, role-playing, discourse completion tasks and more creative classroom activities as ways of learning new lexis. Moreover, the participants suggested that practising in class allows them to experiment with the new forms in a safe environment, as pointed out by this student from OHE group:

<003> I think erm to make sentence ourselves is erm help our help to memorise. Just read the sentence is also important but I think when I make sentence I think how to use those phrase and the sentence is not erm sentence is strange or not strange I think very useful to think and say.

These comments seem to indicate that practice in PPP does not merely rely on repetition, as suggested by Lewis (1993, 1997). On the contrary, the participants point to the cognitive processes involved in integrating the newly presented language point into their interlanguage during class time. Therefore, although Lewis presented OHE in opposition to PPP, it could be argued that these two paradigms can no longer be seen as

self-contained. In fact, the Practice stage in PPP can, and in this case did, resemble to a great extent the Experiment stage in OHE. Moreover, since in both instances the focus is on 'trying out' new language, it could be argued that, in the classroom environment PPP students can benefit from feedback. Since the Experiment stage can only be monitored by the students, one could question the learners' ability and motivation needed to achieve this process.

In addition, it would appear that, from the students' perspective, presence or absence of output practice influences the learning process significantly. The students' remarks are especially interesting in the light of Lewis' claims on the importance of input-based activities over output practice in ELT. It appears that in the context of this study, Lewis' propositions, on what types of activities benefit students most, do not coincide with the learners' views. As demonstrated, the OHE students considered noticing activities somewhat insufficient when learning chunks and emphasised the need for production, rather than input-oriented activities.

It is also interesting to point out that the more positive views expressed in the PPP group coincided with higher gain scores. The PPP learners' gain score (pre-delayed) on the productive test was M=2.8000 and M=2.8000 for the receptive test, the OHE students' gain scores (pre-delayed) were M=1.3500 and M=2.3000 respectively. While these differences are too low to claim that there is a dependency between the students' views and the framework used, it could be hypothesised that the overall more positive attitude towards the activities might have influenced the students' performance to some extent.

To sum up, the presence of practice has been the factor which to a large extent defined the learners' views on the frameworks. DeKeyser (2007) highlights the need for empirical research on what constitutes most effective practice in a given context. According to DeKeyser (2007), although it is generally agreed that instructed SLA requires a great deal of practice, the notion itself has been overlooked and its place in L2 acquisition needs to be addressed in a scientific manner. Considering the results obtained in this study, it appears that further research into the relationship between practice-oriented activities and the acquisition of chunks with pragmatic functions could be of value.

8.12 Summary of Results for RQ3

The aim of this section was twofold. First, to discover whether the low retention of the target forms for production could to some extent be attributed to the students'

opinions on the language presented and the framework used. Second, considering that the comparisons of treatment types produced inconclusive results, it was considered necessary to discover whether the students preferred one framework over the other.

It has been found that, on the whole, students were positive towards the language chosen for this study, both in terms of its form and function. Thus, interest and motivation, listed by Nation (2001) as key factors in vocabulary learning, can be most likely excluded from the possible causes of low retention of chunks. It can be therefore suggested that the retention did not occur to the extent it was hoped for, most likely due to the relatively short length of instruction and the lack of recycling of the target forms. Nation (1990, p.44) claims that five to sixteen or more repetitions are needed for a word to be learnt and students themselves point to the need for going back to the language presented in class:

(PPP) <S03> I want yeah I want after class if we do some phrase we bring home and we can check is it remember because last time last exam I forgot almost everything.

Therefore it is believed that there is an argument for not only providing students with opportunities for recycling presented language in class but also equipping them with strategies for successful revision of target forms.

In terms of the teaching frameworks used in this study, it has been concluded that the PPP students were more positive towards the type of instruction received. The main factor which divided the opinions between PPP and OHE students was the presence of production-oriented activities, an element which was not fully considered by Lewis when proposing the OHE cycle. Therefore, it has been suggested that since the views on the importance of practice were shared by all participants, the place and effectiveness of practice in teaching chunks should be addressed by further research.

9.0 CHAPTER FOUR: CONCLUSIONS

The aim of this investigation has been the comparison of two teaching frameworks, PPP and OHE, in the context of teaching twelve chunks to twenty upper-intermediate students enrolled on an IFP course at a UK university. The data gathered during this study has been analysed in order to answer three research questions and the findings will be reviewed here. The limitations of this study, its implications for EFL classroom practice and further research will also be discussed.

9.1 Findings

RQ1: Did the treatment affect students' productive knowledge of chosen chunks necessary for stalling and circumlocution and was either of the treatments (PPP or OHE) more effective than the other in terms of aiding students' ability to produce the target forms?

When answering this research question it was essential to consider both the immediate and long-term effects of the treatment. In both groups the immediate post-tests demonstrated a significant improvement in the students' ability to produce the target forms, which proves that the treatment had an effect in the short term. While this result was definitely hoped for, since it demonstrated that explicit instruction influences learning, it is understood that, at that point, the students were most likely relying on their short-term memory. In order to discover whether the instruction had a sustained effect the delayed test data was analysed and it revealed that in neither group was the language retained; as such the comparison of the effectiveness of the frameworks produced inconclusive results.

The results obtained in this part of the study have been discussed and related to the complexity involved in productive vocabulary learning (Waring, 1997a, 1997b) and the inevitable occurrence of attrition in the acquisition of lexis (Schmitt, 2002). It has also been suggested that the lack of recycling of the target forms most likely affected the learning process. While it is acknowledged that it is not possible to point with certainty to the factors which contributed to the ineffectiveness of the treatment in the long-term, the reasons mentioned are considered likely to have affected the results and are considered worthy of further investigation in additional studies researching the acquisition of chunks.

RQ2: Did the treatment affect students' receptive knowledge of chosen chunks necessary for stalling and circumlocution and was either of the treatments (PPP or OHE) more effective than the other in terms of aiding students' ability to recognise and understand the target forms?

Similarly to RQ1, this question needed to be answered with regards to both the immediate and sustained effects of the instruction. In terms of the students' receptive knowledge immediately after the treatment, the test results demonstrated a highly significant improvement in both groups. The delayed test results also demonstrated a receptive awareness of a high number of chunks in both groups, which suggests that both treatments had a sustained effect on the students' receptive knowledge over the two-week period. When comparing the effectiveness of the frameworks, both the raw scores and the Independent Samples t-test data were examined. While the raw scores revealed a pre-delayed gain score of M=2.8000 in PPP group and M=2.3000 in OHE, the difference between the gain scores is too low to attribute it to the type of instruction. This was also confirmed by the Independent Samples t-test which revealed no significant difference between the groups.

Although the comparison did not provide a conclusive answer, it is believed that interesting results emerged in terms of the development of receptive vocabulary knowledge. The results obtained in this study appear to confirm the notion that receptive vocabulary knowledge develops through productive and receptive learning, something which has been discussed with regards to Webb's (2005) investigation. While it is not possible to generalise the results due to the small scale of this study, the results provide interesting insights into the effects chosen tasks have on the development of productive and receptive knowledge.

RQ3: What are the IFP students' views on the language taught and the frameworks used?

In order to answer this question, the questionnaire and focus group data was analysed. In terms of the language taught the results revealed positive attitudes with regards to both the form of the target forms (chunks rather than single words) and their functions in discourse (overcoming communicative difficulties and aiding pragmatically successful communication). The students justified their positive views with the following claims. First of all, they saw chunks as more easily memorisable than single

words. While no empirical evidence can support this claim, it has been suggested that, due to the pragmatic functions of many chunks and their holistic nature, their acquisition should resemble that of single words. In terms of the functions the chunks have in discourse, the learners recognised that the chosen multi-word items help them overcome communication difficulties, which was welcomed given the specified pragmatic roles of the chunks. Moreover, the students recognised that the chunks presented here as Stalling Devices are frequent in native-speaker discourse, and that they represent the genre of interpersonal, rather than academic language. The students emphasised the communicative difficulties they have encountered due to their use of academic vocabulary in informal situations and expressed the need for explicit instruction on such language features in the IFP.

In terms of the students' views on the frameworks used in this study, it became apparent that the PPP group were more positive towards the activities they took part in due to the presence of practice. Unfortunately it has not been possible to find other studies in which students would express such strong opinions on practice; nonetheless it was the presence or lack of output practice which defined the students' views on the activities.

Moreover, when discussing the notion of practice, the participants were reporting on cognitive processes which Lewis (1993, 1997) saw as central to the Experiment stage in OHE. The PPP learners pointed to the conscious effort involved in focusing on the newly-presented language during the practice stages. Moreover, the participants considered this crucial to memorisation of the forms, if done repeatedly over a period of time. It would appear from this study that the Practice and Experiment stages could be seen as two overlapping concepts where the focus is on allowing students to 'experiment through practice'. Therefore, as argued by DeKeyser (2007), the notion of practice needs investigating and defining in order to discover what type of practice is most effective in a given context. It has been suggested that research into what constitutes effective practice in the context of teaching formulaic sequences for spoken production would be of value.

9.2 Limitations of the Study

It is crucial to consider the shortcomings and areas that could be improved if this investigation were to be repeated. Below the study's possible limitations will be reviewed:

1) **Sample size** – The sample used in this study was large enough to generate valid quantitative results. However, the number of participants was lower than the thirty recommended by Dornyei (2007) for this kind of investigation. What is more, while the sample represents a typical IFP class at UCLan, and the results could potentially inform the instruction on this course, it is recognised that a larger sample, of at least fifteen learners in each experimental group, would allow for more generalizable conclusions (Dornyei, 2007).

2) **Purposive convenience sampling** – The learners who took part in this study belonged to two intact classes of IFP students. While such sampling ensured that these classes were representative of typical IPF classes at UCLan i.e. multilingual students, in their twenties, both male and female and preparing for an undergraduate course, the main variable which arose was the language level difference between the groups. While the students were all considered to be at B2 level, it became apparent during the investigation that the OHE group were to some extent more proficient. It is understood that the spectra of proficiency within a language class are a common occurrence and at each level a wide range of abilities can be found. However, in the case of this study the majority of the stronger B2 students were in the OHE group, which needed to be considered when analysing the test results. Under ideal conditions, the pre-test results would be gathered before the instruction and two homogenous groups could be formed. However, the students' commitments and time constraints needed to be taken into consideration and as pointed out by Kemper et al. (2003, p.273–74) "sampling issues are inherently practical … it is in sampling, perhaps more than anywhere else in research, that theory meets the hard realities of time and resources". Moreover, when analysing test results only gain scores achieved in each group were compared. By comparing gain scores, rather than total scores, it was possible to investigate the effectiveness of the instruction while taking into account individual differences and level variations. Nonetheless, while the investigation provided interesting insights into the learning process and all variables were considered, the generalizability of the study must be questioned.

3) **Length of instruction and lack of further delayed tests. -** Norris and Ortega (2000) investigated a series of experimental and quasi experimental

studies and reported that there seems to be no difference in the effect of shorter instruction (under two hours) and longer instruction (three hours or more) on the participants' knowledge (Norris and Ortega, 2000, p.473). Nonetheless, the participants in this study specifically pointed to the need for repetition of the presented material in order to memorise it. This view is supported by memory studies where rehearsal aids the development of memory traces and the storage of information in one's long-term memory (Raaijmaker, 2003) Moreover, studies concerned with accidental vocabulary acquisition (Horst, Cobb and Maera, 1998; Rott, 1999; Waring and Takaki, 2003) have demonstrated that there is a strong link between the number of encounters with a target form and its memorisation. Thus, it is suggested that a longitudinal study concerned with the learning of chunks would be beneficial for this discussion. Moreover, while using a single delayed test allows measuring vocabulary acquisition to some extent (Davis, et al, 2008), measuring participants' knowledge at regular intervals might better illustrate the longitudinal and incremental nature of vocabulary learning (Schmitt, 2000, Schmitt, 2010).

4) **Test design and task repetition effects on test scores. -** The test design could face criticism due to the possible effect it might have had on the test scores.

First, it could be argued that the students' productive mastery of the chunks would be best measured through an oral task, since they represent features of spoken language. While designing a spoken task which would elicit the target forms was considered, it was decided against due to the nature of spoken interaction where the target chunks can be easily avoided. Hence a written test was opted for and it was designed based on Schmitt's (2000) and Hughes (2003) recommendations, and thus it was considered appropriate for this study. While native-speakers would not expect to encounter such language in a written form, in the area of ELT features of spoken language are often presented to learners in this format. During the instruction the participants had numerous opportunities to familiarise themselves with the chunks both in spoken form and in text. Therefore, even though using a written test to measure features of spoken discourse is perhaps not the ideal solution, it allowed me to successfully evaluate the students' performance.

In terms of the receptive test, while it could have permitted the guessing of some of the chunks, this threat is an inevitable feature of multiple choice tests, and these are widely used in language testing (Schmitt, 2000). Another issue could be the effect of task repetition on test scores as argued by Cohen et al (2011). Since the format of the tests was the same in each test, it could be suggested that students could have been able to score better on the delayed test due to their familiarity with the format and content. Nonetheless, considering the two-week delay between the tests and the fact that the items order was changed, such memorisation does not seem likely.

9.3 Implications for classroom practice and further research

It is believed that the various findings of this investigation could be useful in informing classroom practices and suggesting implications for further research:

1) **The place of features of non-academic spoken discourse in EAP courses.** – During the study the students' wish to receive instructions on features of non-academic spoken discourse became apparent, as it was the case in Jarvis and Stakounis' (2011) study. It is argued that, while traditionally EAP courses focus on speaking in academic contexts such as 'giving presentations' or 'participating in seminars', EAP students in English speaking countries also expect instruction on the ability to communicate in social contexts (Jarvis and Stakounis, 2011). In the context of this study it appears that the participants feel that they would benefit from instruction on formulaic chunks which they can use in interaction outside of the academic context. In the context of EAP students at UCLan it became clear that the students wished to be able to produce such language, and thus the place of developing such skills could be worth considering.

2) **Defining practice and its place in teaching chunks.** - It appears that practice, whether in the form of drills or a more creative language use, is of primary importance to the learners who took part in this study. Such strong views on the usefulness of output practice were considered noteworthy since the concept of practice requires further research and a clear definition, as argued by DeKeyser (2007). Even though the term 'practice' is common in the fields of Applied Linguistics and ELT there is little research on the relationship of various production activities and the development of

declarative, procedural and eventually automatized knowledge of L2. Drawing on research concerning the relationship between repetition and long-term memory, it could be argued that practice, as a form of rehearsal over a period of time, would aid retention. In the context of teaching chunks, DeKeyser (2007, p.293) emphasises the need for providing learners with many opportunities to use the target chunks in order to recycle them. DeKyeser's argument appears to be supported by the participants' claims in this study. On many occasions the learners pointed to repetition as help in language learning. Thus, it is suggested here that chunks should feature across many different classes and should be rehearsed through various tasks. However, considering the small amount of research on the acquisition of chunks (Schmitt and Carter, 2004; Boers and Lindstromberg, 2012) further research into what types of production activities best aid the receptive and productive mastery of formulae is seen as beneficial.

What is more, in the light of this study, it is argued that Lewis' claims regarding practice as a Behaviourist-led notion should be reassessed. While Lewis' views on output practice in PPP seemed to be concerned solely with drills, it is argued that practice can, as it did in the study, involve cognitive processes. The claims made by the participants clearly demonstrated that the learners saw practice as a way of 'experimenting' with the newly presented language. The students felt that classroom practice provides them with opportunities to consciously try to incorporate the new language point into their interlanguage and to receive feedback. These conscious processes, which Lewis seemed to attribute to input and noticing-oriented instruction, such as the OHE framework appear to also be present in PPP. Thus, it is argued that the Practice stage in PPP and the Experiment stage in OHE can in fact be seen as overlapping, rather than as mutually exclusive. Therefore, while Lewis presented OHE in opposition to PPP, it could be argued that these paradigms should not be seen as self -contained. Therefore, further studies are needed in order to assess how to best combine these two frameworks in the ELT classroom.

3) **The instruction type and the development of receptive and productive knowledge of chunks.** While there is no consensus on whether receptive knowledge leads to the development of productive knowledge or whether they are two separate dichotomies (Laufer and Goldstein 2004, p.405), it is

considered important to aid the learners' development of each of these areas in accordance to their needs. It appears that both receptive and productive tasks aid the students' receptive vocabulary knowledge, thus while receptive tasks could be useful when time is limited, productive tasks seem to be more beneficial in terms of developing more aspects of vocabulary knowledge and aids its retention. Therefore, it is essential to consider what type of vocabulary knowledge we wish to help the students develop, and choose the type of instruction accordingly (Zhong, 2011).

9.4 Closing Comments

This study has addressed Lewis' (1993, 1997) claims regarding the effectiveness of two teaching frameworks: PPP and OHE when teaching formulaic sequences. Lewis' assertion that OHE constitutes a more efficient way of aiding the acquisition of chunks has been approached in a scientific inquiry and no difference between the treatment types was found. Since the quantitative part of this investigation produced inconclusive results it is being suggested that further research into the comparison of PPP and OHE when teaching formulae is needed. Furthermore, the qualitative data presented in this study has highlighted several issues regarding the need for instruction on pragmatic routines within the context of IFP and the place of practice in aiding acquisition of chunks.

While it is felt that this study has contributed to the discussion surrounding the pedagogy of formulaic sequences, it has also been demonstrated that areas concerning the acquisition of formulaic sequences with pragmatic functions, their place in EAP courses and the relationship between practice and acquisition of formulae require further investigation.

10.0 WORD COUNT

27, 565 words

11.0 BIBLIOGRAPHY

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12.0 APPENDICES

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APPENDIX 1: PRESENTATION PRACTICE PRODUCTION LESSON PLAN

Lesson aim(s): By the end of the lesson the students will be better able to use the following stalling device to gain time: *What I mean is, As a matter of fact, I know what you mean, At the end of the day, I'm not entirely sure, Let's put it this way, To be honest with you, What I'm trying to say is ,* *Let me think/see* and circumlocution to describe objects/people and situations using the following chunks: *It's a bit like*, *It's (a) kind of/sort of* , *The thing you use for + -ing*, in the context of asking for information at UCLan **Brief class profile:** a group of 15 multilingual learners in their 20s, students of Uclan enrolled on the foundation programme **Assumed knowledge:** the ss will be familiar with some of the chunks but won't be able to produce them accurately	**Class level:** B2 **Anticipated problems:** the ss will have problems with features of connected speech, the ss might find not know some of the vocabulary from the recording **Suggested solutions:** the chunks will be drilled, potentially problematic vocabulary will be pre-taught (laptop, USB stick, refurbished, portable, enrolment) **Lesson duration:** 90min

Table 22 PPP lesson plan

TIME	STAGE	ACTIVITY AIMS AND ACITIVITY	INTERACTION
3 min	Lead in	SS work in pairs and choose the 5 most popular/useful places on campus. SS share their ideas and we put them on the board	s-s
1 min	Lead in	The teacher shows pictures of pictures of places that would have hopefully come up: the 'I', the library and the new gym	Whole class
3 min	Prediction	The SS need to think of and write up to 3 topics of conversation (1 for each place) and the teacher elicits ideas	s-s
5 min	Pre-teaching vocabulary	The SS complete a matching activity	s
4 min	Listening for gist	The SS listen to the recording and match the conversation with the places in the pictures	s
6 min	Listening for specific info	SS answer comprehension questions	s
4 min	Listening for language point	The teacher gives the SS the script with gaps, the SS listen again and fill the gaps with the appropriate chunks	s
3 min	Language focus	The SS need to decide what the functions of those chunks are	s
3 min	Language	The teacher elicits more chunks	Whole class

	focus		
5 min	Pronounciation practice	The teacher drills the chunks chorally and individually	Whole class and individual SS
6 min	Controlled practice	The SS play a game where in 3 min they need to describe as many items as possible using circumlocution (items to describe: washing machine, hairdryer bottle, dessert, broccoli, laptop, puddle, letter)	SSS
6 min	Controlled practice	The SS play a game where they need to match and say out loud stalling chunks: for example, one student puts down a 'Let's' card and the student who puts down a card with 'put it this way' and say it out loud gets a point	SSS
25 min	Freer practice	The SS need to choose another spot on campus and write a dialogue similar to those listened to and present it to the class (the SS will be able to choose from 3 topics or pick their own) The SS choose the best one	s-s Whole class
3 min	Feedback	The teacher puts on the board any problematic language that she heard and elicits corrections	Whole class

APPENDIX 2: OBSERVE HYPOTHESISE EXPERIMENT LESSON PLAN

Lesson aim(s): By the end of the lesson the students will be better able to use the following stalling device to gain time: *What I mean is, As a matter of fact, I know what you mean, At the end of the day, I'm not entirely sure, Let's put it this way, To be honest with you, What I'm trying to say is ,* *Let me think/see* and circumlocution to describe objects/people and situations using the following chunks: *It's a bit like, It's (a) kind of/sort of , The thing you use for + ing,* in the context of asking for information at UCLan **Brief class profile:** a group of 15 multilingual learners in their 20s, students of Uclan enrolled on the foundation programme **Assumed knowledge:** the ss will be familiar with some of the chunks but won't be able to produce them accurately	**Class level:** B2 **Anticipated problems:** the ss will have problems with features of connected speech, the ss might find not know some of the vocabulary from the recording **Suggested solutions:** the chunks will be drilled, potentially problematic vocabulary will be pre-taught (laptop, USB stick, refurbished, portable, enrolment) **Lesson duration:** 90min

Table 23 OHE lesson plan

TIME	STAGE	ACTIVITY AIMS AND ACITIVITY	INTERACTION
3 min	Lead in	SS work in pairs and choose the 5 most popular/useful places on campus. SS share their ideas and we put them on the board	s-s
1 min	Lead in	The teacher shows pictures of pictures of places that would have hopefully come up: the 'I', the library and the new gym	Whole class
3 min	Prediction	The SS need to think of and write up to 3 topics of conversation (1 for each place) and the teacher elicits ideas	s-s
5 min	Pre-teaching vocabulary	The SS complete a matching activity	s
4 min	Listening for gist	The SS listen to the recording and match the conversation with the places in the pictures	s
6 min	Listening for specific info	SS answer comprehension questions	s
5 min	Noticing 1	The SS need to put together the cut-up dialogues (the matching point will always be a chunk)	s-s
5 min	Hypothesise	The ss need to categorise the chunks into chunks which can be used to gain thinking time in coversation' and 'chunks which are used to describe unknown vocabulary'	s-s

4

10 min	Language point discussion	The SS are asked to put the chunks in two columns; expressions that give you more time to think and expressions used for describing things/situations	s-s
		In pairs the learners decide	s-s
		a) which expressions they feel comfortable using themselves	
		b) which they think they'll never use and Why	
		c) why they like/dislike certain expressions	
13 min	Noticing 3 & 4	The SS work in groups of 4 and read a text	ss
		out loud and the read need to listen carefully. The text will be read out twicem the second time there will be slight changes ('negative evidence') and whoever spots the difference calls out the exact words in the original	
		The students arrange cut up phrases with the target chunks - jigsaw exercises	

1 At UCLan Library

A: Hi I'm just wondering if you have any laptops for sale.

B: Oh, **I'm not entirely sure** but I'm going to ask my colleague.

A: That's great, thanks.

B: Ok, we don't have any laptops for sale at the moment, **as a matter of fact** there are only a few refurbished PCs for sale.

A: Ah I see.

B: Would you be interested in a PC?

A: Erm…**to be honest with you** I'm looking for a laptop because they are more portable.

B: Yeah, of course. You might want to check online for refurbished laptops.

A: Ah yes, that's a good idea. Thanks for your help.

B: You're welcome. Do you have any more questions?

A: Yeah, erm actually, do you sell **those things which you can for transferring data**? Erm, what are they called…

A:USB sticks?

B: Yes, yes, that's what I meant.

B: Yes, we do, here you can have a look at them.

2 At UCLan Gym

A: Hi I'd like to get in shape so I thought I'd come here

B: Great idea, you came to the right place. How can I help you?

A: Well, I haven't really done any exercise in long time, I guess **what I'm trying to say is** that I'm not in a particularly good form

B: Ah don't worry about it, **to be honest with you** a lot of students feel the same

A: Good to hear I'm not the only one.

B: Of course you're not. Ok, let me see what would be the best programme for you.

A Great, thanks.

B: I think you might be best off starting with classes. Have you heard about Zumba?

A: Erm, no, not really.

B: It's a type of exercise where you dance to lively music, **it's a bit like a party** really.

A: Oh that sounds like fun, but I'm not a very good dancer

B: Hmm, **let's put it this way**, it's not a dance class and , at the end of the day what matters is that you get some exercise

A: So **it's a kind of party**, you said? That sounds cool. So when is the next Zumba class?

B: Tomorrow at 5.

A: Brilliant, I'll see you tomorrow then.

B:Bye

3 At The 'I' Information Centre

A: Hi how can I help you?

B: Hiya, well, I'm having problems with enrolment…

A: What's the matter?

B: Well, every time I go on my profile and try to enrol there's a message saying that the process was unsuccessful, I can't remember the exact message but…

A: Mhm, yes, **I know what you mean**, we've had other students with the same problem

B: Ah really? So do you know what I need to do?

A: Yes, you need to go to your School Office and fill out an Enrolment Problems form, **it's what we use around here for sorting out these kinds of problems**

B: Ah ok, brilliant, thanks a lot

A: You're very welcome; if you have any more problems just pass by again.

B: Ok, thank you, bye

A:Bye

The copies below were used as pre-tests. As discussed in the Methodology Chapter, the content and format of the post-tests and delayed tests were exactly the same, apart from the differences in order in which the questions and answers appeared. Thus, it is believed that the pre-test constitute a sufficient representation of the vocabulary tests used.

4.1 Productive test

Complete the phrases in bold by writing the missing letters. The words are separated by the slash (/) sign.

For example G_ _ _/m_ _ _ _ _ _

1.

A: Wow you look exactly the same as 10 years ago!

B:Really?

A:Well w _ _ _ /I /m _ _ _ /i _ that I would still recognise you.

2.

A:Did you see Jenny at the reunion?

B:No, erm, I don't think so, a _ / a /m _ _ _ _ _ / o _ /f_ _ _ I don't think she was there.

3.

A:It's almost like she's not interested in what I am saying.

B:Yeah   I/ k _ _ _ /w_ _ _/y_ _ /m _ _ _ . I think it's the way she kind of responds to what you're saying before you're finished talking.

4.

A:The staff are still making lots of mistakes.

B:Yeah I know but I think   a _ / t_ _ _ / e_ _ /o_ /t_ _ / d_ _ they've only had 3 hours of training.

5.

 A:My laptop has completely frozen. Do you know what to do?

B:Erm, t _/b_ /h _ _ _ _ _/w_ _ _/ y_ _ I'm not very good with computers, but I can try.

6.

A:Do you know id John is coming to your birthday party?

B: I'm n _ _ _/e_ _ _ _ _ _ _ _/s _ _ _ but I can try to call her.

7.

A:Are you okay?

B:Yeah, I guess, well w _ _ _/I'm/ t_ _ _ _ _ /t _/s_ _ is that I'm tired of all these problems.

8.

A:So who is coming to dinner?

B:Lisa, Anna, John…I'm sure there was someone else, hang on, l _ _/m_/s_ _ ah yes, Tom.

9.

A: I hear you play rugby, what is it like?

B: It's a b_ _/l _ _ _ American football and soccer put together.

10.

I often make goulash which is a k_ _ _ /o _ stew, but with a very strong taste.

11.

A: Jim mentioned using a wrench. What is that?

B: It is t_ _/t_ _ _ _/y _ _/u _ _/f_ _ turning big screws.

12

A: Are you really leaving university?

B: Well, l_ _ _ _/p _ _/it/t _ _ _/w_ _ _, I need some time off to think about what I want to do.

4.2 receptive test

Read the three choices (a,b and c) and circle the phrase which goes in the space provided.

1. 1. I'm not trying to offend you _____ that you haven't been yourself lately.

a) Which I mean is   b) What I mean is   c)When I mean is

2. I have never been to Germany ,_____ I've never travelled outside of

the UK.

a) As a matter of fact   b) As the matter of fact   c) As a matter of the fact

3 Yeah _____ I wouldn't want to work for Jim either

a) I know what you mean   b) I know which you mean   c) I realise what you mean

4. Don't worry about missing the class, _____ you did your best to try and

attend.

a) At the end of a day   b)At the end of the day   c) At the end of this day

5. . _____ but I think that Julie is coming to dinner.

 a) I'm not entirely sure but   b) I'm not fully sure but   c) I'm not wholly

sure but

6. _____ I'll give you your pocket money if you clean the house.

a) Let's me put it this way   b) Let me put it this way   c) Let's put it in this

way

7. _____ , I never even wanted to buy this car.

a) To be honest to you   b) To be honest in you   c) To be honest with

you

8. _____is that I don't understand why you would argue so much with

your sister.

a)What I'm trying to say is   b)What I'm trying to tell is   c)What I'm trying

telling is

9. _____ , ah yes, you can have an appointment next Tuesday,

a)let's me think/see   b) let me think/see   c) lets me think

Read the three choices (a,b and c) and circle the correct answer.

10.   Sam: What's a wolf?

        Tom: _____

a) It's bit like a dog but it's wild   b) It's a bit like a dog but it's wild

c) Its a bit like a dog but it's wild

  11. Sam: What's a laptop?

        Tom:_____

a)It's a kind of computer but smaller.   b) It's kind of a computer

c) It's a kind of a computer but smaller.

12 Sam: What's a rubber?

    Tom: _____

a) It's the thing you use for to erase pencil.   b) It's the thing you use for to erasing

pencil.

c) It's the thing you use to erasing pencil.   .

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APPENDIX 5 : QUESTIONNAIRE

I would like to ask you to help me by answering the following questions evaluating the class you just took part in. This survey is a part of my Master's thesis which I'm completing here at UCLan.

This is not a test so there are no right or wrong answers, you don't even have to write your name on it. Your personal opinion is extremely valuable and by giving _honest_ answers you will guarantee the success of the investigation. Thank you very much for your help.

In the following section I'd like you to answer the question by giving marks from 1-4 and then justifying your choice in the space provided.

Please **circle** the number that represents your answer.

1 How useful was the language presented today?

1 not at all   2 not really   3 quite useful   4 very useful   5 I don't know

Please justify your answer

_____

_____

2How likely are you to use it in conversation outside of classroom?

 1 I don't know   2 quite likely   3 likely   4 very likely   5 not very likely

Please justify your answer

_____

_____

3 How do you rate the activities that you took part in today?

1 I liked them a lot   2 I quite liked them   3 I liked them   4 I didn't like them at all   5 I don't know

Please justify your answer

_____

_____

4 Do you think the activities in class today helped you learn the language presented?

1 not at all   2 definitely   3 yes   4 not really   5 I don't know

 Please justify your answer

_____

_____

5 Do you like learning whole expressions rather than single words?

1 not at all   2 very much   3 not really   4 quite   5 I don't know

Please justify your answer

_____

_____

6 How important it is for you to practice language presented in class during class time?

1 not important at all   2 quite important   3 important   4 very important 5 I don't know

Please justify your answer

_____

_____

The results presented below represent the students' responses on the Likert Scale as well as their answers from the 'Justify your answer' section of the questionnaire.

6.1 Students' views on the usefulness of the target forms
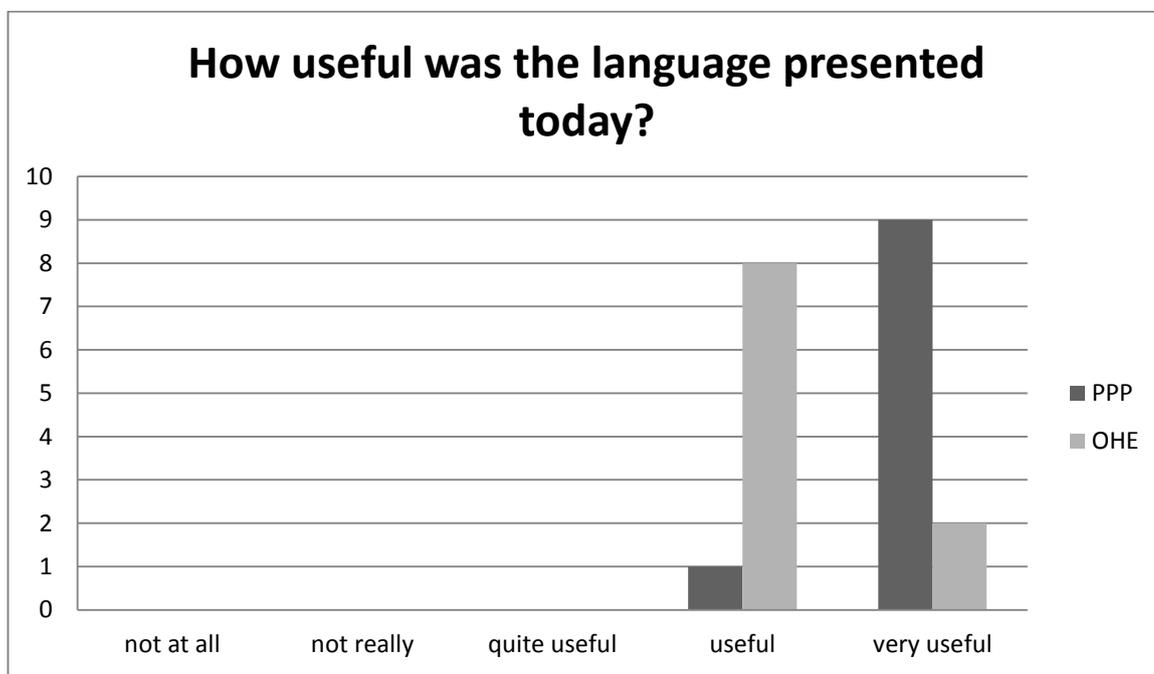
Figure 4 Students' views on the usefulness of the target forms (included in main text)

JUSTIFY YOUR ANSWER

6.1a PPP

•   Not just listening, we used cards so fun

•   The lecture was easy to understand and memorising some phrases

•   I feel this can help me in my speaking (it's good phrases)

•   It was very useful to learn English

•   It's different useful language

•   It's useful when we learn something different

•   Some phrases help you to speak better

6.1b OHE

•   In my opinion language was useful but I don't think I will need all of these expressions

•   I think phrases we learnt today is useful in speaking and sounds more natural

•   I learnt useful expressions

•   I learnt some phrases that I didn't know e.g. 'as a matter of fact'

•   I have a few things I have never used before so I'm glad to learn that

•   Expressions as to get time to consider what I'm going to say are useful for our presentation

•   I didn't know how to use these colloquial phrases so I think it was a good class

•   I knew some phrases which I didn't know before

•   Because I can tell more my expression compared to without them

6.2 Students' attitudes toward their future use of the target forms
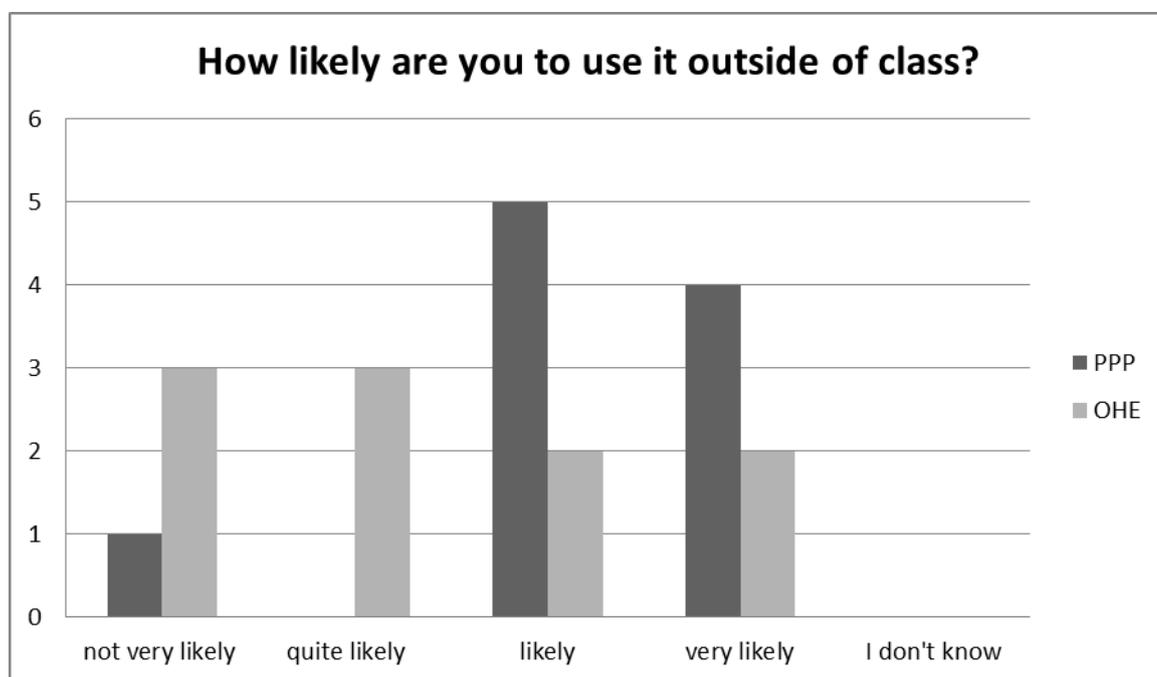
Figure 5 Students' attitudes toward their future use of the target forms

6.2a PPP

•   With my friends

•   'It's a kind of' and 'It's a bit like' are useful and I think I will use them

•   The phrases which we learned will be used in my life

•   I think that I won't use them a lot because I speak with my family in our native language

•   I will try to use these phrases which I learnt today

•   I will try but I can't remember sometimes

•   With teachers and maybe with friends

6.2b OHE

•   I think I will use some of them

•   I often use some of expressions such as it's a bit like or let me see

•   Useful in daily life

•   But I'd like to use them

•   I think most of the phrases are used in class

•   In my presentation and usual life

•   Sometimes it's difficult for me to use it frequently but I try to use them from now on

•   It's difficult to use naturally

•   I have friends and almost every day I talk with them

6.3 Students' opinions on classroom procedures
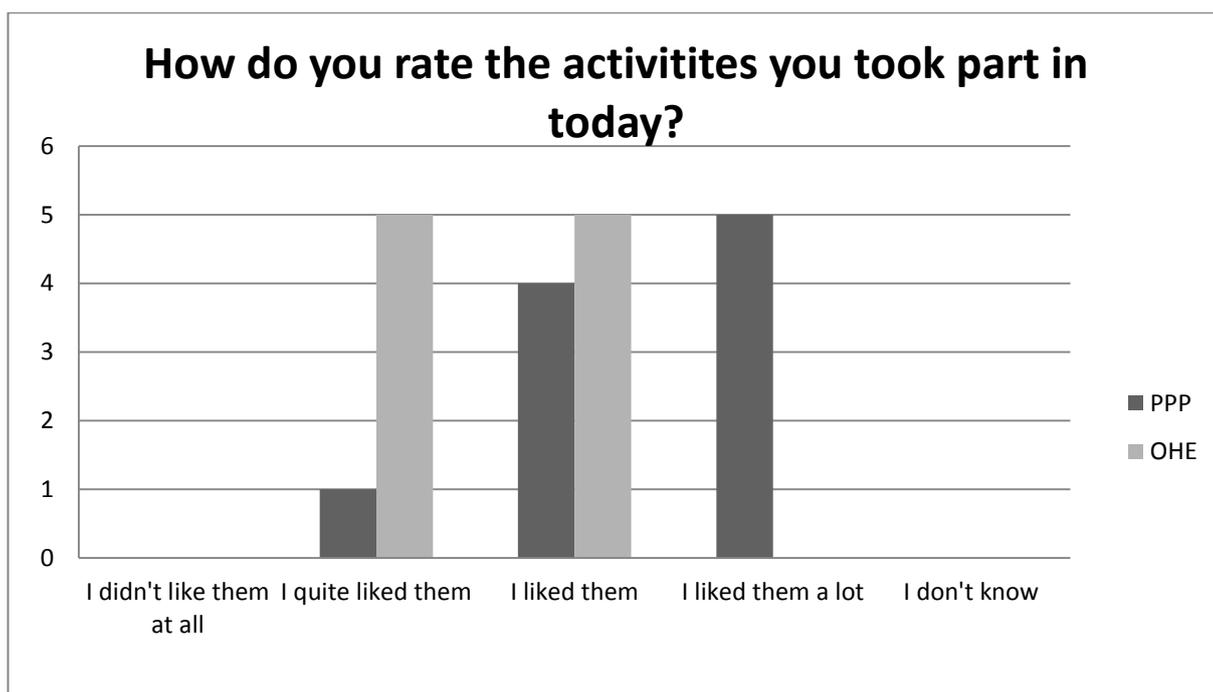
Figure 6 Students' opinions on classroom procedures

<u>**JUSTIFY YOUR ANSWER**</u>

6.3a PPP

•   Last one (writing) was difficult but the card game was fun

•   It was like a game, I enjoyed

•   It was very funny and helpful to study English

•   Good activities and help you learn

•   It was good because we did a lot of different activities

6.3b OHE

•   I am quite familiar to this kind of activities and I don't feel bored

•   The class was not just lecture but some pair works and included speaking activities, that was quite interesting for me

•   It was fun to play games with using words

•   Because I learnt some new phrases

•   Because it was useful for my studying

16

- I understood the way of using these but I need more practice to adjust these

- Not only research but also I can learn

6.4 Students' views on the effectiveness of classroom procedures
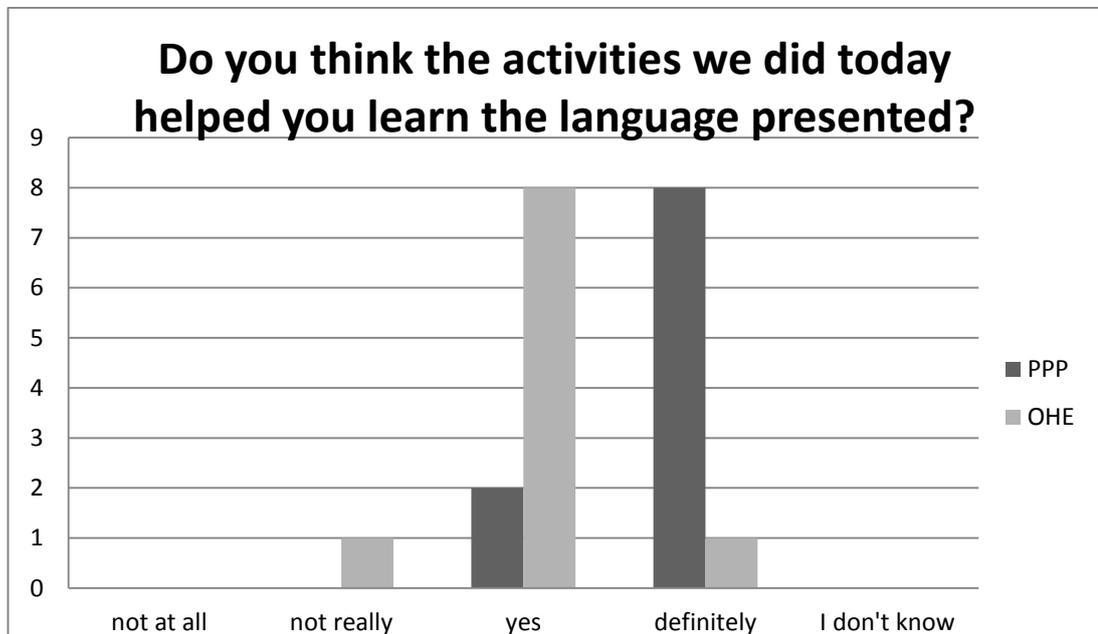
Figure 7 Students' views on the effectiveness of classroom procedures

JUSTIFY YOUR ANSWER

6.4a PPP

- Yes, because we try to use in class on time

- Because conversation is important like today's lecture

- Easy practice and with group

- Yes, practice helps you

- Yes because it's good to use in class

- Yes because we learn a lot

6.4b OHE

- Yes but if I will feel better I will remember more

- I think I can use them when I do a presentation

- I could learn vocabulary, enjoying studying

- If I could use it naturally I'd be great

Do you like learning whole expressions/chunks of language rather than single words?
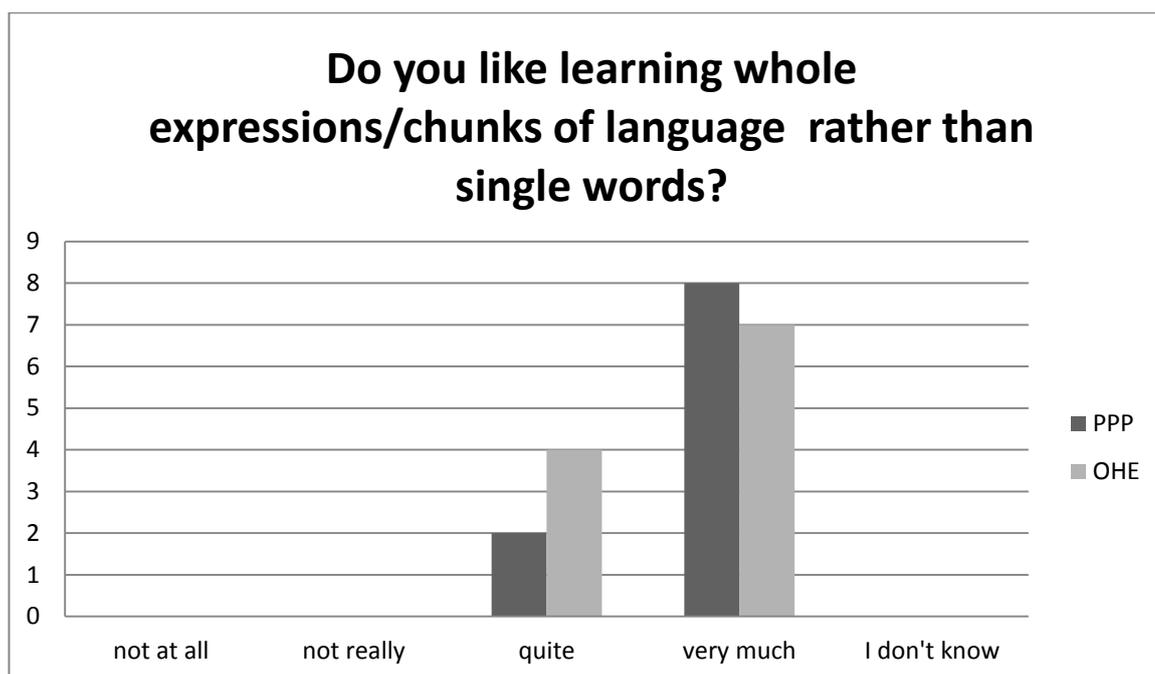
Figure 8 Students' views on learning chunks

JUSTIFY YOUR ANSWER

6.5a PPP

• More easy to memorise

• It's easy to remember and useful

• Easy to remember

• It's better with phrases because I can remember

• I can memorise better

• I liked those expressions

6.5b OHE

• Whole expressions are more useful

• It's easier to remember phrases because you know how to use

• I sometimes feel it's not useful to learn single words and it's more useful to learn whole phrases

• It's easier to learn by whole expressions rather than single words

- It's easier to remember

- I can use them after the class such as in conversation in my life

- A lot whole expressions in real life

- It's easy to learn and they have a strong impression

- To learn whole expression is more useful to use in daily conversation

- Single words also important but expressions are quite useful in conversation

- It's easier to remember phrases because you know how to use

6.6 Students' views on the importance of practice
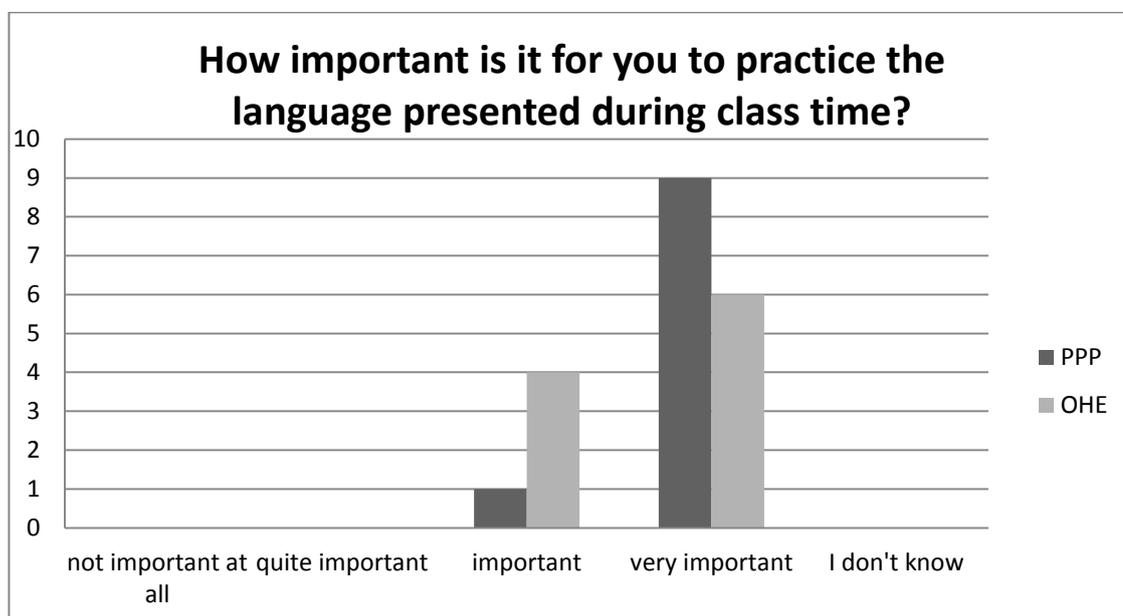
Figure 9 Students' views on the importance of practice

<u>**JUSTIFY YOUR ANSWER**</u>

6.6a PPP

- We practice in class, we can outside class too.

- Practice in class is useful because you learn

- We practice and then remember better

- Practice makes perfect

6.6b OHE

- However, people in my class prefer to speak Japanese so I can't talk to them a lot, even in class

- Just listening or writing doesn't help me to remember words or phrases, it's important for me to do it

- I don't often use the languages in class

- I want to learn more

- Practice is necessary to be accustomed with it to use frequently I think

APPENDIX 7: FOCUS GROUP PROMPTS

1 What are your general thoughts on the class?

2 What do you think about the language presented in class? (positive and negative opinions to

be justified) (key words: useful or not, helpful/unhelpful, is it noticed in input)

3 What do you think about the activities you took part in? Did they help you learn the

expressions we worked with?

4 Were there any activities that you think were particularly useful to you?

5 What types of activities do you prefer and why? (input or output centred).

6 What are your opinions on learning such language in class?

7 Do you think the class helped you use the language we studies in class or would you learn in

from hearing it around you?

APPENDIX 8: RESEARCH INFORMATION SHEET

Dear Student,

I would like to invite you to take part in a study which will compare two teaching approaches. The study will consist of two parts:

- A ninety minute class
- A forty-five minute focus group

You will also be asked to complete vocabulary tests before and after the class, as well as two weeks after you took part in the activities.

Please take time to read the information below carefully and please feel free to ask me any questions you may have.

1 What is the purpose of the study?
The aim of this study is to compare two ways of teaching chunks of language, expressions which are common in everyday speech.

2 Do I have to take part?
Your participation is voluntary. I would really like you to participate in this study, however, because I believe that you can make an important contribution to the research being a representative of the students enrolled on the International Foundation Programme at UCLan. If you do not wish to take part you do not need to justify your decision.

3 What will I do if I take part?
If you are happy to participate in the research you will be asked to first sign the consent form and return it to me. Then you will complete a twenty-minute vocabulary test. Next you will take part in a 90-min class and after that you'll be asked to complete another test. After two weeks I will ask you to complete the final test and you may be asked to take part in a discussion in a focus group.

4 What are the possible disadvantages of taking part?
Apart from the fact that you will be dedicating your time to the focus group outside of your class time, there are no other disadvantages involved.

5 What are the possible benefits of taking part?
You will be receiving tuition on language which perhaps you do not usually meet in class and which might be of use to you. Moreover, you will be directly involved in a research project at UCLan.

.
6 What will happen to the results of the research study?
All information you provide and test results will be kept confidential. The data will be analysed only by the researcher and any responses will be kept anonymous.

APPENDIX 9: CONSENT FORM

Study title: *The comparison of the effectiveness of the observe hypothesise experiment and the presentation practice production models on teaching procedural language of circumlocution and stalling devices to upper intermediate EFL students.*

Researcher: Patrycja Golebiewska MA (by research) student in TESOL at the University of Central Lancashire. Email: pgolebiewska1@uclan.ac.uk

Please Initial Box

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions. ☐

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving reason. ☐

3. I agree to take part in the above study. ☐

4. I agree to focus group being audio recorded ☐

5. I agree to focus group being video recorded ☐

6. I agree to the use of anonymised quotes in publications ☐

_____   _____   _____
Name of Participant   Date   Signature

_____   _____   _____
Name of Researcher   Date   Signature

APPENDIX 10: RETENTION OF CHUNKS FOR PRODUCTION

Table 24 Retention of chunks for productive knowledge PPP group

Chunk	Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed test
What I mean is	1	7	7
As a matter of fact	0	5	3
I know what you mean	8	9	5
At the end of the day	0	9	1
I'm not entirely sure	0	8	1
Let's put it this way	0	3	0
To be honest with you	1	10	3
What I'm trying to say is	1	10	5
Let me see	0	**9**	9
It's a bit like	0	7	5
It's a kind of	1	10	9
The thing you use for	0	2	1

Table 25 Retention of chunks for productive knowledge OHE group

Chunk	Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed test
What I mean is	6	9	7
As a matter of fact	0	6	2
I know what you mean	9	10	6
At the end of the day	2	8	1
I'm not entirely sure	0	9	2
Let's put it this way	0	3	0
To be honest with you	3	10	4
What I'm trying to say is	3	8	3
Let me see	0	9	4
It's a bit like	5	9	7
It's a kind of	8	10	9
The thing you use for	1	4	0

APPENDIX 11: RECEPTIVE RETENTION OF CHUNKS

Table 26 Retention of chunks for receptive knowledge PPP

Chunk	Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed test
What I mean is	8	7	9
As a matter of fact	5	10	8
I know what you mean	10	10	10
At the end of the day	10	7	8
I'm not entirely sure	3	6	9
Let's put it this way	10	10	7
To be honest with you	8	10	10
What I'm trying to say is	7	9	10
Let me see	8	10	10
It's a bit like	10	10	9
It's a kind of	8	9	7
The thing you use for	7	10	8

Table 27 Retention of chunks for receptive knowledge OHE group

Chunk	Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed test
What I mean is	9	10	9
As a matter of fact	6	10	10
I know what you mean	10	10	10
At the end of the day	9	10	8
I'm not entirely sure	4	10	8
Let's put it this way	6	9	7
To be honest with you	7	10	10
What I'm trying to say is	9	9	10
Let me see	10	9	10
It's a bit like	8	9	10
It's a kind of	7	9	10
The thing you use for	8	9	10

APPENDIX 12: TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS

Table 28 Transcription codes and examples (based on Carter, 2004, p.220).

Transcription convention	Symbol	Explanation
Speaker codes	\<S01> >, \<S02>	Each speaker is numbered and the researcher's symbol is \<S00>
Extralinguistic information	[ ]	Indicates laughter, coughing and inaudible speech in the recording
Interrupted sentence	+	Utterances are marked by + where the speakers' turn was interrupted and are followed by another + when the speakers resumes his utterance: \<S01> I would like+ \<S02> Right. \<S01> +to teach.
Backchannel	()	Backchannel items tend to overlap with the turn of the current speaker and are therefore inserted into their utterance: \<S01> I think I would like (\<S02> Right.) to teach.
Unfinished utterances and single words	=	Speakers not only change their course in mid-sentence but they change in the middle of individual words: \<S01> I wouldn't ha=, I wouldn't have thought so
Punctuation	. ?,	A full stop or a question mark is used to mark the end of a sentence (depending on intonation). Sentences are anything that is felt to be a complete utterance such as: \<S01> What did you think of the film? \<S02> Lovely. A comma indicates that the speaker re-cast what they were saying. \<S01> I bet, is that supposed to be straight.

13.1 PPP focus group transcript

<S 00> Okay thanks again for agreeing to take part. Right so we did this one class that was two weeks ago I'm not sure if you remember, hopefully you'll remember something. If you could give me some general comments. Some general thoughts about the class. What did you think?

<S 01> About your class? +

<S 00> Mhm.

<S 01> + lesson? I think group group discussion it was interesting [inaudible] but test [laughter] so +

<S 00> Yeah the test, the test was like a separate thing, if we just take the lesson itself.

< S 01> + Ah, okay.

<S 00> What did you guys think about the lesson? Any general ideas?

<S 02> Yeah I think one of the best thing we learn this in this lesson = we learn not just one vocabulary. Phrases, many all together. It is good, better than when you learn just one vocabulary, and you = sometimes you know the vocabulary but you don't have =you don't know how native speakers connect the words together.

<S 00> Mhm. Any more thoughts?

<S 03> Erm some lot of activities and erm not so I don't know how to say it, not so much time, no like (<S 00> Not enough time? Or?) no it's good, it's easy but it's very good for us like not erm not to think about other things like no distraction, like (<S 04> not boring) yes not boring.

<S 00> So you liked the pace. Mhm, and do you think it's difficult to learn this kind of language? Is it difficult to learn phrases?

<S 02> <S 03> <S 04> No.

<S 05> Not really.

<S 02> Maybe the first time you heard it you don't understand but when you use it it help when you speak with native speakers when you learn this phrase. Also another good things when we learn this phrases then we listen it in the conversation if you remember this help us to also to locate this phrases in the whole conversation it's also good thing.

<S 00> So you do think when you're presented with that kind of language it is not harder to learn it than any other kind of language?

<S 02> <S 03> <S 05> No.

<S 00> Do you think the class helped you to use these phrases in conversation?

<S 01> <S 03> <S 05> No. [laugh]

< S 00> Could you say more about it?

<S 01> It's not easy phrases+

<S 05> As the teacher said, the people try to understand what you say so it's not really difficult

<S 00>Mhm mhm you guys said it's not easy to use outside. Did you manage to use the phrases in your conversations after our class?

<S01> Not= if we talk in English we not thinking about phrase but if we remember for example 'let me see' it's very short phrase it's very useful, so it's more easy to use but other one is more longer so I forgot.

<S 00> Mhm so you think that the shorter ones would be easier to use?

< S01> Yeah yeah.

< S 00> And would you use it in a conversation with another student, not necessarily a native speaker?

< S05> I think the most difficult it's about the adjective adverb.

<S00> So…?

<S05> I think the basic sentence is not really difficult, the difficult it about adjective adverb.

<S00> Can you explain that a bit more?

<S05> Just try to explain what's the feeling, emotion like that.

<S00> I see and...so you think that it's hard to use it outside of class but do you think that kind of language is still useful?

<S 02> <S 03> <S 05> Yeah.

<S02> <S02> I think it is very useful and really some= I don't think all of is difficult and we learn something like 'to be honest with you' I think it is useful and for me I start to use it in my conversation. It really help you, like what I mean to say is those phrases help you. If you start to understand these phrases and if you start to apply in your conversation it really help you communicate.

<S00> Mhm do you think this language that we learnt in class, do you think it's helpful to focus on it in class or would you just learn it by being outside and listening to people anyway?

<S05> You mean which is more useful outside or in class?

<S00> They are all quite useful the phrases but my question is, do you think that working on that kind of language in class in a lesson is useful or not really because you're living in England so you hear people say those things and you don't really need to focus on it in class because you'll learn it by listening to people

<S03> Oh I think it's useful to learn in class because if we don't know the, I don't know what they say I hear it in class one time and outside people talk this phrase oh I remember.

<S02> Other things for maybe student for some students maybe for example me, I live with my family we don't speak English in my home. It's good to learn such this phrases, maybe you don't have contact with native speaker if you don't learn it in the class maybe your chance to get it from native speaker is not much maybe another student stay with their friends from their original countries like Chinese students with Chinese and Arab with Arab if you didn't learn in classes their chance not too much.

<S05> Maybe like some native speakers knows like we can't speak well yet so they like speak in more a little bit easier not like as usual like to us maybe a little bit easy like conversation or easy phrases they use maybe not use difficult words.

<S00> Mhm so you wouldn't pick it up because they don't use it with you (<S01> Yeah) and the activities that we did in class do you think they were useful? Do you remember the activities? There was one where you had words and had to describe them to the other person (<S 02> <S 03> <S 05> Yeah) then there was another one where you had to match phrases and then say them out loud (<S 02> <S 03> <S 05> Yeah) and then you had to come up with a dialogue. Do you think that kind of activities are useful?

<005> I think they are useful but you waste too much time.

<S00> Okay can you say more about that?

<S05> For example for the vocabulary we could just try to remember and record them at home I think for the activities we should practise other activities. I think for the vocabulary we practice and activities in the class is maybe a little boring and maybe you can try to create some game like grammar or reading not only vocabulary

<S00> Mhm so do you think practising that kind of vocabulary in class is not very useful.

<S05>It's useful but a little bit waste time.

<S00> So how would you + ?

<S005> We need to use lots to only maybe do words in the class that's not very useful

<S02> Really I have a different =. when you learn grammar it's boring if you learn such like this it's not just we do grammar we do a lot of that, but you learn something new not just grammar this is new. Class like this give us chance to original way to teach language to know how the native speaker talk I think this interesting not boring like grammar and other classes.

<S00> + Mhm what do you guys think?

<S01>I like the exercise with card and pair because in my situation it's just look some phrase I can't remember so long time but if use in some class I remember because I try to use this phrase to say something so it's more connected.

 <S00> So do you think the practice we did helped you use them outside of class?

<S 02> <S 03> <S 05> Yeah yeah.

<S02> Repetition it's very good repeat repeat the same phrase it's like help.

<S00> Would you like to add something girls?

<S03> I think the same as them I think it's easy to memorise if you practise activities.

<S00> So you think it's better to say it in class then just for example read it.

<S03> Yes of course.

<S00> Mhm brilliant. Okay and would you want to use that kind of language? Expression, phrases?

<S 02> <S 03> <S 05> Yeah .

<S002> Yeah but we can't.

<S00> Why do you think you can't?

<S002> Maybe no confidence to say, first time maybe, if it's correct situation or sentence.

<S00>Mhm that's interesting

<S01> If I speak English outside I don't have time to come up with phrases because I have no time to think when I write English I have time to think but when I speak I don't have time

<S00> Mhm so what do you think would a good way to kind of make that language just come out? When you don't have to think about it.

<S01> <S02> Practice.

<S01>Practice or if you use picture for example in the shop if some customer may I help you and next phrase is…We learn in what situation we use this phrase by picture we can more easy remember not only plays but also another situation.

<S00> So you need to a context to know how to use it.

<S05> Now we still don't didn't understand a lot of the words of some of phrase or some items how to record that so if we can connect some some image for example a picture and you can show it in the class then we can learn about more knowledge of that

knowledge of context, you need to feel completely comfortable with when you can use chunks

<S00> A picture of where you could use it?

<S005> Some space yeah for example some techniques how to record that and what's the name of that.

<S00> So would you want to know this is a noun this an adjective? (<S05> Yes) And how would that help you?

<S005> If you have a picture.

<S00> But what about if you're learning phrases, like we did like 'to be honest with you', 'at the end of the day'.

<S05> Yes that's important.

<S00> Okay, right any general comments on what we did in class that kind of language anything you'd like to add?

<S02> Hmm comment [laughter]

<S03> It was fun the lesson and I like the activities a lot and [laughter]

<S05> A lot of activities on class then homework or practice outside of class

<S00> So do you think it should have been followed by me saying Okay now you have to go and use it in a situation outside would that help?

<S002> Yeah to remember it you need to use it.

<S01> <S03> <S04> Yeah.

<S00> And you don't use it because

<S01> I forgot.

<S00> You forgot. Mhm, You said you don't feel confident.

<S04>Maybe you forget it maybe in that situation you don't remember.

<S00> So do you think it'd be useful to have more lessons.

<S01> <S03> Yeah.

<S02> Yeah maybe in one class we have six target phrases and you practice it and you have a clear idea of what we study I think you start to remember them

<S00> Mhm so do you think it's useful to focus on language that native speakers use?

<S03> Yes because that is what we want

<S00> This how you want to speak? All of you? Or some of you are happy not speaking like a native speaker?

<S03> I want yeah I want after class if we do some phrase we bring home and we can check is it remember because last time last exam I forgot almost.

<S00> So why do you think they are so difficult to remember?

<S02> Because we didn't use before just for one and we didn't have and maybe to recall them it is easier when you have it written in small paper and you try to use it.

<S00> So would you carry that with you to remind yourself? So you would like to use these phrases but you need more practice and practice in class?

<S03> Yes in class so we repeat.

<S00> Okay, thank you.

13.2 OHE focus group transcript

<S00>Right so we did our class two weeks ago so it's quite a while I understand. Can you recall, can you remember what we did?

[laughter]
<S01>Yeah a little bit I can't remember particular one.

<S00>Okay. We had a listening and then we had to put the conversation together, then we had a text and one version was correct the other one was wrong and you had to listen out for the wrong ones and then there was the memory game where you had to remember where parts of phrases were. Okay so do you have any general comments about the class or the language or anything?

[Prolonged silence]

<S00>Did you think it was useful did you think it was not very useful. Any general ideas general comments about the class and about the language we looked at?

<S02> I think it was a good idea to compare mistaken sentences and correct sentences from listening this conversation. Yes and realising why oral English is important for us.

<S00>Mhm so do you think those phrases are useful?

<S02> <S03> Yes.

<S00>Why are they useful?

<S03> Because maybe we can use them in normal speech not only academic.

<S01>Yes.

<S03>It's not only academic language we can use this everyday life basically.

<S00>Mhm so do you think this kind of language is difficult to use or easy to use?

<S03>I think sooner when we will remember is good to know.

<S00> Mhm.

<S04> Some of the few, some of this phrase I already knew so I have used in general speech so +

<S00>So you use them on a daily basis?

<S04>Yes.

<S00>What about you guys? Do you use them?

<S02>Yeah, some.

<S01>Some of them.

<S03> For me, I already used those phrases. I just use them. I think I don't even realise I use them.

<S02>Yeah.

<S00>That's really good

<S03>Just use them. I think I don't even realise I use them.

<S00>Do you all use those kinds of phrases?

<S01> <S02> Yeah.

<S01>Yeah easy ones like 'let me see' or 'what I mean'.

<S00>Mhm. So do you think that kind of language, phrases rather than single words, are they difficult to learn or easy?

<S02>I think it's easier to remember a phrase +

<S00> Rather than one word, you mean?

<S02> + because we can know how to use this one.

<S03>And practice, it's not a word it's like a full phrase we don't have to think about what other words we combine it with.

<S00>What do you think?

<S01>Yes.

<S04> The same.

<S00>So do you think that kind of language is useful for learners?

<S01> <S02> Yes.

<S04>I think so.

<S00>Can you give me any reasons why?

<S01>Because there's a lot of kind of phrase in the normal conversation so yeah I think it's more important to study this phrase than academic words+

<S00> Mhm maybe it's equal.

<S01> + yeah for conversation

<S02>Yeah.

<S00>So do you like learning conversation language?

<S03>Yes because it's useful and I can say myself that sometimes people say that I sound strange because my vocabulary increased but only in academic way and sometimes just normal people don't understand me and I have to explain because I come up with strange words.

<S04>Sounds more native if learn.

<S00>Mhm.

<S03>Yes, sounds more native than just this way.

<S00>Is that your aim to sound native? Or are you happy to have good English but not really speak like native speakers using phrases like that.

<S02> <S03>Yes.

<S00>Is it important to sound like a native speaker? Do you feel that sounding like a native speaker is important?

<S02>But I think both of them are important because if I study academic things maybe this was also important.

<S00>Yes of course it is. So do you think it's good to learn both?

<S02>Yes, yes.

<00> Some of you said that you already use that kind of language outside of classroom. So you think the class helped you use it more or did you kind of forget it?

<S02>I think it depends on the subject because how to, erm listening is very important in daily life but writing, the skill of writing and reading is important.

[laughter]

<S00>I think they are all quite important. But the question would be do you think since the class have you managed to use those phrases more outside of classroom?

<S01>Yeah teacher said we should use these words but it depends on our effort so we have to remember and try to use it so depends on the person.

<00> Mhm do you think the lesson we had helped you use this language outside of classroom?

<S03> Maybe not. Maybe help to realise that there are those kind of sentences we can use in particular situation.

<00> So do you thinking learning language like that in classroom is useful or would you just hear it on the street and you would learn them because you live in the UK?

<S03> I think it's important as well in the classroom to = erm= see, it's different because even if we hear something on the street or from the people we just hear and we are not sure how to write, how it should be put for example in the, all content when we can use this because some people as well don't always us this in appropriate way, this kind of, so it's important to do a kind of refreshment at class.

<00> What do you guys think?

<S005> I think so because even though I heard this phrase erm in daily life conversation sometimes I think, I sometimes misunderstand like I couldn't catch "the" or the small erm like part erm like.

<S00>Hmh.

<S01>So after I learn this phrase erm I want to listen carefully so I think it's important to do it in the class.

<S00>What about you what do you think?

<S03>Yes, the same.

<S00>So do you think classes like the one we had help you understand those phrases?

<S03>Yeah.

<S03>I think even if we don't remember exact the phrase if somebody say to us something like that we are like I've heard somewhere and it would like= is high probability that we will remember erm and we we will know what this means and we won't misunderstand. Even if we don't remember exact it will be somewhere in our head.

<00> Okay, that's interesting. And do you think you'll be able to use it yourself after you've heard a lot and you remembered that you did something like that in class?

<S03>I think sometimes it happens, that you use it, but it is difficult.

<00>Okay, why is it difficult?

<S03>Maybe you need to be confident and sometimes I don't know if the native speakers understand me.

<00> When you use such phrases?

<S03>Yes, like long phrases.

<S01>We don't know if we can know to say them in the correct way.

<S03>I see, okay. So you don't feel too confident about using them.

<S01>Yes.

<00> Okay. In our class we didn't actually practice the phrases. We didn't do role plays, you didn't have to have a conversation where you had to use the language. Do you think these activities are helpful? Where you don't have to practice.

<02>Personally, the teacher sometimes let us do group conv= group activity, activity and we talking and I think it is personally it is useful for us to practice the conversation and express our opinions.

<00> Mhm what do you think? What do you prefer?

[Prolonged Silence]

<00> Would you prefer to have written a conversation and then practice the conversation together or do you prefer just looking and matching and trying to remember without saying it?

<S05>The first one.

<S03> Former. The first one.

<00>Why is that?

<003> I think erm to make sentence ourselves is erm help our help to memorise. Just read the sentence is also important but I think when I make sentence I think how to use those phrase and the sentence is not erm sentence is strange or not strange I think very useful to think and say.

<S02> Especially if it is this kind of language like the language we got on that class, language you say in speech and not writing. We don't really use that kind of phrase in writing, it's important because even if we know how to write our pronunciation still can be wrong. So even if we know it exactly how to write it we can still say it wrong we can still be misunderstand

<00>So would repetition be more useful?

<S03>Maybe not more useful but useful as well.

<00>What are your onions about practicing and role plays?

<S02> I like it.

<S03> I like it as well.

<S02> Like I say, if we talk if we speaking the time will go faster and we feel more alive. [laughter]

<S03> I think I prefer role playing because I can practice a lot and learn

<S00>Does it help you then use it outside?

<S03>Yes.

<S03>I think if we hear something and say something that helps us remember better but maybe the best way is to combine both.

<S02>Unfortunately I took the test and I couldn't I forgot almost all of things so I think it was not that useful.

<S00>What about you?

<S01>I have played memory game the other classes so I think this kind of memory game it's useful to learn new things but not only games, we need other things like speaking.

<S00>What about you, guys? Did you remember things on the test?

[laughter]

<S04>Maybe if I can read it loud +

<S03> Yeah.

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<S04> + Then it would be easier to remember.

<S03>Reading loud can help to memorise

<S01>Yeah memo= to remember things so actually, when I do this test I tried to remember how to use If I want to say it and then I try to think about it but it doesn't really work.

<00> Any general thoughts? Anything you'd like to add? No? Okay thank you.

14.1 PPP group productive tests results

Table 29 Mean scores achieved in PPP group on productive tests (SPSS output)

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test	1.7000	10	1.35810	.42947
Post-test	7.8500	10	3.53593	1.11816
Delayed test	4.5000	10	3.24893	1.02740

Table 30 Statistical analysis of gain scores in PPP group on productive tests (SPSS output)

	Paired Differences							Sig. (2-tailed)
		Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
	Mean			Lower	Upper	t	df	
Pre-test-Post-test	6.1500	3.1714	1.00291	3.88125	8.41875	6.132	9	**.000**
Pre-test – Delayed test	2.8000	2.7608	.87305	.852502	4.77498	3.207	9	**.011**
Post-test-Delayed	-3.3500	2.8872	.91302	-5.4154	-1.28460	-3.669	9	**.005**

14.2 OHE group productive test results

Table 31 Mean scores achieved in OHE group on productive tests (SPSS output)

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test	4.8000	10	1.7353	.5487
Post-test	9.4500	10	1.9213	.6075
Delayed test	6.1500	10	2.0145	.6370

Table 32 Statistical analysis of gain scores in OHE group on productive tests (SPSS output)

	Paired Differences							Sig. (2-tailed)
			Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	
	Mean	Std. Deviation		Lower	Upper			
Pre-test- Post-test	4.6500	2.4726	.7819	2.88119	6.41881	5.947	9	**.000**
Pre-test- Delayed Test	1.3500	2.6146	.8261	-.52037	3.2203	1.633	9	**.137**
Post- test -Delayed Test	- 3.3000	2.6373	.8340	-5.18664	-1.41336	-3.957	9	**.003**

Table 33 Statistical comparison of gain scores (productive tests) between PPP group and OHE

		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Gain Post-test-Pre-test	Equal variances assumed	5.063	.037	.768	18	**.452**	.40000	.52068	-1.47217	1.49392
	Equal variances not assumed			.768	14.305	**.455**	.40000	.52068	-.71452	1.51452
Gain Delayed-Post-test	Equal variances assumed	.002	.961	-.330	18	**.745**	-.20000	.60553	-1.91256	1.07217
	Equal variances not assumed			-.330	17.869	**.745**	.20000	1.00554	-1.91367	2.31367
Gain Pre-test – Delayed Test	Equal variances assumed	.120	.733	.000	18	**1.000**	.00000	.98432	-2.06798	2.06798
	Equal variances not assumed			.000	15.864	**1.000**	.00000	.98432	-2.08813	2.08813

14.4 PPP group receptive tests results

Table 34 Mean scores achieved in PPP group on receptive tests (SPSS output)

Paired Samples Statistics

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test	7.4000	10	1.71270	.54160
Post-test	10.3000	10	1.63639	.51747
Delayed test	10.2000	10	1.39841	.44222

Table 35 Statistical analysis of gain scores in PPP group on receptive tests (SPSS output)

Paired Samples Test

	Paired Differences							Sig. (2-tailed)
				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	
Pre-test -Post-test	2.90000	.87560	.27689	2.27364	3.52636	10.474	9	**.000**
Pre-test-Delayed Test	2.80000	1.75119	.55377	1.54727	4.05273	5.056	9	**.001**
Post-test-Delayed Test	-.10000	1.4491	.45826	-.93665	-1.13665	-.218	9	**.832**

14.5 OHE group receptive tests results

Table 36 Mean scores achieved in OHE group on receptive tests (SPSS output)

Paired Samples Statistics

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test	8.900	10	1.3703	.4333
Post-test	11.500	10	.8498	.2687
Delayed	11.200	10	.8498	.2687

Table 37 Statistical analysis of gain scores in OHE group on receptive tests (SPSS output)

Paired Samples Test

	Paired Differences							Sig. (2-tailed)
				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	
Pre-test - Post-test	2.6000	1.4298	.4522	-3.6228	-1.5772	-5.750	9	**.000**
Pre-test – Delayed	2.3000	1.7127	.5416	-3.8252	-1.3748	-4.801	9	**.001**
Post-test-Delayed	-.30000	1.2516	.3958	-1.19539	.59539	-.758	9	**.468**

Table 38 Statistical comparison of gain scores (all productive tests) between PPP and OHE group

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
						Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df				Lower	Upper
Gain Post-test-Pre-test	Equal variances assumed	.447	.512	-1.253	18	**.226**	-1.6000	1.27693	-4.28273	1.08273
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.253	17.068	**.227**	-1.6000	1.27693	-4.29328	1.09328
Gain Delayed-Post-test	Equal variances assumed	.029	.866	.000	18	**1.000**	.0000	1.23693	-2.59870	2.59870
	Equal variances not assumed			.000	17.853	**1.000**	.00000	1.23693	-2.60023	2.60023
Gain Pre-test – Delayed Test	Equal variances assumed	.129	.724	-1.206	18	**.243**	-1.45000	1.20243	-3.97621	1.07621
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.206	17.947	**.244**	-1.4500	1.20243	-3.97674	1.07674