Spoken discourse markers and English language teaching: practices and

pedagogies

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Thesis submitted to the University of Nottingham for

the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

August 2011

Abstract

This thesis reports on a mixed methods classroom research study carried out at a British university. The study investigates the effectiveness of two different explicit teaching frameworks, Illustration –Interaction – Induction (III) and Present – Practice – Produce (PPP) used to teach the same spoken discourse markers (DMs) to two different groups of Chinese learners at the same level of language competency. It was hypothesised that one explicit teaching framework would be more effective than the other in terms of short and longer term acquisition and both would be more effective than no teaching when viewed objectively with test data and subjectively by the learners themselves.

Thirty six Chinese learners (fourteen male, twenty two female) at the same broad level of language proficiency were assigned to three groups, experimental group 1 (III), experimental group 2 (PPP) and group 3 (control). The average age of the learners was twenty two and all were taking a three week pre-sessional course in academic English. Each experimental group received ten hours of explicit instruction on the target language. The control group received no instruction on the target language. The III group were taught using activities which presented the language in context and encouraged them to notice features of the target language by sensitising them to differences between spoken and written modes of language and by comparing the target language with their first language. This group were not given any practice of the target language in class. The PPP group were taught using activities which presented the language in context, checked meaning and form and provided them with opportunities to practise it in class.

The hypothesis was tested through the use of a free response speaking test used as a pre-test, an immediate post-test and a delayed post-test of eight weeks. The tests were analysed for the amount of target DMs used and learners were rated for interactive ability, discourse management and global achievement. In addition, diaries kept by each learner in the experimental group and focus group interviews were analysed to assess the extent to which this qualitative data supported or added to the quantitative data.

Raw counts of the target DMs and interactive ability, discourse management and global test scores indicated that both experimental groups outperformed the control group in the

immediate post-test in terms of the target DMs used but that this was weaker in the delayed test. Raw interactive ability, discourse management and global scores weakened in the immediate post-test but improved in the delayed test, suggesting that the increase in use of target DMs did not have an impact upon these scores. Univariate analysis of the pre- and post-tests, using one-way ANOVAs, indicated statistically significant differences between the experimental PPP group and the control group in terms of a higher mean usage of the target DMs in the immediate post-test, whilst the III group's score did not indicate a statistically significant difference when compared to the PPP and control groups. The analysis of the interactive ability, discourse management and global scores did not demonstrate statistically significant differences between the groups.

The qualitative results were analysed with Computer Assisted Qualitative Data AnalysiS (CAQDAS) software and supported some of the findings from the test results. This data demonstrated that both groups felt that instruction on the target language was of value to them and the PPP group found their method to be generally more useful, which tallied with their better performances on the tests. The III group showed more evidence of having noticed aspects of language, such as the difference between the target language and their first language and how these spoken forms differ from written ones, although both groups displayed some metalinguistic awareness. Both groups were generally in favour of practice within the classroom but also expressed some strong doubts about its usefulness and articulated a desire for a different kind of practice to be used in class, based on rehearsal for real world tasks. This suggested the need to re-conceptualise practice within III, PPP or other teaching frameworks.

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List of abbreviations

CAQDAS = Computer Assisted Qualitative Data AnalysiS.

CEFR = Common European Framework of References for Languages.

CLT = Communicative Language Teaching.

DMs = Discourse Markers. Unless otherwise mentioned, this term is taken to mean spoken discourse markers.

EAP = English for Academic Purposes. This term is used to refer to adult learners in the UK, whose first language is not English and who are studying English for the purpose of supporting their studies at a higher education institution, either prior to studying or while they are studying.

EFL = English as a Foreign Language. This term is used here to refer to adult learners who are studying English as a second language in their own country and not in an English speaking one.

ELT = English Language Teaching. This term is used here in a general sense to refer to the subject which teachers of English as a second or foreign language are trained to teach and to the profession as a whole.

ESL = English as a Second Language. This term is used to refer to adult learners who are studying English (for any purpose) in an English speaking country. In the case of this study, that country is the UK.

III = Illustration – Interaction – Induction.

PPP = Present – Practice – Produce.

LA = Language Awareness.

L1 = A person's first language.

L2 = A second language which a person is attempting to learn. In the case of the learners in this study, the L2 is English.

1   Introduction to the thesis

1.0   Chapter introduction

It is fairly obvious even to non-linguists that speech is different to writing. The question that interests linguists is exactly how speech is different, in terms of its grammar, lexis, phonology and so on. In recent years, research within corpus linguistics has demonstrated that speech has a grammar that is often distinct from writing. Research by McCarthy and Carter (1995, 2001), Carter and McCarthy (1995, 1997, 2006) and Carter (1998) into spoken corpora has highlighted specific features of this grammar, particularly in regard to speech of a spontaneous nature. Research of this nature has now started to shape descriptive grammars (for example, Biber *et al.* 1999, Carter and McCarthy 2006), self-study materials (for example, Carter *et al.* 2000) and ELT textbooks (for example, Gairns and Redman 2002, McCarthy, McCarten and Sandiford 2006). At the same time, there has been some debate about how spoken grammar should be approached in the classroom. This discussion has included what features can be taught, how they might be taught and indeed if they should be taught at all. This chapter gives an overview of this thesis, including a brief summary of the background to the research and details of the research questions.

1.1.1   Research objectives

The research described in this thesis has been formulated because, quite simply, I agree with Timmis (2005:117), who suggests that 'there is at least a *prima facie* case' for including some focus on spoken grammar in the ELT classroom, a case Guest (1998) also makes. There has been some debate about whether we need to teach features of spoken grammar which exist in native speaker speech (for example, Cook 1998, Seidlhofer 2001, Kirkpatrick 2007, Prodromou, 2003, 2008) because many of these features may not be needed by learners who use English in lingua franca contexts. The argument is straightforward: while spoken corpora have provided teachers and applied linguists with a great deal of data about native speaker usage and forms of spoken grammar, this does not mean we should automatically assume that it is necessary or useful to teach such 'real' English to our learners. The case against teaching these forms is sometimes a practical one (learners simply do not need to use all features of spoken grammar to be able to communicate effectively) and also one which is linked to the relationship between language, culture and identity. Prodromou (1998:88), for example, offers

a coherent argument against teaching aspects of spoken grammar associated with British English:

> My feeling as a bilingual/bicultural speaker of English is that informal British English is a variety of English intimately tied up with the culture of the interlocutors, either on a local personal level or on a more general cultural level. In other words, you cannot speak like the British in an informal context if you do not share their interpersonal cultural assumptions and experiences – in short if you do not assume at least some of the defining features of a British identity.

Prodromou's view is both reasonable and logical. It would be difficult to suggest that every feature of spoken grammar should be taught for productive use. Clearly, many ELT teachers would not see the benefit in teaching features such as hesitation ('err', 'umm') or highly idiomatic colloquial expressions. Both are highly frequent in much informal, native speaker talk and while we may want ESL learners to become aware of them, it does not seem productive to spend classroom time trying to make learners produce them.

However, the position we are taking in this thesis seeks to argue the case for a focus on some features of spoken grammar. There are for two clear reasons for this. Firstly, as Timmis (2002:248) has shown, many learners he surveyed (in EFL and ESL contexts) demonstrated that 'there is still some desire among students to conform to native speaker norms', even if these learners use English as a lingua franca. This suggests that it is restrictive and indeed against the wishes of many learners to teach English only in a simplified, lingua franca form. Secondly, we can say that the '*prima facie* case*' we are arguing for here is being applied to learners in an ESL (not EFL) context and we are suggesting that the features (spoken DMs) which we will highlight are worth acquiring for productive use in this context. They are not highly idiomatic and do not seem to be a mark of cultural identity in the way that slang or colloquial language can be and they are useful for a number of reasons. As we have argued elsewhere (Jones 2010), in this study, it is hypothesised that they are worthy of attention in the classroom, for (at least) the following reasons: they are highly frequent, they are multi-functional, they are useful and they lack salience.

Data from spoken corpora indicate that DMs are very frequent in (at least) native speaker speech. 'You know' and 'I mean', for example, are the first and second most frequent two-word chunks in the CANCODE spoken corpus of British English (O'Keeffe *et al* 2007:65). The frequency of DMs results in them having a number of useful functions in speech, such as showing listenership. Without the use of the DMs in bold in the dialogue below, for example, speaker two is likely to be unsure whether the directions are being followed and to know that it is fine to continue:

S1: Tell me the best way to get to your showroom.

S2: If you come up the M6 to junction forty-four

S1: **Yeah**.

S2: Come off at junction forty-four which is the main road connecting Carlisle and we are about half a mile down that road on the left hand side

S1: **Right**.

(O'Keeffe *et al.* 2007:141)

Learners who miss such basic functions of DMs may, inadvertently, make spoken exchanges much harder for the speaker and this could easily lead to breakdowns in communication. As a result of their high frequency, it may also be the case that DMs do not always 'stand out' and can seem banal or even irrelevant to learners, a point Lewis (1993, 1997) makes when discussing the most frequent 'chunks' in English. DMs may also be ignored by learners because, as we will see, they do not have a propositional meaning but a procedural one and learners may thus feel they are not important to learn.

Due to this lack of salience, it seems that many learners do not acquire DMs through simple exposure to English (Jones 2010). This can make it difficult for learners to perform basic functions, even when at an intermediate level. We could imagine, for example, that a student at this level could answer 'yes' or 'no' when asked a question such as 'Do you like English food?' but it is worth considering how many learners at this level would use 'well' to mark the fact they do not wish to say 'yes' or 'no' in an answer such as 'Well, it's OK'.

The question then turns to how we can best teach these features for productive use. Giving learners output practice within CLT has 'become part of the mythology of language teaching' (Ellis 2002:168). It is often taken for granted that part of the job of a teacher is to follow a PPP framework and to present learners with language, to check form, meaning and use and then give them some controlled and less controlled practice using it, in the belief that this will help them to internalise the language and become able to use it productively. Although often unstated in descriptions of methodology, this belief seems to be founded on the idea that learning a language is akin to developing a skill and the three common phases of PPP have been related to Anderson's (1982) skill building model:

1. A cognitive phase, when a learner makes a conscious effort to learn the meaning and form of language (Present).

2. An associative phase, when a learner will try to transfer declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge (Practice).

3. An autonomous phase, when a learner will be able to use the language spontaneously (Produce).

This has of course a certain ring of common sense to it but, as Ellis (2002) notes, it has become something of an unchallenged orthodoxy in CLT. There is, of course, some research evidence to suggest that it does help learners to freely produce language they have practised (for example, DeKeyser 2007a) but also evidence that it does not help (for example, Ellis 2002). This suggests that the orthodox view, that practicing language in class does help learners to acquire it, is at least worthy of investigation. Could it be possible, that 'noticing' (Schmidt 1990) these features of spoken grammar alone may help learners to eventually acquire them for their own productive use? Is there a case to be made for the use of an III framework based on a different three phase model of acquisition, using the following three stages, which Ellis (2002:171) suggests?

1. A noticing phase, when a learner 'becomes conscious of a feature in the input, whereas previously she had ignored it' (Illustration).

2. A comparing phase, when a learner 'compares the linguistic feature in the input with her own interlanguage, registering to what extent there is a 'gap' between the input and her interlanguage' (Interaction).

3. An integrating phase, when a learner 'integrates a representation of the feature into her mental grammar' (Induction).

If this model does work, it suggests that output practice in the English language class may not always be a productive or necessary use of classroom time, particularly when learners are in an ESL context and therefore being constantly exposed to spoken English and using it in their daily lives. Classroom time is always limited and it is worth asking whether that time is more productively spent, in this context, giving learners practice or simply helping them to notice features of language.

This study is therefore, in part, an investigation into CLT methodology. Approaches and methods in English language teaching come and go but one constant remains: little in the way of empirical research is offered to support the benefits of one approach and the drawbacks of another. A comprehensive description of a number of popular methods and approaches (Richards and Rogers 2001), many of which are broadly communicative, demonstrates this clearly: the research evidence offering support for each approach or method is often limited. This is not a criticism of the authors. As we shall see, there have been a number of studies comparing different methods (for example, Scherer and Wertheimer 1964) but the results have often been inconclusive. Large scale methods comparison studies are also difficult and time consuming to undertake and this has tended to result in new teaching approaches and methods which are produced with a theoretical underpinning but little empirical research evidence to support their purported benefits. A further result is that the rush to embrace new methodologies means that old ones are denounced without anybody taking the trouble to investigate whether, in fact, the new types of instruction help learners to actually acquire more language, or indeed how the learners themselves view them.

Spoken grammar and teaching DMs offers a chance to investigate this problem so this study is also an investigation into the impact of different teaching methodologies on the acquisition of DMs. We have a 'new' area of language, something which has not traditionally featured in

syllabuses or ELT textbooks (Cullen and Kuo 2007) and we now can begin to ask questions about how we might best teach it. Up until now, DMs have been largely researched from a descriptive viewpoint, telling us what they are or mean, (for example, Aijmer 2002), or in terms of how learners use them in comparison with native speakers (for example, Fung and Carter 2007) or how their presence or absence impacts upon comprehension of speech (for example, Flowerdew and Tauroza 1995). Within a classroom context, they have been largely under researched, particularly in terms of which methodologies will best help learners to acquire them. One could, of course, suggest that the types of instruction likely to work when teaching DMs are those which work for any other type of language but there are four arguments against this:

1. As we have noted, comparisons of the effectiveness of different methods, approaches and frameworks within a broad interpretation of CLT have been investigated but the results have produced only limited evidence regarding which teaching approach causes the most learning.

2. As we have mentioned, DMs are highly frequent in spoken language and realise a number of useful language functions. Therefore, it is worth considering which way of teaching will best help learners to acquire and thus produce DMs; 'traditional' output practice or simply helping learners to notice them.

3. Learners at the broad CEFR level of B2 should be able to (in part) 'interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either part' (Council of Europe 2001:24). As we have argued above, this is likely to be much more difficult without the use of at least some DMs so it is particularly worth investigating which type of instruction help learners at this level to acquire them

4. There is some debate regarding the merits of implicit and explicit types of instruction. As we will discuss, we have accepted that explicit teaching has more impact upon acquisition. Therefore, there would seem to be value in attempting to discover the impact of different types of explicit instruction upon the acquisition of DMs.

For these reasons, the study seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. To what extent does explicit teaching aid the acquisition of spoken discourse markers by intermediate (CEFR B2) level Chinese EAP learners studying in the UK?

> Does it improve discourse management, interactive ability and global scores in a free response speaking test?
>
> Does it increase the number of target DMs they are able to produce in a free response speaking test?
>
> Is the increase significant when comparing the experimental groups with each other and with a control group?

2. Which explicit framework aids acquisition of the target DMs more – a PPP framework which practices the target DMs or an III framework which helps students to notice the target DMs but does not practise them in class?

> Do both frameworks help equally or does one help more than the other?
>
> Do both help more than no explicit input?

3. To what extent do B2 level Chinese EAP learners themselves believe one classroom approach to learning DMs (PPP/III) is more helpful than the other?

> Do the learners believe that studying DMs is worthwhile?

1.1.2 Research methodology outline

Although we will detail the research methodology in detail in chapter four, it is also useful to outline the proposed methodology at this stage in order to make clear the kind of research being proposed.

The above questions might best be answered by classroom research. Three groups of students studying at intermediate level (CEFR B2) will be chosen. This level represents, for many learners, a 'plateau' and would seem to be a useful stage at which to measure whether further progress may be made in developing spoken discourse management, interactive ability and overall spoken level through the explicit teaching of spoken discourse markers. It is also a useful stage at which to measure the impact of different explicit methodologies on the acquisition of the target DMs chosen.

In addition, learners at this level will have developed their interlanguage to the extent that they may be better able to give a subjective view of a methodology with which they are taught than learners at a lower level.

One group will be taught spoken discourse markers through the use of a PPP framework (Byrne 1986, Scrivener 1994), which is based on the skill building theory of acquisition as explained in 1.1.1 above. This will allow for the language items to be contextualised, analysed and practised in the classroom. One group will be taught spoken discourse markers through an III framework (McCarthy and Carter 1995) which will involve the kind of noticing activities as suggested by Timmis (2005) and is based on the Ellis (2002) model of acquisition explained in 1.1.1 above. This will allow for the language items to be contextualised, analysed and discussed but not practised in the classroom. A control group of students will not be given any specific focus on DMs but will be used to measure the extent to which they might acquire the target DMs by exposure to input in the ESL environment, and to demonstrate that each teaching framework (we presume) has more impact than exposure alone.

Students' speech will be assessed according to the criteria used for the speaking section from an established English language test. Prior to the classes, immediately following the classes and after an eight week period, the three groups will be assessed again to measure any improvement in the discourse management, interactive ability and global scores of the test marking criteria for speaking and for how many of the target DMs have been used by each group of students. The aim of such testing will be to provide quantitative feedback on any progress students may have made. It will also allow for a comparison of the results from the different groups and a means to measure which teaching approach seems to enable students to make the most improvement in each area.

Qualitative feedback will also be provided through student interviews and diaries from each group. This will allow learners to subjectively assess their own progress and to comment on the different teaching frameworks used in their classes. Both types of data will then be analysed in order to draw conclusions about whether the explicit teaching of these DMs does contribute to the acquisition of the target DMs and which type of instruction is more effective.

1.1.3 Chapter summary

The purpose of this chapter has been to outline the proposed research and has attempted to set the research in context, detail the research questions, outline the proposed methodology and to demonstrate the specific contribution this research will attempt to make. It is hoped that this study will provide a link between corpus-based research into spoken grammar and the teaching and learning of it. Specifically, it is hoped that it will give clear guidance for teachers when assessing the differing pedagogical options for teaching DMs by showing how different teaching frameworks affect their acquisition when measured objectively and subjectively. The thesis begins with a literature review (chapter two), before describing and reporting on a pilot study (chapter three). We then move on to describing and justifying our research methodology (chapter four), and reporting and analysing the results of the main study (chapters five and six). Chapter five discusses the quantitative data and chapter six the qualitative data. Chapter seven reviews the results and their implications and the final chapter discusses the limitations of the research and makes suggestions for future adaptations. The bibliography and appendices follow chapter eight. The appendices are also available on the enclosed CD. The contents are identical but the CD version contains hyperlinks to allow readers to search the documents more quickly and easily.

2   Literature review

2.0   Chapter introduction

This literature review begins with a brief overview of some key terms before giving an overview of spoken grammar and the significance of DMs. It then examines definitions of DMs before reviewing research into second language acquisition, particularly in regard to the Noticing Hypothesis and the Output Hypothesis. Finally, it considers how this research has influenced classroom pedagogy within ELT generally and in relation to the teaching and learning of spoken grammar and spoken DMs in particular.

2.1   Key terms and definitions

To begin the literature review, it will help us if we give simple definitions of some key terms. These definitions are not exhaustive and will be developed in subsequent sections but help to give a starting point and demonstrate the definition which we will be adopting throughout the thesis. The terms we are defining here are implicit learning and teaching, explicit learning and teaching, the interface and non-interface position, inductive and deductive teaching, practice, noticing, method, approach and framework.

1. Implicit learning and teaching /explicit learning and teaching

In this thesis we are taking implicit learning to be 'learning without awareness of what has been learned' whilst explicit learning means 'the learner is aware of what has been learned' (Richards and Schmidt 2002:250) and (we would add) can state (verbally or in writing) what they have learnt. In language teaching, explicit learning is often associated with knowledge of rules and implicit learning with an absence of this knowledge (for example, Green and Hecht 1992) but we are not suggesting that in every instance explicit learning implies knowledge of rules.

In a similar way, implicit teaching is taken here to mean teaching whereby a learner is not made aware of what is being taught. This is in contrast to explicit teaching, whereby the learner is made aware of what is being taught. In the English language classroom, implicit teaching might include, for example, a task where students undertake a communicative activity without any focus on specific language items, in the hope that learners will learn 'implicitly' from the interaction itself. Explicit teaching might include, for example, learners being asked to produce

samples of the target language in focus and being provided with, or discovering, rules about this language.

2. The interface and non-interface position

The 'non-interface is normally contrasted with the interface position' (Johnson and Johnson 1999:174). The former is normally associated with Krashen (1981, 1985) and his Monitor Theory/Input Hypothesis. In his terms, language acquisition is an unconscious process, and conscious learning can only help to monitor what has been learnt. We are suggesting then that this term means there is no interface between conscious knowledge of language (knowledge about language) and unconscious acquisition (knowledge of how to use language).

Conscious knowledge about language is itself often termed 'declarative knowledge', and unconscious knowledge of how to use language is often termed 'procedural knowledge' (Hulstijn and de Graaff 1994: 200). If a learner has declarative knowledge they may be able to, for example, name a verb tense and say why it is being used. If a learner has procedural knowledge they will be able to use that verb tense in their own speech or writing, both appropriately and in the correct form. Declarative knowledge is used interchangeably with explicit knowledge and procedural knowledge is used interchangeably with implicit knowledge.

The interface position is associated with those who have argued that there is an interface between conscious awareness of language and its acquisition (for example, Sharwood Smith 1981, Schmidt 1990). In Schmidt's view, conscious awareness of form(s), in other words, noticing them within input, is an essential process and without it acquisition cannot take place.

3. Inductive and deductive teaching

In this thesis, we are taking inductive teaching to mean a form of language teaching (often associated with grammar teaching), whereby learners are guided to 'discover or induce rules from their experience of using the language' (Richards and Schmidt 2002:146) and from being exposed to and analysing samples of language used in context. An example of this might be asking learners to listen to a dialogue with samples of target language contained in it. Learners might then be asked to identify the target forms used and formulate rules about meaning and

usage from context. This is in contrast to deductive teaching (again, often associated with grammar teaching), whereby learners are first 'taught rules and given specific information about a language' (Richards and Schmidt 2002: 146) which they then apply by using it to generate further examples of the target language.

4. Noticing

We are taking this term to mean input that is 'consciously registered' by a learner (Richards and Schmidt 2002) and will be available for verbal (or written) report (Alanen 1995:261). We will expand on this definition in subsequent sections of this literature review.

5. Practice

We are going to define practice as 'specific activities in the second language engaged in systematically, deliberately, developing knowledge and skills in the second language' (DeKeyser 2007a:8). As we are investigating two specific explicit teaching frameworks, we also need to add that our definition of practice means that it aims to develop declarative and procedural knowledge with a specific area of language, namely spoken DMs. Therefore, our definition should be (italics mine): 'specific activities in the second language engaged in systematically, deliberately, developing *explicit* knowledge and *skills* in the target language' (adapted from DeKeyser 2007a:8).

6. Method, approach and framework

A method can be defined as 'a system for the teaching of a language that is based either on a theory of language or a particular theory of learning or (usually) both' (Thornbury 2006:131). These theories will guide syllabus design, choice of materials and specific classroom activities and may in fact specify how these aspects of teaching should be organised. (Thornbury 2006:131). Audiolingualism can be termed a method because it generally specified a sequenced structural syllabus and a methodology which included drilling, repetition of dialogues and intensive teacher correction. It was based on the theory that language learning is a type of behaviour and mistakes lead to incorrect language behaviour (see Richards and Rodgers, 2001, for a fuller description). Methodology is used in this thesis as 'a general word

to describe classroom practices' (Thornbury 2006:131) and is often used interchangeably with 'type of instruction'.

An approach is similar to a method but 'denotes a more general theoretical orientation' (Thornbury 2006:131). It may be based on a particular theory of learning or language and may suggest how this should impact upon syllabus design but it will not normally specify exactly how this should be realised in the classroom. CLT is therefore an approach. The theory of language is based on the notion that all language is used to perform communicative functions and the theory of learning is that people learn best when using language communicatively (see Richards and Rodgers, 2001, for a fuller discussion). CLT may be realised in the classroom in a variety of ways and it is acknowledged that there are both 'strong' and 'weak' versions of it (Howatt 2004). A 'strong' version is one in which there is no explicit focus on form but a series of communicative activities, a 'weak' version is one in which there is an explicit focus on form, which is practised through communicative activities. It is this 'weak' version we shall be concerned with in this thesis, not least because this is now generally considered the standard form of CLT in many teaching contexts (Thornbury 2006:37).

A framework is used in this thesis to describe the 'shape' and organisation of a class. Therefore PPP and III are both frameworks, used within the broad approach of CLT. This definition does not imply that frameworks are neutral and have no theoretical underpinning. Different frameworks are used because of differences in the beliefs about learning, as we shall discuss.

Having given these basic definitions, we can now begin to outline the rest of the literature review, acknowledging, as we have, that we will return to the terms we have defined.

2.1.1   Spoken grammar, corpus data and spoken discourse markers

Recent research in corpus linguistics (for example, Brazil 1995, Biber *et al.* 1999, Carter and McCarthy 2006) has done much to highlight ways in which spoken discourse employs grammatical forms which often differ from those used in written discourse. While it is difficult to argue that grammatical forms in speech are entirely distinct from those employed in writing, corpus data has provided a clearer picture of how spoken grammar and written grammar differ in at least some respects. The research findings of McCarthy and Carter (1995), Carter and

McCarthy (1997, 2006), Biber *et al.* (1999) and Leech (2000) for instance, suggest that some key elements of spoken grammar are as follows:

1. Ellipsis: '_____ you going out?'

2. Discourse markers: 'You know' 'I mean', 'Like', 'Mind you', 'So', 'Right', 'OK'.

3. Vague language: 'Sort of', 'That kind of thing'.

4. Backchannel: 'Mmm', 'Yeah'.

5. Response tokens: 'That's right', 'I see'.

6. Hesitation: 'Err', 'Umm'.

7. Heads: 'My brother, he lives in London'.

8. Tails: 'He lives in London, my brother'.

9. Lexical chunks: 'You know what I mean'.

We might reasonably argue, as Leech (2000) does, that there is some crossover between speech and writing and that some of the forms may exist in writing, particularly forms of written discourse which adopt a similar tenor and mode (Halliday 1971, Halliday and Hassan 1976) to that of speech, such as text-based online chat. However, it does not seem unreasonable to accept what the corpus data tells us: the forms above are used predominantly, if not entirely, in spoken contexts and as such are a central part of the grammar of speech.

Such an acceptance has led to a number of studies of various aspects of spoken grammar. Channell (1994), for instance, has investigated the role of vague language and there has been significant interest in the role of spoken grammar within the teaching of English for Academic

Purposes (for example, Chaudron and Richards 1986, Clenell 1999, Cutting 2000, Eslami and Eslami-Rasekh 2007). Of most significance to us, however, are the number of in-depth studies of DMs themselves (for example, Schiffrin 1987, Fraser 1996, Jucker and Ziv1998a, Fraser 1999, Aijmer 2002) and their usage in both native and non-native speaker English speech (for example, Muller 2004, Fung and Carter 2007, Hellermann and Vergun 2007). The amount of studies reflects the importance of DMs in spoken interaction, particularly in terms of their frequency of use. As Fung and Carter (2007:410) note: 'they are represented amongst the top ten word forms', a claim supported by research into the most frequent multi-word chunks in the CANCODE spoken corpus of British English (O'Keeffe *et al.* 2007). This analysis shows that the spoken DMs 'you know' and 'I mean' are the two most frequently occurring two-word chunks in that corpus. Aijmer (2002:2) also supports this when she states 'the frequency of discourse particles sets them apart from other words in the language'. Whilst frequency alone is not the only measure for choosing language features to analyse or indeed teach (Cook 1998), it is one measure by which we can assume DMs have a 'fundamental role in spoken interaction' (Fung and Carter 2007:410).

2.1.2 Discourse markers: terms and definitions

If we accept the corpus evidence, it seems clear that discourse markers are extremely frequent in, at least, native speaker speech. This would seem to indicate that providing a clear definition of a DM will not be problematic. Unfortunately, this is not the case. Defining a DM is a difficult task, something Jucker and Ziv (1998b:1) acknowledge when they suggest that 'there is no generally agreed upon definition of the term 'discourse marker''. Instead, the literature reveals both a multiplicity of definitions and terms. Amongst these are 'sentence connective' (Halliday and Hassan 1976), 'discourse marker' (Schiffrin 1987, Jucker and Ziv 1998a), 'discourse operator' (Redeker 1991), 'pragmatic marker' (Fraser 1996), and 'discourse particle' (Aijmer 2002). The variety of terms reflects 'distinct theoretical perspectives' (Jucker and Ziv 1998b:2) within each piece of research and is perhaps also a result of the difficulty researchers have had in providing a definition for a part of speech which can have multiple functions and also operate as part of several word classes, sometimes as a DM and sometimes not. We need therefore to acknowledge that researchers use different terms and a DM is something of a 'fuzzy concept' (Jucker and Ziv 1998b:2). Having acknowledged this, the term

'discourse marker' has been chosen for the purposes of this study as it seems to be the term most widely understood and used. Employing the term 'discourse marker', it is now possible to examine different definitions of DMs. It is again useful to acknowledge that there are a multitude of viewpoints here and that differences arise due to variations in theoretical perspectives.

2.1.3   Discourse markers as a feature of textual coherence

Schiffrin (1987:31) suggests that DMs are 'sequentially dependent elements which bracket units of talk' and which help to make discourse coherent. She suggests that a DM connects directly to the 'unit of talk' prior to it and following it. These units help to determine the choice of DM and the meaning speakers intend and listeners infer. Her analysis, based on native speaker corpus data, suggests that one function of DMs is that they act as 'contextual coordinates' (Fung and Carter 2007:411) of talk, which is defined on five different 'planes': information state, participation framework, ideational structure, action structure and exchange structure (Schiffrin 1987:35—40). This is a helpful analysis and a useful starting point. Through an in-depth analysis of a limited number of DMs, Schiffrin is able to clearly establish some different pragmatic functions of DMs in talk and that a core function of DMs is to aid discourse coherence.

However, there are also several weaknesses in Schiffrin's analysis. Firstly, suggesting DMs only operate at what we might term a structural level, to organise talk, ignores the fact that DMs can also have interpersonal functions. Carter and McCarthy (2006), for example, suggest that 'I think' can act as a DM to hedge opinions or ideas, so that a speaker can make themselves sound less direct and thus, interpersonally, reduce the feeling they are trying to impose these ideas upon listeners. It can also be suggested that interpersonal and structural functions may overlap (Fung and Carter 2007). We could argue, for instance, that a DM such as the response token 'right' operates interpersonally to acknowledge speakers and motivate them to continue, whilst also aiding coherence by showing that the listener has understood and that it is acceptable to continue. Secondly, there are instances in Schiffrin's analysis where we might question whether some items being examined are actually DMs. One example of this is the phrase 'I mean it', which we could argue has a propositional meaning and not merely a structural one, something Redeker (1991) also suggests. Thirdly, if we accept that response

tokens such as 'right' are DMs, then it is hard to argue that they 'bracket units of talk' in every instance. A response token would clearly overlap a turn within a unit of talk. Lastly, Redeker (1991) and Aijmer (2002) both suggest that Schiffrin's notion of 'planes of talk' requires greater clarity. Redeker, for instance, suggests that the planes of talk should be reduced in number from five to three, namely 'ideational structure, rhetorical structure and sequential structure' (Redeker 1991:1167). She also offers a definition of a DM (in her terms a 'discourse operator') which develops the work of Schiffrin:

> A discourse operator is a word or phrase – for instance, a conjunction, adverbial, comment clause, interjection – that is uttered with the primary function of bringing the listener's attention to a particular kind of linkage of the upcoming utterance with the immediate discourse context. An utterance in this definition is an intonationally and structurally bounded, usually clausal unit (Redeker 1991:1168).

This definition seems less bound to the notion that DMs are 'sequentially dependent' (Schiffrin 1987:31) and bracket units of talk, whilst maintaining that a core function of DMs is to maintain discourse coherence and help listeners to co-ordinate their way through spoken texts. It does not, however, give a full enough account of the interpersonal function of DMs. In addition, Redeker's revised definition of three planes of talk still lacks some clarity.

Fraser (1999:950) offers an analysis which further develops the work of both Redeker and Schiffrin, with some difference in emphasis. He suggests that DMs relate the 'discourse segment' they are part of to a previous segment. Whilst this has clear links to Schiffrin's theory of DMs as part of discourse coherence, Fraser differs in terms of what he accepts as being a DM. He suggests, for instance, that adverbials such as 'frankly' are not DMs because they are 'commentary markers' and 'do not signal a two place relationship between the adjacent discourse segments' (Fraser 1999:942). Rather, he believes such markers signal a distinct new message and do not provide a link between two discourse segments. He also suggests that 'pause markers' such as 'well' and 'um' and interjections such as 'wow!' are not DMs for the same reason. In essence then, for Fraser, the key element of a DM is that it has a procedural meaning: it relates two adjacent discourse segments and does not introduce a separate message. As with Schiffrin's analysis, Fraser's argument is well-reasoned and can be accepted at least in

terms of the notion that DMs are an essential element of discourse coherence. There are, however, several weaknesses in this analysis. Firstly, if we are to accept that DMs are only those words or phrases that segment talk, this implies that response tokens such as 'right' are not DMs, when it can be argued that they add to discourse coherence. One only has to imagine a conversation in which they were absent to support this. Secondly, Fraser, in a similar manner to Schiffrin and Redeker, seems to undervalue the interpersonal uses of DMs by suggesting that adverbials such as 'frankly', used to 'colour' the speaker's intended message, are not DMs. Secondly, Fraser's analysis is weakened by the fact that many of the examples seem to be invented. As a result, some seem a touch implausible in most spoken contexts. For example, 'Will you go? Furthermore, will you represent the class there?' (Fraser 1999:931). The analysis would benefit from a demonstration of which DMs are used primarily in speech and which are used primarily in writing and which may be used in both. Finally, he suggests that 'well' is used simply to mark a pause in speech (Fraser 1999:942) and as such is not a DM. He does not, however, discuss the status of 'well' when it clearly has other functions such as a dispreferred response, as in the following example: 'Do you live near here?' 'Well, near here'. It can certainly be argued that 'well' is relating the two discourse segments here.

2.1.4   Functional definitions of discourse markers

More recently, Aijmer (2002) has produced a corpus-based analysis of a number of DMs (defined here as 'discourse particles'). Her work finds agreement with some of the previously discussed research. She agrees with Fraser (1999), for instance, in suggesting that DMs do not have propositional meanings: 'if a particle expresses anything at all, it must be a procedural meaning'. (Aijmer 2002:16). She also accepts that we cannot limit DMs to one part of speech. Rather, she suggests that a DM can be assigned a core meaning when it operates as a DM, just as we might when it operates as part of another word class. Aijmer (2002:13) acknowledges the work of Schiffrin by suggesting that 'the general idea that discourse particles should be described and explained on different planes (levels of discourse) is appealing.' However, she also acknowledges the criticisms of Redeker (1991), namely that Schiffrin's 'planes of talk' are not explained with enough clarity to make them a robust model for the analysis of DMs.

Aijmer instead proposes that DMs can be analysed on two 'macro levels' (Aijmer 2002:13): 'textual' and 'interpersonal'. This suggests that we need to analyse DMs according to how they

create 'global coherence' (Lenk 1998:245) at a macro level, rather than a 'local coherence level' (Lenk 1998:256); in essence, how their meaning is developed at a textual rather than a sentence level. Aijmer's definition is helpful because it acknowledges the interpersonal functions of DMs and because it offers a greater clarity than either Schiffrin's (1987) or Redeker's (1991) notions of 'planes of talk'. Aijmer's definition has been developed further by Fung and Carter (2007), who have analysed data from a spoken corpus to suggest four macro levels: structural, referential, interpersonal and cognitive, each subdivided to show what we might term 'micro functions'. The following excerpt from Fung and Carter (2007:418) provides an illustration of their analysis:

Interpersonal	Referential	Structural	Cognitive
Marking shared knowledge: *See, you see, you know, listen*	Contrast: *But, and, yet, however, nevertheless*	Opening and closing of topics: *Now, OK/okay, right/alright, well, let's start, let's discuss, let me conclude the discussion*	Denoting thinking process: *Well, I think, I see*

The work of Aijmer and Fung and Carter is perhaps the clearest yet in offering a useful model of analysis because it acknowledges both the textual and interpersonal uses of DMs. As such, they acknowledge that DMs aid coherence in speech but also serve (sometimes simultaneously), interpersonal functions such as showing interest.

2.1.5   A working definition of discourse markers

Although the functional definitions of Aijmer (2002) and Fung and Carter (2007) take us closer to a definition of a DM, it would be premature to claim that it is definitive. As Aijmer states: 'we are only just beginning to define what we mean by discourse particles' (Aijmer 2002:55). For this reason, and for the purposes of this study, it is perhaps most useful to suggest that in order for a lexical item or phrase to be a DM, there are a number of characteristics it will display, and the more characteristics it seems to display, the more 'prototypical' (Jucker and Ziv 1998b:2) it is as a DM. These characteristics may be summarised as follows:

1. DMs are lexical items or phrases (Redeker 1991, Carter and McCarthy 2006), such as 'right', 'I mean', 'you know', 'I think'.

2. DMs are optional – the absence of a DM does not affect the semantics or grammar of an utterance. However, the absence will make comprehension at least more difficult (Aijmer 2002, Eslami and Eslami-Rasekh 2007).

3. DMs are multifunctional – the same DM can have a variety of functions, each dependent on context. Fung and Carter (2007) give the example of 'so', which can, for instance, both summarise and launch a topic.

4. DMs are not drawn from one grammatical class and are not a closed grammatical class. Aijmer (2002), Carter and McCarthy (2006) and Fung and Carter (2007), give examples of DMs drawn from a wide variety of grammatical classes, such as prepositional phrases ('by the way'), response tokens ('right') and interjections ('oh').

5. DMs have a procedural but not propositional meaning. A DM may possess a propositional meaning when used as part of another class. An example of this is the temporal use of 'now'. The meaning of a DM can be defined from the broader context in which it operates.

6. DMs function at a referential, interpersonal, structural and cognitive level (Aijmer 2002, Fung and Carter 2007). They act as signposts for speakers and listeners as they orientate themselves to the ongoing discourse (Schiffrin 1987, Aijmer 2002) by, for instance, signalling that listeners need to time to think or that they wish to show they are listening.

7. DMs are often (but not always) sentence or turn initial (Aijmer 2002. Fung and Carter 2007).This position occurs often as it fulfils a number of common functions, such as launching topics (Fung and Carter 2007).

8. DMs '… should be prosodically independent and be largely separate from the utterances they introduce' (Fung and Carter 2007:413). This will generally be indicated by the DM occupying a separate tone unit and (often) being followed by a pause.

If we apply this definition to the following (invented) examples with the word 'right', it is possible to illustrate the above functions more clearly.

'Right, shall we start the lesson?'(DM usage: fulfilling categories 1, 2, 3, 5, 6 (structural), 7 and 8).

'Turn <u>right</u> at the next corner.'(Non-DM usage: fulfilling category 1 only and having a clear propositional meaning).

We can similarly apply this definition to written DMs, as in the following (invented) example:

'<u>Last</u>, this essay will clarify the following terms:' (DM usage: fulfilling categories 1, 2, 3, 5, 6 (structural) and 8).

'<u>Last </u>lesson I studied…' (Non-DM usage: fulfilling category 1 only and having a clear propositional meaning).

2.1.6   Summary

This section has given an overview of different definitions of DMs. It has attempted to show the difficulty of providing a clear definition of a DM, given the different theoretical positions researchers have taken in regard to them. Reviewing the research available, it has suggested that a functional definition of DMs, as developed by Aijmer (2002) and Fung and Carter (2007) seems to be the most useful because it allows us to suggest that DMs have both textual and interpersonal functions. In other words, DMs act to make discourse more coherent by showing links between discourse segments but also to fulfil a number of other functions, such as encouraging speakers to continue or softening opinions. It has also shown that there are a number of characteristics of DMs which can help us to define them. The more of these characteristics a word or phrase has, the more prototypical a DM it will be.

2.2   The Noticing Hypothesis and the Output Hypothesis: two theories of second language acquisition

Having acknowledged their high frequency and given a working definition of DMs, the next sections will explore the literature that relates to teaching DMs in ELT. This necessarily begins with an overview of some key theories of second language acquisition and how these have influenced ELT methodology in general. It starts with a brief review of Krashen's (1981, 1985) Input Hypothesis, before examining two key theories of second language acquisition: the Noticing Hypothesis and the Output Hypothesis. It then examines how these theories have influenced ELT classroom practice and research into teaching spoken grammar and DMs.

2.2.1 Comprehensible input and the Input Hypothesis

Input can be defined simply as samples of the target L2 which learners meet inside or outside the classroom,which they can learn from (Thornbury 2006: 105). Input outside the ELT classroom is more likely to be 'roughly tuned' and within the classroom 'comprehensible' (Krashen 1981, 1985), that is, just beyond a learner's current productive level but still understandable. Intake might be defined as language from the input which '…goes in and plays a role in language learning' (Richards and Schmidt 2002:262). This may mean it becomes available for productive use or part of a learner's receptive store of language.

For Krashen, intake (and thus acquisition) is dependent on learners receiving enough comprehensible input inside and outside the classroom. He contends, in explanations of his Input Hypothesis, (1981, 1985), that acquisition is an unconscious process, helped or hindered by what he terms an 'affective filter'; the individual learner's state of anxiety towards the target language. The higher the filter, the more likely that input will be 'blocked' from becoming intake. Krashen's hypothesis is what Ellis (1997) has termed an implicit view of language learning. For Krashen, procedural knowledge of a language is unconscious, while conscious learning involves declarative knowledge and is only seen to play a role in 'monitoring' what has been acquired; it does not add to acquisition in its own right:

> In general, utterances are initiated by the acquired system – our fluency in communication is based on what we have 'picked up' through active communication. Our 'formal' knowledge of the second language, our conscious learning, may be used to alter the output, sometimes before and sometimes after the utterance is produced (Krashen 1981:2).

For Krashen, languages cannot be 'learnt' but must be acquired, unconsciously, from comprehensible input; therefore there is no interface between conscious learning and acquisition. What we have learnt about a language (in the classroom or independently) simply acts as a corrective device we can call upon to refine or correct our acquired output, presumably when we have time to consider the language forms we are using. Many ELT teachers will recognise such a scenario: when producing language in 'real time' learners will often make errors such as 'He go shopping'. However, given time to plan what they wish to

say, many learners will make fewer errors, something supported by research on strategic

planning in tasks (Ellis 2003:131).

2.2.2   Noticing the input in second language acquisition: definitions of noticing and the Noticing Hypothesis

Persuasive as Krashen's views are, the difficulty in actually proving that acquisition is an

unconscious process is reflected in the small amount of research evidence available supporting

his claims (Ellis 1990). This lack of evidence, coupled with the obvious difficulty in being able

to distinguish between what is acquired and what is learnt, has led to a number of criticisms of

the Input Hypothesis, with many arguing against the notion that acquisition must be an

unconscious process. Sharwood Smith (1981:167) provides an early critique when he suggests

that 'explicit knowledge may aid acquisition via practice'. Sharwood Smith believes that

learners may not always be able to consciously state what they know about language but that

does not mean it is not useful for them to have this knowledge. He argues that there is an

interface between explicit and implicit knowledge about language (Sharwood Smith 1981:164)

whereas Krashen argues against such an interface by claiming that explicit knowledge has only

a monitoring role to play. Sharwood Smith further argues that explicit knowledge may help

adult L2 learners perhaps because they have 'increased cognitive maturity' (Sharwood Smith

1981:165) and can use this knowledge as one strategy in their learning, whereas children

learning their L2 cannot adopt the same strategy. He argues for 'consciousness raising'

activities in the classroom to heighten learners' explicit knowledge about language.

Sharwood Smith's views have been developed further by Schmidt and Frota (1986) and

Schmidt (1990, 1993, 1995, 2001, 2010), who offer a radical contrast to Krashen's Input

Hypothesis. For Schmidt, acquisition is not an unconscious process and a lack of conscious

attention will result in a lack of acquisition. This suggests that conscious awareness of form is a

precursor to intake becoming acquisition, as we can see in the following two remarks:

'Noticing is the necessary and sufficient condition for converting input to intake' (Schmidt

1990:129);

'SLA is largely driven by what learners pay attention to and notice in target language input and

what they understand the significance of that input to be'(Schmidt 2001: 34).

In other words, acquisition depends upon 'learners paying conscious attention to the input in order that this input can become intake' (Batstone 1996:273). Schmidt (1990:129) also suggests that learners need to 'notice the gap' between their current interlanguage and the target L2, in order to become more aware of what forms they need to acquire. Schmidt's views suggest then two key differences to Krashen's: comprehensible input alone will not help learners to acquire language; learners need to pay conscious attention to forms within input if they wish to acquire them and learners need to be consciously aware of the gap between what they wish to say/write and what they can say/write.

What then does noticing a feature of language input mean? Clearly, this is not a simple question to answer and there has been some debate about it (for example, Tomlin and Villa 1994, Robinson 1995, Williams 2005, Schmidt 1990, 2010). This debate has often centred upon differing interpretations of awareness and attention and whether noticing is always a conscious process and indeed whether learning can occur without conscious attention to language. Tomlin and Villa (1994:190) suggest that the concept of 'attention' itself needs to be subdivided into three stages: alertness, orientation and detection. They suggest that alertness is a learner's 'general readiness to deal with incoming stimuli', orientation is the directing of resources to the stimuli and detection involves registration of a stimulus. They argue that it is detection which is closest to Schmidt's concept of noticing, although the other two processes will at least support detection. Crucially, Tomlin and Villa also argue that detection can take place without awareness and so learning itself can take place without conscious awareness. Robinson (1995) suggests that both detection and awareness require conscious attention. He argues that simple detection is possible without awareness but that noticing is not and also suggests that the two processes are linked: ' noticing is defined to mean detection plus rehearsal in short term memory, prior to encoding in long term memory' (Robinson 1995:296). His arguments are in line with Schmidt's view of noticing but also acknowledge that it can be difficult to measure awareness, or the extent to which somebody has noticed something:

> Measures of awareness are difficult to operationalise given that: a) the experience of noticing may be fleeting and thus difficult to recall; and b) one may be aware of, yet unable to verbalise or otherwise articulate the nature of that which one is aware of (Robinson 1995:299).

Schmidt has recently developed his hypothesis beyond his original suggestion that 'noticing is the necessary and sufficient condition for converting input to intake' (Schmidt 1990:129). He suggests that noticing is 'conscious registration of attended specific instances of language'. He distinguishes this from understanding, which is 'a higher level of awareness' (Schmidt 2010:725) and may include metalinguistic awareness and the ability to consciously compare forms between L2 and L1. Schmidt argues that it is conscious registration which is required for most language acquisition; understanding may help but is not essential.

Similarly, Alanen (1995: 261) suggests that noticing is 'the subjective manifestation of attention' to form(s) within input; attention which will become available for 'verbal report'. In other words, a learner paying attention to a form which occurs in input and then being able to consciously state what it is they have noticed, even if they cannot discuss or analyse it in metalinguistic terms. In a stimulated recall research protocol, such an ability to state what has been noticed may be taken as evidence that noticing has taken place (for example, Lindgren and Sullivan 2003). This definition differs from others, such as DeKeyser (2007a:309), who suggests that noticing is simply 'the registration of the occurrence of a stimulus event in conscious awareness and subsequent storage in long-term memory' and does not mention the notion of such storage being available for report.

Truscott (1998) suggests that different definitions occur due to a 'strong' belief in noticing and a 'weak 'one. The strong view (for example, Schmidt 1990, Robinson 1995) suggests that learners need to be consciously aware of details of the input, and without this awareness, acquisition is much less likely to occur. The weak view suggests that noticing the input in a general sense can help acquisition but that it can occur without it (for example, Tomlin and Villa 1994).The definitions given by Schmidt (2010) do not preclude the idea that noticing may occur at an unconscious level but he acknowledges that it is difficult to prove that something has been noticed unconsciously because the very act of asking a learner about what has been noticed forces them to think consciously about it. Schmidt (2001:35) is also clear that his hypothesis does not attempt to dismiss the 'weak' view described above and he does not entirely dismiss the idea that some language can be acquired without first being noticed: 'Both implicit and explicit learning surely exists and they probably interact'. Rather, he suggests that what is acquired is mainly that which has been consciously noticed.

In this study, our definition of noticing will be based on the 'strong' belief, and in particular the work of Schmidt (1990, 1993, 1995, 2001, 2010) Alanen (1995) and Robinson (1995) as outlined above. In this thesis we are taking the term to mean the following:

- Noticing can occur when the learner is paying conscious attention to a form or forms within input.
- Noticing is 'conscious registration of attended specific instances of language' (Schmidt 2010:725).
- Noticing is 'detection plus rehearsal in short-term memory, prior to encoding in long-term memory' (Robinson 1995:286).
- Noticing is the ability of a learner to consciously 'notice the gap' (Schmidt 1990) between their current interlanguage and the target second language and differences between the L1 and L2.
- Noticing is the ability to consciously notice differences between spoken and written modes of language. This incorporates the model of acquisition which Ellis (2002:171) proposes and which we discussed in our introduction. Ellis suggests that 'comparing' may occur after noticing, we are suggesting it is part of the process of noticing. He suggests that 'comparing' involves a learner noticing gaps between his/her interlanguage and the target language, we are suggesting it will also involve comparing written and spoken modes of language.

Noticing can be measured by a learner stating what has been noticed in the form of a verbal or written report and this may include him or her demonstrating metalinguistic awareness. This definition is slightly different to Schmidt's in that it includes an awareness of the differences between L1/L2, and possible metalinguistic awareness, which Schmidt terms 'understanding'. It also expands the notion of 'noticing the gap' into noticing differences between L1 and L2 and spoken and written modes of language. We would agree with Robinson (1995) that just because something is not available for verbal or written report, it does not of course mean it has not been noticed. A learner may notice something but be unable to describe what has been noticed. However, as we are unable to measure noticing which is not available for report, the only realistic way we can measure it is by analysing what becomes available.

2.2.3   Research evidence and the Noticing Hypothesis

The claims by Schmidt are supported by a number of studies on the effect of noticing. The most significant of these studies is Schmidt's own diary study (Schmidt and Frota 1986), which produced evidence that noticing had a positive impact on the production of spoken Portuguese. The data shows that until the subject of the study (Schmidt himself) noticed a form, he was unable to make any use of it, even if that form had been available within the input. This led the authors to conclude that 'a second language learner will begin to acquire the target like form if and only if it is present in comprehended input and 'noticed' in the normal sense of the word, that is, consciously'(Schmidt and Frota 1986:311).

These results have been supported by several studies within the field of instructed second language acquisition. Fotos (1993), for example, found that grammar consciousness raising tasks (tasks which highlight a form for the learner within input), either within formal grammar instruction or task centred instruction, enabled students to notice the language features in subsequent input to a much greater extent than a control group. If we accept Schmidt's claim that noticing a form is a precursor to it becoming intake, this suggests that both types of instruction helped this process.

VanPatten and Cadierno (1993) found comparable results in a study comparing the effect of what they term 'processing instruction' compared to 'traditional instruction' (VanPatten and Cadierno 1993:48), focused on presentation and practice. Processing instruction seeks to help with converting input to intake (VanPatten and Cadierno 1993:46) by giving explicit information about the language with examples (in this case, Spanish object pronouns), and then following this with listening work. Learners are not asked to produce the target forms but to recognise patterns and demonstrate understanding of form and content by, for example, listening and marking the picture which corresponds to the form given. This work is then followed with activities which require students to respond to the content of spoken samples of the form by agreeing, or disagreeing. Students are also asked to read passages including sentences with the target language highlighted and asked to explain them. In their study, this was contrasted with a traditional approach to the target forms: 'At all times the traditional instruction focused the learners on producing the targeted items' (VanPatten and Cadierno 1993:48). Post-tests showed that the processing instruction group outperformed the traditional

group in both receptive awareness and production of the forms. Although processing instruction seems to differ slightly from noticing, in the sense that VanPatten (2002) would argue that noticing something does not mean you will process it, there are clearly similarities. Processing instruction is based on a belief that influencing the way input is processed helps acquisition far more than output: 'Given the rather important role that input plays in SLA, the value of grammar instruction as output practice is questionable if the attempt of the instruction is to alter the nature of the developing system', (VanPatten and Cadierno 1993:46). This is a belief that seems to be shared by proponents of noticing and as such the results of this study are significant, although it must be noted that DeKeyser and Sokalski (1996, 2001) have questioned them when attempting to replicate the original study.

More recently, a number of studies offer additional support for the benefits of noticing in second language learning classroom contexts (for example, Alanen 1995, Leow 1997, 2001, Rosa and O'Neill 1999, Lindgren and Sullivan 2003, Lai and Zhao 2006 and Shekary and Tahririan 2006). These studies have differed somewhat in the manner in which they attempted to promote noticing in learners but have all produced evidence which demonstrates that noticing does have a positive impact upon language learning. Alanen (1995) used four groups learning Finnish suffixes and consonant alternation to test the hypothesis. She established four groups: exposure only, input enhancement (target language italicised), rule presentation and rule presentation plus input enhancement. The results showed that input enhancement and rule presentation had the most positive impact on the learners' ability to acquire the target language, as judged by a grammatical judgement test. Additionally, the learners who acquired the most were able to mention what they had noticed in think-aloud protocols. Rosa and O'Neill (1999:521) investigated Spanish 'contrary to fact' conditional forms. Using a problem solving puzzle task containing the target forms, five different treatment groups were used: formal instruction (students were given explicit information about the conditional forms to read) and rule search (students were asked to look for a rule), formal instruction and no rule search, no formal instruction and rule search, no formal instruction and no rule search and a control group given no instructions but just asked to solve the puzzle. Results showed that the first two groups significantly outperformed the latter three groups, based on a recognition test of the form. Those learners who demonstrated greater awareness of the form (as shown in think-aloud

protocols) improved more than those who did not, particularly when learners could state explicit rules about the target language. Leow (2001) investigated the impact of noticing on learners of Spanish, focusing on the formal/polite Spanish imperative form. Learners were divided into two groups, enhanced input and non-enhanced input. They were both given a text to read which contained the target forms. The enhanced group's text contained samples of the form which were underlined while the unenhanced group's texts contained the same forms without anything underlined. The results did not demonstrate that the enhanced group noticed more than the unenhanced group but both groups did provide evidence of noticing, as shown in think-aloud protocols. However, Leow's results did provide evidence that those learners who noticed the forms in the input performed significantly better than those who did not, when assessed using a multiple choice recognition task. Lindgren and Sullivan (2003), Lai and Zhao (2006) and Shekary and Tahririan (2006) investigated the impact of noticing within the context of computer assisted language learning. Lindgren and Sullivan (2003:184) used keystroke logging to stimulate recall of students' written compositions, which was then discussed with teachers and peers. Their results suggest that this recall led to more noticing and text revision, leading them to conclude that noticing errors helps learners to correct them. Both Lai and Zhao and Shekary and Tahirihan found that teacher mediated, text-based online chat proved successful in helping learners to notice errors in their interlanguage. Shekary and Tahririan (2006) also found evidence in immediate and delayed post-tests that the learners in their study were able to remember forms they were encouraged to notice during online chat. This led them to suggest that 'incidental noticing in this context is associated with subsequent L2 learning' (Shekary and Tahririan 2006:567).

2.2.4   The weaknesses of the Noticing Hypothesis

It is clear then that there is some research evidence to support the views of those who would claim that noticing a form is an essential pre-condition of acquiring it. Viewing the research as a whole, some caution is needed, however.

Truscott (1998) questions many of the fundamental claims made for noticing and many of the studies which support it. He questions the definition of noticing, suggesting it is unclear precisely what learners need to notice about a form and argues that the research evidence only tells us that noticing builds metalinguistic declarative knowledge but that this does not

contribute to acquisition. Swan (2005:380) agrees with this suggestion when he states 'It seems highly unlikely, in fact, that everything language learners acquire, can derive from conscious noticing'. There is also some research evidence to support this (for example, Williams, 2005).

We could not claim that any of the research offers absolutely conclusive proof that conscious noticing is normally a prerequisite of a form moving from input to intake, despite Schmidt's (1990) claim that it is. This may be because of the difficulty of measuring an internal process (noticing) within a classroom setting (Leow 2001:507). This lack of conclusive evidence is something that Truscott (1998), Cross (2002), and Swan (2005) all remark upon. Cross (2002), for instance, suggests that the claims made for noticing 'appear to be based on intuition and assumption that is not supported by appropriate and exhaustive research evidence'. Clearly, this overstates the case. The claims are based on a large amount of research but it is hard to argue that this is 'exhaustive'. The difficulty with the research as a whole is that there is a lack of consistency. Studies attempt to measure the amount of noticing of different forms across different languages and there is very little replication. Schmidt and Frota's (1986) study, for example, does not appear to have been attempted by another researcher in a similar context. Additionally, the way noticing itself is measured demonstrates a heavy reliance on the use of think-aloud protocols. As a qualitative method of data collection, this method does seem to offer a chance to find evidence for what is an internal process (Gass and Mackey 2000) but like any method, it does have weaknesses. Dornyei (2007:148) notes that it is not a natural process to think aloud while completing a task and therefore requires some training. This training may influence the kind of data produced, so that learners produce more (or fewer) instances of noticing than they would otherwise do. The method also relies on a learner's ability to verbalise what they have noticed and it will clearly be the case that some learners may be more confident at expressing this in a written form, either as they notice, or after noticing. Finally, the majority of studies measure the impact of noticing based on a learner's ability to recognise the forms and not to produce them but do not always acknowledge that this only provides evidence of receptive understanding and not a learner's the ability to produce the target forms.

There are also a number of criticisms of individual studies. For instance, Schmidt and Frota's (1986) research data is regularly cited as evidence that noticing is an essential pre-requisite of acquisition, as Swan (2005) notes. However, their study can be questioned on a number of

grounds. Firstly, the subject of the study was Schmidt himself, which leads to obvious questions of bias towards the results. Secondly, Schmidt's greater knowledge as an applied linguist may have contributed significantly to the attention he paid to forms and the metalinguistic knowledge he displayed in his diary. Lastly, the study only contains data about a single learner, making it hard to apply the results more broadly. Although Schmidt and Frota (1986) acknowledge these potential criticisms in their study, they do not seem to believe that any of the above questions invalidate their results. However, it is clear we can at least question them.

2.2.5   The Output Hypothesis: definitions

If we accept that noticing is primarily concerned with input, then the Output Hypothesis (Swain 1985) is clearly more concerned with the role of language production. In a similar manner to the Noticing Hypothesis, it was developed from a commonly held belief (for example, VanPatten and Cadierno 1993, Nassaji 2000) that comprehensible input alone is not enough to develop acquisition. As such, it is also a reaction against Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1981, 1985). Swain (1985) argues that output can aid acquisition because it may allow learners to test out hypotheses they have formed from input. The suggestion is that 'production is the trigger that forces learners to pay attention to the means of expression' (Ellis 1990:117). Swain suggests that this output must be 'pushed', i.e. the learners must be forced to adjust their output on the basis of feedback from the listener, normally in the form of clarification requests. Her work develops claims made by Long (1983a, 1983b, 1985), that comprehensible input, alongside interaction and negotiation of meaning in conversations, are the key elements which aid language acquisition. Swain's work also acknowledges the value of input and of 'noticing the gap' developed by Schmidt (1990). The crucial difference between the hypotheses is that Swain believes that learners need output to help them to notice the gaps between what they wish to say and what they are able to say: '(they) notice a gap in their own knowledge when they encounter a problem in trying to produce the L2' (Swain and Lapkin 1995:373). Izumi (2003) outlines the perceived benefits of output when he suggests that it contributes to strengthening learners' interlanguage because it helps them to notice gaps in performance. Questioning an exclusive focus on input, he suggests that:

> **…**it is assumed that grammatical encoding in production by adult native speakers occurs subconsciously and automatically. However, this may not be the case for language learners, who are still in the process of learning a language and whose language use requires a great deal of controlled processing and attention (Izumi 2003:183).

2.2.6   Research evidence and the Output Hypothesis

There is a reasonable body of research to support the claims made regarding the role of output in second language acquisition. Swain and Lapkin (2001), for instance, found that the use of 'pushed' output tasks (such as picture description) in the classes of French immersion teenagers in Canada did help to produce a 'substantial proportion of form-focused, language related episodes' (Swain and Lapkin 2001:11). They contend that this means 'They brought to attention gaps in their own knowledge and worked out possible solutions through hypothesis formulation and testing' (Swain and Lapkin 2001:110). This is supported by their earlier work (Swain and Lapkin 1995), which employed think-aloud protocols to measure the processes French immersion teenagers used when producing a written text. They found that 'young adolescent learners do indeed become aware of the gaps in their knowledge as they produce their L2' (Swain and Lapkin 1995:383) because the output forces them to consider form and the gaps between what they can produce and would like to produce. This is something they have supported in additional studies (for example, Swain 1998). More recently, Morgan-Short and Wood Bowden (2006) and Toth (2006), have also offered some support for their claims, suggesting that meaningful output can usefully complement work on processing input and enhance the acquisition of linguistic forms in Spanish. Within the area of classroom research related to ELT, the hypothesis has gained support from Ellis and Nobuyoshi (1993), who conducted a small scale study to test it. The study used an experimental and control group. Both groups were given a communicative picture description task but only the experimental group were 'pushed' to clarify and correct their use of past tense forms. Their findings, although limited, suggested that learners who are 'pushed': 'improve the accuracy of their production results, not only in immediate improved performance but also in gains in accuracy over time' (Ellis and Nobuyoshi 1993:208).

Other researchers have found that classroom procedures based on output, if not precisely the 'pushed' output of Swain and Lapkin, did have a positive effect on acquisition. Yan-Ping (1991:263), for instance, found that teaching Chinese learners grammatical forms through a PPP framework did have a positive effect on their acquisition of those forms, either through an explicit or an implicit statement of rules, leading her to suggest 'form-based classroom instruction is conducive to the success of SLA, be it implicit or explicit'. In a study investigating learners of Japanese, Yoshimi (2001) also produced evidence that presentation and explicit explanation of DMs, followed by practice and corrective feedback, helped learners to use them within informal spoken narratives to a much greater extent than a control group given no explicit focus of the same items. Yoshimi's study focussed on the longitudinal effect of explicit instruction of three Japanese discourse markers 'n desu, n desu kedo and n desu ne' used in the context of narrating spoken anecdotes. There was a particular focus on students' use of the above DMs when opening, closing and in presentation of story content (Yoshimi 2001:244). Two groups were chosen for the study, an experimental and a control group. Each group was given a pre-test and post-test in which learners were given a story telling task (Yoshimi 2001: 224). The experimental group were given explicit instruction in the use of the DMs. This involved explanation of the DMs as used in extended discourse, being given a 'live' model of the task between the teacher and Japanese language assistant, time to plan the task, communicative practice telling their stories to peers three times and corrective feedback / re-teaching of the DMs (Yoshimi 2001:226—227). The control group were not given any explicit instruction on telling stories or the target DMs but, as with the experimental group, classes were conducted in Japanese and there were frequent opportunities for communicative practice with peers. Quantitative analysis revealed large gains in use of the target DMs from the experimental group and no gains for the control group. This suggests that explicit instruction, communicative practice and corrective feedback did help to improve aspects of learners' output and their use of these DMs.

2.2.7   Weaknesses of the Output Hypothesis

There seems to be evidence from this research that output may have a role to play in second language acquisition. However, it must also be acknowledged that none of these studies offer

conclusive proof that learners need output, 'pushed' or otherwise, in order to acquire language and that there are a number of criticisms which can be made.

Firstly, it is helpful to suggest, as Gass, Mackey and Pica (1998) do, that output and interaction are not the sole factors affecting acquisition. Although it seems intuitive that interaction inside and outside the ELT classroom will benefit learners, this has been questioned in some cases. Sato (1986), for example, demonstrates that conversational interaction may not always have a positive effect on the development of learners' interlanguage. Secondly, it is difficult to define clearly what 'pushed' output might mean and how it might be actualised. The suggestions given by Swain and Lapkin (2001) are of communicative tasks, such as picture description, which require learners to think about and use certain forms. However, Ellis and Nobuyoshi (1993) accept that it is difficult to design tasks which require learners to 'push' themselves to use a particular form or forms. Either their focus is on communicating any way they can or it is on producing specific form(s); requiring them to do both simultaneously may be problematic. Hedge (2000:167) summarises this difficulty when she suggests that controlled practice 'obliges students to pay attention to syntax' but that freer (more communicative) practice does not. This problem makes it more difficult to measure the effect 'pushed' tasks might have upon acquisition. Lastly, as we have discussed previously, although there are studies which seem to show the benefit of output, there are others, such as VanPatten and Cadierno (1993) which show it to be of less benefit than a primary focus on input. There are also too few studies which demonstrate the lasting effect of output practice on acquisition, something Muranoi (2007:59) acknowledges.

2.2.8   Summary

It is clear that there is a reasonable body of evidence to support the claims of both hypotheses. The studies discussed above appear to show that conscious awareness of forms within input and using language through output, in the form of 'pushed' practice or other kinds of practice, may have some effect on acquisition.

However, there are several unresolved questions which also seem to emerge. Firstly, there seems to be little research evidence which directly compares the Output Hypothesis with classroom approaches which place more value on helping learners to notice, at least within

ELT. The studies discussed so far have tended to measure their findings against control groups who received little or no explicit focus on a form in either output or input (for example, Yoshimi 2001) but to my knowledge there are no studies which attempt to measure pedagogical applications of noticing (such as language awareness approaches) against output based approaches (such as presentation and practice). VanPatten and Cadierno's (1993) research attempts something very similar but VanPatten (2002) has made clear that his notion of 'processing instruction' is not equivalent to noticing, and claims that noticing a feature in the input is not the same as processing it. We have also noted that the results of VanPatten and Cadierno's study have been questioned by DeKeyser and Sokalski (1996, 2001).When replicating the study they found that, in general, processing input aided comprehension and output practice aided production. They also found that processing input seemed to aid both comprehension and production if the structure was difficult to comprehend and if the post-test was delayed. They found the opposite to be true if the structure was easier to produce and the post-test was immediate. In this case, output practice produced better results. Secondly, the relatively small scale of many of the studies and the lack of replication in other ELT contexts limits the conclusions which can be drawn from the findings. Thirdly, very few of the studies have been concerned with specifically measuring the effect of noticing and output on spoken grammar. Fourthly, many of the studies did not leave an adequate delay between instruction and a post study test. Truscott (1998) suggests a delay of more than five weeks but less than a year in order to measure acquisition. Lastly, aside from perhaps Schmidt and Frota (1986), almost no attention has been given to the subjective views of the learners who have acted as subjects of the research, with the notable exception of Mohammed (2004). Given that variables such as the learning context and prior learning mean that it will always be difficult to produce conclusive proof that either noticing alone or some form of output is more beneficial as regards acquisition, this lack of qualitative, subjective evidence is a serious omission.

Despite these reservations, it must be acknowledged that both the Noticing Hypothesis and the Output Hypothesis have had a clear influence on classroom practice within ELT in general and on the teaching of spoken grammar in particular. It is this which we will now focus our attention on, before finally examining the role of classroom-based research in the acquisition of spoken grammar.

2.3   The influence of noticing and the Output Hypothesis on ELT pedagogy and the teaching of spoken grammar

This section begins with a discussion of implicit and explicit grammar and vocabulary teaching. It then outlines both language awareness and task-based learning and the role noticing plays within both approaches. It then moves on to examine the influence of noticing on the teaching of spoken grammar. Finally, it considers the role of the Output Hypothesis in communicative language teaching and in the teaching of spoken grammar.

2.3.1   Implicit and explicit language teaching

As we discussed in our section of key terms (section 2.1), implicit teaching is taken to mean a form of instruction whereby a learner is not made aware of what is being taught. This is in contrast to explicit teaching, whereby the learner is made aware of what is being taught. In the English language classroom, implicit teaching might include a task where students interact without any focus on specific language items, in the hope that learners will learn 'implicitly', from the interaction itself. Explicit teaching might include activities which require learners to produce samples of the target language or to discover rules about it.

As we have also noted (section 2.1), declarative knowledge can be defined as 'knowledge about the features being taught' and is normally associated with explicit learning. Procedural knowledge is 'the ability to use the target features automatically in communication' (Ellis 1997: 84), and is normally associated with implicit learning. Explicit teaching and implicit teaching normally endeavour to develop each different type of knowledge. Explicit teaching attempts to develop procedural knowledge and declarative knowledge, whilst implicit teaching attempts to develop only procedural knowledge.

There is a long history of debate in the literature about the different impact of explicit and implicit teaching (see Bialystok, 1982, for an early discussion), often associated with the teaching of grammar but also with the teaching of lexis. This debate has often been associated with the interface and non-interface positions in second language acquisition research. Those who favour explicit teaching tend to be associated with an interface position and those who favour implicit teaching with the non-interface position. The intention here is not to review every study in this area and there is further discussion of form-focused instruction in chapter four. At this stage, we are providing an overview of this area before moving on in the next

section to a discussion of three explicit teaching approaches and how these have been influenced by the Noticing Hypothesis and the Output Hypothesis.

Research investigating implicit teaching is normally associated with Krashen's (1981) Input Hypothesis, which we outlined earlier in this literature review. There is some limited evidence to support this hypothesis; namely that it is implicit teaching which contributes to acquisition and explicit teaching can only help learners to monitor their own language use. Krashen offers his own evidence for his hypothesis by describing research which demonstrates that language can be acquired simply through comprehensible input. One recent example is his description of a learner of Hebrew (Krashen 2000) who had no formal explicit instruction in the language. Instead, the learner was exposed to the language over a number of years through his work in a Hebrew speaking environment. He is described as learning in a relaxed way (i.e. not putting himself under pressure) and he does acknowledge some vocabulary correction by colleagues. Based on a recording of a conversation with this learner, four native speakers of Hebrew judged his spoken output to be at least very good and at best equivalent to a native speaker (Krashen 2000:23). The results lead Krashen to conclude:

> Armando's case also shows us that one can do quite well in second language acquisition without living in the country in which the language is spoken and without formal instruction. The crucial variables appear to be comprehensible input and having a good relationship with speakers of the language (Krashen 2000:24).

There has also been some support offered for Krashen's views in suggestions that grammar correction (something we would associate with explicit teaching), has only a minor impact on the accuracy of student output. Truscott (1996), for example, suggests that such correction has only a negligible effect on the accuracy of students' writing and the most effect when it acts as a monitor.

Early studies which sought to contrast implicit with explicit teaching did not provide conclusive evidence to dispute Krashen's findings. An early study by Bialystok (1982), for example, reported on two studies designed to assess how declarative and procedural knowledge may be related. Two sets of learners were given a series of receptive and productive tests to assess their explicit and implicit knowledge of targeted language forms. The results did not

provide conclusive evidence that knowing a form (as demonstrated in a receptive test) ensured that it could be used successfully in a productive test. Bialystok (1982:205) suggests 'knowing a form, as we have seen, does not ensure that the form will or can be used in appropriate situations when the circumstances change'. Similarly, Green and Hecht (1992) attempted to assess the relationship between explicit and implicit knowledge by asking three hundred German secondary school learners of intermediate and advanced level to correct grammatical errors in sentences. After correcting the errors, learners were asked to state the rule that had been broken in each case. The findings indicated that learners could correct a high number of the sentences (78%) but could only state the rule which had been broken in approximately half the cases (46%). This suggests that declarative knowledge of language rules did not always directly correlate with procedural knowledge of what was correct. Similar results have also been found in more recent studies contrasting explicit and implicit instruction (for example, Reinders 2005).

Despite these results, there have also recently been a number of studies which have demonstrated the benefits of explicit teaching of grammar or vocabulary. DeKeyser (1995) investigated the difference between explicit-deductive and implicit-inductive instruction on the learning of two rule types (simple categorical and fuzzy prototypical) in an artificial grammar. The results demonstrated that the explicit-deductive group outperformed the implicit-inductive group when expressing the simple categorical rules in new contexts, leading DeKeyser to suggest that production is aided by explicit instruction and practice. These results have been supported by a number of other researchers, who have conducted a variety of studies investigating the difference between explicit and implicit teaching (for example, Radwan 2005, N.Ellis 2007, Ziemer Andrews 2007, Lingli and Wannaruk 2010). Norris and Ortega (2000, 2001) offer a meta-analysis of large number of similar studies and conclude that, taken as a whole, they demonstrate that explicit teaching does have a greater impact on acquisition of targeted forms than implicit teaching. It must be noted, however, that these results are not entirely conclusive and we can question the manner in which some of the studies tested the impact of explicit teaching. As Ellis (2005) suggests, some studies assume that explicit knowledge can be measured simply by asking learners to state rules and there is a tendency to measure procedural knowledge through the use of restricted tests types such as gap-fill

exercises rather than through free response tests. Discussing vocabulary research, Schmitt (2010:154) argues that researchers need to employ a variety of tests to measure both productive and receptive uses of language and guard against claiming that we can infer one from the other, a suggestion which seems entirely sensible.

Despite these caveats, in this thesis we have broadly accepted the findings about explicit teaching of grammar or lexis and, as a result, our research questions show that this is an investigation concerned with different types of explicit teaching and their impact on the acquisition of DMs. In the next section we will describe the influence of the Noticing and Output Hypotheses on the explicit teaching approaches we will investigate.

2.3.2   Noticing, language awareness and task-based learning

We have previously defined noticing within the field of second language acquisition, as the learner paying conscious attention to specific forms within the input, and becoming aware of gaps between L1/L2 and differences between spoken/written modes. There is little question that this notion has gained considerable support within the ELT profession, both at the broad level of methodology and in the development of specific classroom activities.

Within ELT methodology, this influence has been demonstrated most strongly by advocates of a language awareness approach (for example, James and Garrett 1991, Chan 1999. Bolitho *et al.* 2003) and of task-based learning (for example, Willis 1996, Willis and Willis 1996, Skehan 1996, 1998, Willis 2003). Both approaches value lesson procedures which encourage noticing by making the input 'perceptually salient' to the learner (Schmidt 1990, Batstone 2002), through activities which heighten learners' awareness of forms but do not advocate a focus on production of these forms within the classroom.

Language awareness in the ELT classroom context can be defined as an approach which aids '… the development in learners of an enhanced consciousness and sensitivity to the forms and functions of language.' (Carter 2003:64). Language awareness means learners work on understanding (preferably authentic) texts, before undertaking activities which will focus on features of the text, sensitising them to the meaning of forms and developing their explicit knowledge of the language used. It also means that learners are asked to consider why certain language may have been used in a certain context and to discuss alternative linguistic choices

which speakers may have made. As Tomlinson (in Bolitho *et al.* 2003:252) suggests: 'the first procedures are usually experiential rather than analytical and aim to involve the learners in affective interaction with a potentially engaging text then the learners are asked to focus on particular feature of a text'. They are, as Lewis (1993, 1997) advocates, being asked to observe and hypothesise about language; to notice but not to replicate the forms they meet.

Interpretations of task-based learning vary (see Ellis, 2003, for a helpful overview) but Willis' (1996) framework has perhaps gained the most currency within ELT and it is this which will be taken as the model in this research. Within the framework suggested by Willis, learners first undertake meaning focused tasks (without an explicit focus on form) before completing what Willis and Willis (1996:64) term, after Sharwood Smith (1981), 'consciousness raising tasks'. Willis and Willis define these as tasks which 'involve the learner in hypothesising about the data', (Willis and Willis 1996:64). In other words, they are tasks aimed at raising learners' awareness of certain linguistic features of texts, in order that they can begin to make sense of input and formulate their own hypotheses about how the language operates. The texts themselves are directly linked to the tasks learners have undertaken. Willis and Willis contend that helping to raise awareness may enable learners to notice these features in classroom and other input so that they may become intake.

There are some differences in how noticing is achieved within lesson procedures in both approaches, with the suggestion that task-based learning has a greater focus on output in the form of tasks, while language awareness has a greater focus on input. This suggests that task-based learning aims to develop both procedural knowledge through tasks and declarative knowledge through consciousness raising, whilst the primary focus of language awareness is on developing declarative knowledge, in the belief that over time this will lead to the development of procedural knowledge.

Despite these differences, it is clear that advocates of both approaches accept Schmidt's (1990) argument, that noticing is crucial for acquisition .Tomlinson (in Bolitho *et al.*2003:252) summarises these views: 'noticing can give salience to a feature, so that it becomes more noticeable in future input, and thereby contributes to the learner's psychological readiness to acquire that feature'. It is also clear that both approaches are based on a belief that in a

language classroom, the most important task is to make learners consciously aware of forms within the input: what they are, why they are used and how they may differ from a learner's current interlanguage. Helping learners to notice a form in the classroom, it is believed, will help learners notice it outside the classroom and therefore prepare them to acquire it. There is an explicit focus on form (s) but output practice of these forms is not seen as being necessarily helpful. This is in contrast to previously popular methods such Audiolingualism, which was based on the belief that giving learners controlled output practice of forms was the key to acquiring them (Richards and Rodgers 2001). Such a belief in the value of noticing is not, however, restricted to advocates of task-based learning or language awareness and has also been accepted by many theorists and materials writers working within mainstream ELT teacher training (for example, Ellis 1992, Scrivener 1994, Thornbury 1997, 2007, Lindsay and Knight 2006).

2.3.3   Noticing and the teaching of spoken grammar

Recent suggestions relating to the teaching of spoken grammar also support the ideas discussed above. McCarthy and Carter (1995:217), for example, suggest that an Illustration – Interaction – Induction (III) framework, helping to develop learners' language awareness, may be suitable for teaching aspects of spoken grammar. III differs from the better known PPP framework, in that it places less emphasis on isolating a particular form and then attempting to 'perfect' that through various forms of practice. Rather, III attempts to 'involve students in greater language awareness of the nature of spoken and written distinctions, and thus a range of grammatical choices across and between these modes' (McCarthy and Carter 1995:217). In other words, it seeks to build learners' understanding of why and when speakers use certain forms in speech and writing, in the belief that this awareness will help learners to notice these features in input so that they may become intake. In the classroom, this heightened awareness would be achieved through examining and discussing the form and use of various features of spoken grammar within samples of spoken discourse, in order to help learners 'develop a capacity for noticing such features' (McCarthy and Carter 1995:217).

2.3.4   Research evidence supporting the use of noticing to teach spoken grammar

There have been few empirical studies which have sought to test specific methodologies in relation to the teaching of spoken grammar and, as we noted in 1.1, very few targeted at

teaching spoken DMs. However, taking the suggestions of McCarthy and Carter (1995) a stage further, Timmis (2005, 2008), has tested a teaching framework which encourages students to notice aspects of spoken grammar within authentic listening texts. He produced a series of lesson materials which helped students to globally understand listening input, before employing tasks which sensitised them to the spoken grammatical forms employed by speakers. Students were given the chance to discuss the texts but were not asked to produce any of the spoken grammatical forms. Timmis gives two reasons to justify this: first, 'forced' production can be detrimental to students' language acquisition and second 'it is at least questionable whether we want learners to produce these forms at any stage' (Timmis 2005:120). This may be because learners simply do not need to use some aspects of spoken grammar (a learner can reach a very high level without using tails, for example) but it may also be that some forms of spoken grammar (such as tails) are a particular feature of native speaker usage and might cause confusion in a situation in which English is used as a lingua franca. Timmis solicited the views about the materials and the contents of the class from both learners and teachers via a sample of questionnaires. His results, although tentative, show that the majority of teachers and learners felt this approach was useful and it is unfortunate that few other studies have been conducted along similar lines, despite that fact that classroom materials and teaching ideas are increasingly available to facilitate this (for example, Carter *et al.* 2000, Jones 2008).

2.3.5   The influence of the Output Hypothesis on ELT classroom practice

Although versions of CLT will vary in terms of syllabus design and methodology (Richards and Rodgers 2001), it is possible to suggest that the broad aim of CLT is to develop the kind of communicative competence first defined by Hymes (1972) and further developed by Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983). Communicative competence, it is suggested, contains four elements: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence

The influence of the Output Hypothesis within CLT, as a means of trying to help students acquire communicative competence, is also clear. However, we may wish to suggest that it is more precisely student output (whether this is 'pushed' or not), in the form of classroom practice, which has been viewed as beneficial to acquisition.

2.3.6 Definitions of practice within CLT

Practice, as we have defined in 2.1, is 'specific activities in the second language engaged in systematically, deliberately, developing *explicit* knowledge and *skills* in the target language' (adapted from DeKeyser 2007a:8, italic mine). In other words, we might suggest that practice, it is hoped, will develop and transform declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge and finally into automatic language use (DeKeyser 2007a). In the CLT classroom, this translates into a use of various types of 'pre-communicative practice' (Richards and Rodgers 2001:171) such as drills or reading dialogues aloud. Commonly, this is followed by 'contextualised practice' (Ellis 2002:168), where learners attempt to apply the target language to real life situations and 'communicative practice' (Allwright 1979, Swan 1985a, 1985b), where the learners use the target language alongside other language in genuine communication, through activities such as information gaps and role-plays.

Practice may take place within a 'strong' form of CLT (Howatt 2004). This may mean giving learners a great deal of communicative practice without an explicit focus on form, in the belief that learners will begin to develop an implicit awareness of form through the development of procedural knowledge. More commonly though, such practice activities will take place within a 'weak' version of CLT (Howatt 2004), which gives both an explicit focus on form and pre-communicative, contextualised and communicative practice. Commonly, such 'weak' versions of CLT will be realised through a Present – Practice – Produce (PPP) teaching framework, particularly when the class has a clear focus on language form(s). Its widespread use is clearly evidenced by the amount of fierce criticism it has attracted (Willis and Willis 1996, Skehan 1998) and the broad acceptance that it is a popular teaching framework. Gabrielatos (1994:5), when discussing the teaching of grammar, for instance, suggests 'current ELT methodology seems to advocate essentially a two-stage grammar lesson, presentation and practice', something supported by Lindsay and Knight (2006) and much earlier by Byrne (1986). Gabrielatos (1994) notes that there are various definitions of the PPP stages. However, we can suggest that, normally, the first stage involves an inductive or deductive 'showing' of the grammar in some kind of context, including an explicit focus on forms(s) and meaning. This is the 'present' stage. This is followed by activities (such as drills or simple personalisation) which practise the grammar in a controlled way. This is the 'practice' stage. Finally, lessons

work towards a production stage, which seeks to encourage students to integrate the newly presented forms in freer practice, such as a role-play. It is thus a framework which aims to develop both declarative and procedural knowledge. The presentation stage seeks to develop knowledge about form and meaning and the practice and production stages aim to develop the ability to use this knowledge communicatively. PPP differs from language awareness and task-based learning in some respects, but in others there are clearly similarities. Ellis (1992:233—234) gives a useful summary of these differences and similarities in relation to the teaching of grammar:

Practice based approaches

Irrespective of whether the practice is controlled, contextualised or communicative, it will have the following characteristics:

1. There is some attempt to *isolate* a specific grammatical feature for focussed attention.

2. The learners are required to *produce* sentences containing the targeted feature.

3. The learners will be provided with opportunities for repetition of the targeted feature.

The main characteristics of consciousness raising tasks (which we have termed noticing tasks in this study), are these:

1. There is an attempt to *isolate* a specific linguistic feature for focused attention.

2. The learners are provided with *data* which illustrate the targeted feature and they may also be supplied with an *explicit* rule describing or explaining the feature.

3. The learners are expected to utilise *intellectual effort* to understand the targeted feature.

We can see that each approach advocates an explicit focus on form, which means a form will be isolated, and information about meaning and use provided or discussed by learners. Clearly, both of these involve explicit teaching and learning and there is a marked difference to implicit approaches. Krashen and Tyrell's Natural Approach, for instance, advocates a focus on providing comprehensible input in the classroom but without a focus on form (Richards and

Rodgers 2001) and, as we have noted, 'strong' forms of CLT (Howatt 2004) suggest that providing communicative practice in the classroom without a focus on form is sufficient.

The differences between PPP, III and task- based learning, lie within two areas. Firstly, as we have noted, both task-based learning and language awareness do not advocate the practice of the forms(s) in focus, either through pre-communicative, contextualised or communicative activities so learners are not expected to produce examples of the isolated form(s). Task-based learning does include communicative tasks, but it is suggested that these are achieved without an explicit focus on form (Willis 1996). PPP, on the other hand, clearly advocates practice of the form(s) in focus, in terms of providing pre-communicative, contextualised and communicative practice. Thus, when using a PPP framework, it can be suggested that the majority of classroom time will be spent on the practice and production of language. This is the fundamental difference between the different types of instruction in terms of pedagogy.

The second difference is not highlighted clearly in Ellis' comments above but is perhaps implicit. Richards and Rodgers (2001) note that most approaches to language teaching have both a theory of language and a theory of learning. It is the theory of learning which seems to differ most when we compare task-based learning and language awareness with PPP. We have previously noted that activities which promote noticing have also been termed consciousness raising activities, in recognition of the notion that learning is a conscious mental process. It has been argued that this idea has its roots in cognitive learning theory (Thornbury 2006), which is itself drawn from cognitive psychology. Essentially, this theory argues that language (in children) develops from a child's brain and a growing awareness of the world around him or her. Language acquisition occurs as a result of the movement from conscious mental activity to subconscious automatic use (Thornbury 2006: 31). We can therefore suggest that consciousness raising activities are aimed at helping learners with the conscious mental activity that is involved in noticing features of a language. PPP has often been described in contrast to this, as a framework which is not linked to cognitive learning theory but behaviourism. Behaviourist learning theory suggested that learning is essentially habit formation and that the reinforcement of good habits leads to successful language learning and bad habits are to be discouraged (Skinner 1957). Typically, we might associate this kind of learning with drills in the classroom, the belief being that a student who repeats a form correctly a number of times is

more likely to get it right outside the classroom (Thornbury 2006: 24). Critics of PPP (for example, Skehan 1996), have been quick to link it to behaviourism, something often negatively associated with 'discredited' methods such as Audiolingualism (Thornbury 2006:24). While there is a certain sense in this argument, in that PPP does include some drills at the practice stage, there are arguments against this. Ranta and Lyster (2007), for example, suggest that PPP is, in fact, more closely linked to Anderson's three phase skill building model (1982), as we suggested in our introduction. These three phases consist of a cognitive phase, at which a learner makes a conscious effort to learn the meaning and form of language (Presentation), an associative phase when a learner will try to transfer declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge (Practice) and an autonomous stage, where performance becomes automatic and largely free of errors (Production) (Ranta and Lyster 2007: 149). This would suggest that the premise on which PPP is based is, in fact, closer to cognitive learning theory than behaviourism.

The difference between the types of instruction lies in how the cognitive theory is applied. Advocates of task-based learning and language awareness frameworks such as III take the view that we cannot 'program' the acquisition of certain forms. We can isolate and highlight them and, given time, learners will notice them in the input they receive outside the classroom and when ready, should acquire them. The focus on form in the classroom will help to make the language learners meet more salient because they will be more aware of what the forms are, what they mean and why they are used in certain contexts and thus they should begin to form their own hypotheses about how the language operates (Willis and Willis 1996). PPP on the other hand, is a framework which suggests that if we isolate forms and practise them enough, we will acquire them, in the way that many skills are acquired.

The differences between III and PPP of most concern to us in this thesis can be summarised in tables one and two, using the example of DMs, which are the main focus of our study.

Table 1 Pedagogical differences: III and PPP

III	PPP
Present DMs in context	Present DMs in context
Guide learners towards understanding meaning and form	Guide learners towards understanding meaning and form
Teacher clarification and explanation as needed	Teacher clarification and explanation as needed
Discussion of language features e.g. comparison to L1/translating text /correct unnatural conversations/comparing different modes and texts	Controlled practice of target DMs e.g. learners repeat them in drills, learners complete gap-fills with DMs
	Freer practice of target DMs – learners required to use them in their own conversations or roleplays

Table 2 Theoretical differences: III and PPP

III	PPP
Cognitive learning theory	Cognitive learning theory
Inductive	Inductive
Linguistic forms isolated for focussed attention	Linguistic forms isolated for focussed attention
Explicit	Explicit
Input orientated	Output orientated
Declarative knowledge	Declarative knowledge + procedural knowledge
Reflective	Productive
Information processing	Skill building
Noticing	Using

2.3.7 Output and the teaching of spoken grammar

There are few suggestions about how we might apply an output based framework such as PPP to the teaching of spoken grammar or DMs. This may be because there is a belief, illustrated by Hellermann and Vergun (2007: 177), that the best methodology may be simply to highlight DMs in context:

> …while teachers need not spend significant parts of their class time teaching these discourse markers, there is a need to make learners aware of these markers and their pragmatic functions. Language samples from everyday conversation between fluent speakers of the target language should be used to highlight their appropriate use and why they do not occur in some registers.

As we have discussed, such views are echoed by Timmis (2005), who suggests the difficulty of forming rules for features of spoken grammar may be one reason why we may not wish to teach them for productive purposes and practise them.

Recently, however, some suggestions have emerged which argue that we may be able to teach spoken grammar by slightly modifying the kind of practice activities found in a PPP framework. Thornbury and Slade (2006:295), for example, suggest a balance of 'exposure, instruction and practice' when teaching learners conversational English, which would certainly include some features of spoken grammar. This does not imply a lesson by lesson diet of presentation, practice and production but does suggest that all three aspects are important for the acquisition of the kind of grammar used in conversation. Mumford (2007, 2009) also offers a series of practice activities, adapted from those typically used in a PPP framework. One example is a 'headers and tails' activity, which asks students to adapt standard sentence forms to spoken forms, containing a head or a tail. Mumford (2007: 28) gives the example of 'John lost his wallet', which students then transform into 'He lost his wallet, John' (tail) or 'John, he lost his wallet' (head). Although the language focus is different, this is essentially a transformation drill, commonly used in pre-communicative practice stages of PPP lessons (Byrne 1986).

2.3.8   Research evidence supporting the use of practice to teach spoken grammar

Practice within ELT methodology has been under researched, something very surprising considering it is so well-established as part of the 'mythology' of CLT (as we noted in 1.1). DeKeyser (2007a:1) sums up these concerns:

> Practice gets a raw deal in applied linguistics. Most lay-people simply assume that practice is a necessary condition for language learning without giving the concept much further thought, but many applied linguists eschew the term *practice.*

There is, however, some evidence which suggests that output practice can have a positive impact on acquisition of target forms. Muaranoi, (2007), reviews a number of different studies in this area, many of which we discussed in 2.2.7 above. He suggests, in contrast to VanPatten and Cadierno (1993) that studies which compare input processing with output practice seem to suggest that output practice has a beneficial impact upon productive language usage and input processing benefits receptive skills. Muranoi also suggests that the results of the research vary depending on whether the practice is pre-communicative or communicative and some studies which cast doubt upon the benefits of output practice (for example, VanPatten and Cadierno 1993) have often employed only pre-communicative practice.

Despite this evidence, there are few studies which specifically focus on the impact of output practice on the acquisition of spoken grammar. As we have noted in 1.1, this may be simply because this is a relatively 'new' area of language. One exception is the study we described in 2.2.7, which investigated the acquisition of spoken Japanese discourse markers (Yoshimi 2001) and produced results which demonstrated the benefits of output practice on the acquisition of these forms.

2.3.9   Summary

These sections have attempted to show the influence of both noticing and the Output

Hypothesis on ELT classroom practice in general. It is clear that both have influenced ELT

classroom practice at the level of methodology and in the use of particular classroom activities.

In relation to the teaching of spoken grammar, it is clear that noticing has had more influence,

at least up to this point. This may be because research into spoken grammar is itself relatively

new and thus its influence on classroom pedagogy has yet to develop. It may also be that

researchers believe that helping students to notice is a more valuable use of classroom time

than practising specific forms. There is also a view held by some researchers that optional

elements of speech such as DMs are not essential to teach (for example, Hellermann and

Vergun 2007:177).

2.4   Chapter summary

This review has attempted to give an overview of the literature which defines DMs, before

exploring the development of second language acquisition research with regard to noticing and

the Output Hypothesis. It has then attempted to demonstrate how this research has influenced

ELT classroom pedagogy and in particular, the teaching of spoken grammar. The available

literature highlights the difficulty of providing a definition of a DM but acknowledges that the

large body of research does provide clear guidelines in regard to the typical characteristics of

one. The literature also demonstrates the lack of conclusive proof that either conscious noticing

alone, 'pushed' output or practice as defined above, are essential for acquisition. There is,

however, some evidence to substantiate the claims made for both theories and arguments can

of course be made that both may contribute to acquisition in different ways (DeKeyser and

Sokalski 1996, 2001, Jones 2007, 2009, 2010). Indeed, it could be argued that both noticing the

input and providing output practice are required for an optimal teaching approach (see for

example, Fotos and Hinkel 2007). However, it has also been noted that there are relatively few

studies contrasting the effect of input-based classroom approaches with output-based ones and

that there is an unfortunate tendency in many studies not to solicit learners' views regarding

approaches, methods or frameworks. This particularly applies to the lack of research data

relating to the teaching and acquisition of spoken grammar and DMs. Whilst the body of

research about spoken discourse markers highlights their importance, there is a clear need for

greater research into how they might best be taught in the ELT classroom, research which needs to take into account learners' views of different types of instruction. In particular, there would seem to be value in comparing two explicit teaching frameworks, III and PPP, the first of which is based on language awareness and the second on a 'weak' version of CLT. In doing so, we are trying to discover which has a greater impact of the learners' ability to produce the target DMs and which framework the learners themselves think is more effective in terms of how it helps them to learn them. In the next chapter, we will report on a pilot study which investigated these different frameworks.

3   Teaching spoken discourse markers: a pilot study

3.0   Chapter introduction

In order to undertake an initial investigation of the research questions, a pilot study was

conducted using two groups of learners. It was felt that the study would produce a small

amount of qualitative and quantitative data, which would offer partial answers to the research

questions set (see 3.1.4, below). The aim of the pilot study was therefore exploratory: it was

hoped that the data would prove illuminating in terms of refining the research questions and to

act as a testing ground for the format of the study, which could then lead to a revised format in

the main study. What follows is an outline and rationale of the pilot study design and a

discussion and review of the results. There is a fuller discussion and justification of the

methodology used for the main study in chapter four, alongside explanations and rationales of

changes made as a result of the pilot study.

3.1   Study design and methodology

The study was carried out in the UK at the University of Central Lancashire (hereafter

UCLAN) and investigated the teaching and learning of DMs. It involved eight intermediate

learners in the UK, taught for two hours a day for five days.

Each group was given a focus on the same DMs and both were taught by the researcher to

eliminate any possible variation in teaching style or interpretation of each framework. One

group were taught through an III framework (hereafter the III group), which did not require

them to practise the target language. The second group were taught through a

presentation/practice framework (hereafter the PPP group) and were given opportunities to

practise the target language during the lessons. Lessons were designed to cover all the

functions of the discourse markers listed below in table three. An overview of the lessons can

be found in appendix one. Each group was given a pre- and immediate post-test consisting of

an interactive, paired spoken test, at CEFR level B2 (see appendix two for the test prompts

used). The original intention was to offer an immediate and delayed post-test of six weeks.

However, due to the learners' commitments, it proved impossible to offer a delayed test and

only an immediate post-test was undertaken. Students were given no instructions to use DMs in

the tests and each test was recorded and analysed to assess the frequency with which students

used the chosen DMs prior to the lesson input and immediately after it. Students were also

marked according to the test criteria, which assessed their grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary, interactive ability and discourse management and gave them a global score, using standardised criteria (see appendix three for the full criteria). The scores of most interest in this study were the interactive ability, discourse management and global marks as it was felt that the use of the target DMs could positively impact upon these scores and not upon aspects such as pronunciation or grammar.

The global mark provides an overall impression of the candidate's ability at this level. Interactive ability and discourse management are defined in the criteria in the following ways:

1. Discourse Management

Consistently makes extensive, coherent and relevant contributions to the achievement of the task. (Top score of 5).

Monosyllabic responses. Performance lacks relevance and coherence throughout. (Score of 1).

2. Interactive ability

Sustained interaction in both initiating and responding which facilitates fluent communication. Very sensitive to turn-taking. (Top score of 5).

Fails to initiate and/or respond. The interaction breaks down as a result of persistent hesitation. The norms of turn-taking are not observed. (Score of 1).

To ensure reliability, both the researcher and an experienced colleague (a senior lecturer in ELT) listened to recordings of the tests and both agreed on the overall band scores of candidates and the pre- and post-test counts of DMs used.

Students were also asked to keep a learning diary throughout the week of lessons and were asked to reflect upon what they had learnt and the classroom methods with which they had been taught. Students were given a sample diary entry (see appendix four for diary samples and guidance sheet given to learners) and asked to write in English if possible, or in their first language if this proved to be too difficult. Students gave the researcher access to these diaries at the end of the pilot study and the learner comments were then coded into themes, which we will discuss in the data analysis section of this chapter.

Following completion of the classes, semi-structured interviews were conducted with one student from each group to provide a more extensive discussion of the study (see appendix five for the full transcript of each interview). Again, comments from each learner were coded into common themes, which are also discussed in the data analysis section of this chapter.

3.1.1   Participants

Each group was made up of four multilingual adult learners randomly assigned to each treatment group. The following nationalities were represented: Chinese (two learners), Iranian (one learner), Polish (one learner), Saudi Arabian (one learner), Turkish (one learner), Italian (one learner) and Libyan (one learner). The learners ranged in age from twenty one to thirty two. Six learners were studying on pre-sessional English courses at UCLAN, one was working as an au pair in the local area and the other was a PhD student at the university. Both these students also took part in free English classes at UCLAN, given by trainee TESOL teachers. All students were at broadly intermediate level B2 on the CEFR ability scales (Council of Europe 2001:24) and had been rated as such either through a formal test at the beginning of their course in the case of the pre-sessional learners, or through an informal judgement of an experienced teacher in the case of the two learner taking free classes. This level has been broadly defined as an 'independent user' with the following competencies:

> 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. (Council of Europe 2001:24).

3.1.2   Aims

The aim of the study was to seek initial answers to the following research questions:

1. Is there a difference in frequency of target DMs in student output (pre- to post-test) when taught the target DMs (see table three below), using the following two frameworks:

 a) A language awareness framework (III) or

b) A presentation/practice approach framework (PPP)?

2. What are students' subjective perceptions of what they have learnt and the different classroom methods with which they have been taught?

3. Do students perceive one approach to be more effective than the other?

3.1.3   Rationale for study design

As we have noted above, the research design was intended to follow in the tradition of classroom research, which will be discussed in more depth in chapter four. There was also a deliberate decision to pursue a mixed methods approach to data collection (Dornyei 2007:163), that is, to mix quantitative and qualitative data collection. Whilst we will discuss this in more detail in chapter four, the rationale for this choice is worth discussing in brief at this stage.

The rationale for the use of a mixed methods approach to data collection was to 'achieve a fuller understanding of a target phenomenon' (Dornyei 2007:164), than either a purely quantitative or qualitative study might allow. This firstly necessitated a pre- and post-test, which allowed for quantitative data to be collected. This followed in the tradition of studies we have discussed above, such as VanPatten and Cadierno (1993), which compared input and output-based teaching approaches by means of quantitative pre- and post-tests. The chosen test, trialled and in commercial would act as a valid, objective measure of students' speech, particularly in the areas of their interactive ability, discourse management and global scores, where it was considered that the usage of the target DMs could have a positive impact. It was also felt that the paired test format would allow the type of interaction which would give opportunities for learners to use the target DMs, although, as mentioned, they were not given any instruction to use them in either test. Naturally, this meant that students could avoid any use of DMs but it was felt that this was a risk worth taking, as the DMs were for use in spoken contexts. A more targeted, written test (for example, Van Patten and Cadierno 1993, DeKeyser and Sokalski 1996, 2001) would not be a valid means of measuring spoken language because it would not measure students' ability to use the target DMs freely in their own spoken output.

It was also felt, in line with the arguments made in the literature review, that learners' subjective impressions of different learning approaches have tended to be neglected in

classroom-based research with a similar design to this (for example, VanPatten and Cadierno 1993, Ellis and Nobuyoshi 1993, DeKeyser and Sokalski 1996, 2001). Although perhaps a simplistic notion, is seems reasonable to suggest that if learners perceive a classroom approach to be useful, then we must accept this as a valid perception, even if it runs contrary to our own beliefs about learning and teaching. It was also felt that although an objective measurement could demonstrate which DMs were used and how interactive ability, discourse management and global marks changed from pre- to post-test; this alone would only act as one measure of the two frameworks. This necessitated combining quantitative data with two qualitative measures: a diary study and follow up guided interviews.

The data collected from the diaries was intended to provide a snapshot of learners' perceptions of both the lesson content and the different methodological approaches of each class. They were, in short, intended to provide introspective evaluative data. Noting the difficulties mentioned of writing in the second language, learners were encouraged to write diaries in English but could write in their first language if needed, although none chose to do so. In order to help them with this, they were provided with a sample diary entry at the beginning of the course and instructions to consider both what was studied and how it was studied. This is provided in appendix four. It was felt that learners at this level might struggle to produce much language without some kind of guiding model, although it must be acknowledged that such an approach may have resulted in the learners' writing what they perceived as being expected of them. As a result, the diaries may not have provided a complete picture of the learners' thoughts at the time of the study. This is something which Nunan (1992:123) suggests is a potential weakness in diary studies. Despite this potential weakness in the data, it was felt that the alternative procedure, not providing the learners with a model, would be unlikely to produce enough data to analyse, taking into account their level of proficiency.

Given the small scale of this study, it was decided to conduct interviews with one member of each group. All course members were given the opportunity to volunteer to be interviewed and the first two volunteers were chosen, student S 01 and S 05. The interviews took a semi-structured format with questions prompts and follow ups used as a basis for the interview but the learners had the freedom to produce other answers which arose from the questions. Following Richards (2003:70), the interviews started with a 'grand tour' question, allowing for

a very open and generalised response. The purpose of this was to relax the interviewee and give them an opportunity to say anything they wished to say about the study which may have been forgotten after a series of questions. The interviews then moved on to more specific prompts, which followed the pattern closed question /open question/ follow ups. The intention was to make it easy for the interviewee to respond initially (Richards 2003:71), before asking a mixture of more open follow ups. The reason for this choice was to try to elicit as much as possible from learners.

3.1.4 Rationale for sample size

The choice of participants was largely a case of what Dornyei (2007:98) has termed 'convenience sampling'. The students who participated in the pilot study, as we have noted, were mainly learners at UCLAN and were willing to volunteer for ten hours of extra classes. Both pre-sessional students and those taking free classes were asked to participate and the first eight volunteers who came forward were accepted. As the students were all at broadly B2 level, they were accepted as participants, despite some slight variations in their level. The fact that students selected themselves to take part in the study may mean they were more motivated and willing to learn than students from a random sample of international students at UCLAN and this may have affected the results to a certain extent. The two participants for the follow up interviews also self-selected (students were asked to volunteer and the first two volunteers were chosen) and this may also have affected the results to a certain extent. However, it can also be argued that the students represented the average ability for ESL/EAP learners at UCLAN (University of Central Lancashire 2011) and that the range of nationalities was reasonably representative of the student population at UCLAN. The size of the sample was lower than the average fifteen students per group recommended for such a study design (Dornyei 2007:99) but we have acknowledged that the main purpose of the study was exploratory, and the small sample size was chosen for purposes of controlling the volume of data, given that this was intended as a pilot study.

3.1.5 Form focus and pedagogy

There is no definitive list of the most common or indeed useful DMs; therefore a decision had to be made about which ones to teach. As we have noted in the introduction to this thesis, DMs have not generally featured in ELT materials so do not feature as tried and trusted items at B2

level in the way that more 'traditional' features of grammar, such as the tense system, might. The DMs chosen are given in table three and a rationale for their choice follows this.

For the purposes of this study, III was taken to mean a lesson framework which helped students to notice features of the input but not to practise them within the classroom, something Tomlinson (in Bolitho et al 2003:252) suggests is a key feature of a language awareness approach. It was hoped to raise students' awareness of the role which context plays in shaping DM use and to develop what Carter (in Bolitho *et al.* 2003:252) has termed 'text awareness', by using activities which encouraged learners to notice differences between spoken and written texts and between their L1 and the target DMs.

We have previously defined PPP somewhat in contrast to III in that it is a framework 'aimed at developing automatic habits largely through classroom processes of modelling, repetition and controlled practice' (Thornbury (2007:38). In this study, the use of activities aimed specifically at practising the target language was taken as the defining difference between these two frameworks. Within the III classes, students discussed features of the texts chosen (namely the use of the DMs) and were given activities to help to sensitise them to the context and usage and to help them notice these features in texts, in the hope that this might lead to noticing in input outside the lessons and thus their subsequent acquisition. Within PPP classes, students were also given activities to help them to understand the DMs from the context but were then given pre-communicative, contextualised and communicative practice of the language items, in the belief that this may help students to automatise and thus be able to produce these DMs outside the classroom. In both classes students were taught explicitly about the form and function of DMs as can be seen in the sample lesson procedures that follow.

The target DMs are given in table three and table four gives an example of the two different frameworks. The aim and focus of each lesson can be found in appendix one and the lesson procedures, from lesson one, demonstrate the different types of instruction used. The contrast between the procedures essentially comes in the last stage of each lesson, which I have termed 'noticing tasks' and 'practice tasks' but the names of the stages have been changed so that each framework can be easily distinguished.

Table 3 Target discourse markers and their functions (pilot study)

Function	Discourse markers	Examples
Opening conversations/topics	Right, So	*Right*, shall we start? *So*, what do you think about the cuts?
Closing conversations and topic boundaries	Right, Anyway, Well	*Right /well,* I think that's everything. *Anyway*, I'd better go, I'll see you next week.
Monitoring shared knowledge	You see, You know	*You see,* since I've hurt my back I can't walk very well. The weather in England is, *you know*, pretty awful.
Response tokens	Right	A. I think we should go there first. B. *Right*.
Reformulating	I mean, Mind you	I don't like English food. *I mean,* some of it is OK but most of it I don't like. The weather in England is terrible. *Mind you*, I guess it's OK sometimes.
Pausing	Well	A. What do you think of the plan? B. *Well,* let's see…I guess it's a good idea.
Sequencing	In the end, First, Then,	*First,* we started walking quickly… *Then*, we started running… *In the end*, we managed to escape.
Shifting	Well	A. Do you live in Preston? B. *Well*, near Preston.
Resuming	Anyway, As I was saying, Where was I?	Erm, yeah, *anyway,* we started walking really fast Erm, yeah *as I was saying,* we started walking really fast Erm, *where was I*? We started walking fast and then started running.
Introducing examples	Like	I think being healthy is much more important so you need to have, *like*, green food.
Justifying	'Cos	I don't want to go *cos* it's too expensive.

Table 4 Sample lesson procedures: III and PPP (pilot and main study)

III	PPP
Illustration	**Presentation**
1. Students discuss in pairs/as a group the kind of things they like doing at the weekend.	1. Students discuss in pairs/as a group the kind of things they like doing at the weekend.
2. Students are given a task – talk to partner and find out three things partner did last weekend – time limit of two /three minutes.	2. Students are given a task – talk to partner and find out three things partner did last weekend – time limit of two /three minutes.
3. Class feedback.	3. Class feedback.
4. Students listen to tape of two native speakers completing the same task.	4. Students listen to tape of two native speakers completing the same task.
5. Students listen and write down what they notice is different about the language in this conversation compared to theirs.	5 Students listen and write down what they notice is different about the language in this conversation compared to theirs
6. If needed, students listen again and note down any specific phrases they noticed were used in this conversation which they did not use.	6. (If needed) –Students listen again and note down any specific phrases they noticed were used in this conversation which they did not use.
7. Students are given tapescript with the DMs in the dialogue blanked out. They discuss what they think is missing from each space. They then listen and check.	7. Students are given tapescipt with the DMs in the dialogue blanked out. They discuss what they think is missing from each space. They then listen and check.
8. Students are then asked to group the DMs according to their function as follows:	8. Students are then asked to group the DMs according to their function as follows:
a) Starting the conversation.	a) Starting the conversation.
b) Showing you want to finish the conversation.	b) Showing you want to finish the conversation.
c) Showing you wish to slightly change what you have just said.	c) Showing you wish to slightly change what you have just said.
d) Showing you are listening.	d) Showing you are listening.
9. Class discussion and agreement.	9. Class discussion and agreement.
Noticing tasks (Induction/Interaction)	**Practice tasks (Practice/Production)**
10. Students are given a new version of the tapescript with DMs in wrong/unlikely places. Students discuss and 'correct' the tapescript.	10. Students are asked to write a mini conversation together using as many of the DMs featured as possible. Pairs read out their conversations to the group (pre-communicative practice). Group correction and drilling of errors with target DMs.
11. Students are asked to translate a section of the conversation into L1, and then back translate into English. They then discuss and analyse any differences between their translation and the original tapescript.	11. Students asked to have their original conversation about plans for the weekend again with a different partner. This time they are given the DMs featured on cards and must try to use them as much as possible in the conversation (contextualised practice).
12. Class discussion	12. Feedback: students perform dialogues in front of the class and teacher corrects /gives feedback.
13. Students discuss (in pairs and as a class) whether the DMs featured are easy to translate into L1 or not.	

3.1.6   Rationale for form focus and pedagogy

The discourse markers were chosen largely on the basis of their frequency within the CANCODE corpus of spoken British English, as listed in Carter and McCarthy (2006).Within the short time allowed for the study, it was important to limit the number of discourse markers that were focused upon. It was felt that frequency provides a useful starting point for DM selection, an argument that has been made more generally in regard to the teaching of lexis by Adolphs and Schmidt (2003). However, it is important to acknowledge that frequency is not the only basis on which selection could be made. Lewis (1993), for instance, argues that a teacher's intuition should also play an important role when selecting which lexis to focus upon in class and we might also argue that language which may occur frequently only in a certain context, is indeed useful in that context. The DMs were therefore also chosen because it was decided that each represents common referential, cognitive, interpersonal and structural functions given by Fung and Carter (2007), which would be useful to students in this ESL context.

The frameworks were differentiated in this way because it was felt that this fitted the description we have given of each in chapter two. The stages in the PPP lessons followed the outline of this framework given by Byrne (1986), Gabrielatos (1994) and Lindsay and Knight (2006), which has been described in section 2.3.6. These authors all suggest that the first ('present') stage involves an inductive or deductive 'showing' of the grammar in some kind of context, including an explicit focus on forms(s) and meaning. As noted in table two, the most common theoretical interpretation is that this presentation stage is inductive so this was also the case in the study. This meant that learners were exposed to the DMs in context first (for example, in a dialogue). They were then given simple comprehension tasks which checked they understood the general meaning of the language in the context, before an explicit focus on the target DMs, with questions being given to check what the target items meant and how they were formed. This was followed by a practice stage including activities which practised the target DMs in a controlled way, with the control being slightly 'loosened' as each new activity was introduced, as consistent with the model of PPP given by the authors mentioned above. Students were, for example, drilled on the target items to establish good pronunciation and then asked, for example, to create a simple dialogue using the target DMs and this was then drilled

and repeated as a class and in pairs several times. Lessons then included a production stage, which allowed learners to use the target DMs in 'freer', contextualised practice activities, incorporating the target language with other aspects of language needed to complete the task. For example, learners were asked to talk to a partner about their plans for the weekend but had to use as many of the target DMs as possible in the conversation. Finally, each stage was also progressively longer than the other, with the production tasks taking the longest time, something consistent with the model of PPP presented by Byrne (1986).

The stages used in the III framework were based upon suggestions given by McCarthy and Carter (1995) and Timmis (2005). As we have noted, III differs from PPP in that it places less emphasis on isolating a particular form and then attempting to 'perfect' it through various forms of practice. This was taken to be the first key difference between the frameworks and at no stage were the III group given any activities which isolated and practised the forms, in the way we have described in the PPP framework. Secondly, III seeks to replace practice activities with ones which encourage noticing, in the sense we have defined the term in the literature review. This was taken to be the second key difference. This meant that the illustration stage was the same as the present stage in the PPP framework. Learners were exposed to the DMs in context first and then given simple comprehension tasks which checked they understood the general meaning of the language in the context, before an explicit focus on the target DMs, with questions being given to check what the target items meant and how they were formed. The interaction stage involved learners examining the language in context again but this time, interacting with it to begin the process of noticing. They were, for example, shown dialogues with the target DMs being used incorrectly and asked to discuss and notice what the errors were and why they were incorrect. The induction stage involved learners in activities designed to encourage them to notice differences between the target DMs in their L1 and the L2 and between spoken and written modes of language. Some activities, for example, required learners to translate part of a dialogue containing the target DMs into their L1 and then back into English from this translation and then to discuss the differences. There are no indications given in McCarthy and Carter (1995) regarding the length of each stage but in general the interaction and induction stages took longer than the initial illustration stage.

3.1.7   Summary

This section has given an overview of the structure and content of the pilot study. We have noted that the study attempted to teach a number of frequent spoken discourse markers, through two distinct classroom frameworks: the language awareness-based III and the output/practice-based PPP. The defining difference between the approaches was taken to be the use of practice activities compared to the use of noticing activities. In the III group, students were given activities which helped them to notice features of the form, meaning and use of the DMs, such as how they differed from their L1. They were not, however, asked to use the DMs in classroom practice. The PPP group, on the other hand, were given activities to help them practise the DMs in focus.

We have also noted the three ways the effect of the approaches was measured. First, a quantitative comparison of the DMs was made using a pre- and post-study speaking test and a measurement of interactive ability, discourse management and global scores. This was complemented by a qualitative diary study and guided interviews to gather data on learners' impression of both the class content and differing teaching approaches. Having explained the study design, we will now move on to a discussion of the results.

3.2.   Introduction to quantitative data results

The results below show the overall pre- and post-test scores, based on the UCLAN marking criteria, shown in full in appendix three. The minimum score is zero and the maximum score is five in each case. As noted previously, the tests were rated by the researcher and an experienced colleague (a senior lecturer in ELT). The test scores are followed by an analysis of the use of the DMs used in each test by each group. Each set of data will be discussed in turn.

3.2.1 Pre-test and post-test achievement scores

Table 5 Pre-test scores: III group (pilot study)

Student	Grammar	Vocabulary	Pronunciation	Discourse management	Interactive ability	Global score
S 01	4	4.5	5	4.5	4.5	5
S 02	4	4.5	4	4	4.5	4.5
S 03	4	4	3.5	3	3.5	4
S 04	4	3	4	3	4	3.5

Mean global score = **4.25**

Mean 'discourse management' score = **3.625**

Mean 'interactive ability' score = **4.125**

Table 6 Post-test scores: III group (pilot study)

Student	Grammar	Vocabulary	Pronunciation	Discourse management	Interactive ability	Global score
S 01	4.5	4.5	5	5	5	5
S 02	4.5	4.5	4	5	5	5
S 03	4	4	3.5	3.5	4	4.5
S 04	4	3.5	4	3.5	4	4

Mean global score = **4.625**

Mean 'discourse management' score = **4.25**

Mean 'interactive ability' score = **4.5**

Table 7 Pre-test scores: PPP group (pilot study)

Student	Grammar	Vocabulary	Pronunciation	Discourse management	Interactive ability	Global score
S 05	5	4.5	3	4	4	4.5
S 06	3.5	3	3.5	3	3	3
S 07	3	3	3	2.5	2.5	2.5
S 08	3	3	2	3	3.5	3.0

Mean global score = **3.25**

Mean 'discourse management' score = **3.125**

Mean 'interactive ability' score: = **3.25**

Table 8 Post-test scores: PPP group (pilot study)

Student	Grammar	Vocabulary	Pronunciation	Discourse management	Interactive ability	Global score
S 05	5	4.5	3	4	4	4.5
S 06	3.5	3	3.5	3.5	4	3.5
S 07	3	3	3	3	3	3
S 08	3	3	2.5	3.5	3.5	3.5

Mean global score = **3.625**

Mean 'discourse management' score = **3.5**

Mean 'interactive ability' score = **3.625**

3.2.2   Analysis of achievement scores

It is clear from the pre- and post-test scores that all participants showed only very slight improvements in their global speaking scores from pre- to post-test, the global mean improving slightly, from 4.25 to 4.625 for the III group and from 3.25 to 3.625 for the PPP group. These results can be accounted for by both the restricted time given to the study and the possibility that participants had become more familiar with the test format, which Dornyei (2007:53) has termed the 'practice effect'. Therefore, it would be difficult to suggest that the participants spoken level had improved in any significant way as a result of the classes. What we can note is that the majority of students in both groups increased their scores for both the 'discourse management' and 'interactive ability'.

The results show a mean increase in these scores amongst both groups, as we can see in the tables below:

Table 9 Pre- and post-test mean scores and gains for discourse management and interactive ability: III group (pilot study)

III group	Pre-test mean	Post-test mean	Gain
Discourse management	3.625	4.25	+ 0.625
Interactive ability	4.125	4.5	+ 0.375

Table 10 Pre- and post-test mean scores and gains for discourse management and interactive ability: PPP group (pilot study)

PPP group	Pre-test mean	Post-test mean	Gain
Discourse management	3.125	3.5	+ 0.375
Interactive ability	3.25	3.625	+ 0.375

Whilst these gains are only small, and statistically would not be considered significant, they do indicate that the teaching of DMs did at least have some positive impact on the learners' ability to manage their own discourse and interaction, with the gains in discourse management being slightly greater in the case of the III group. Examples of the target DMs in use can be seen in the samples below, taken from the post-test recordings of both groups. These samples are not intended to be exhaustive but they do illustrate DMs being used to manage interaction and individual learners' turns. These samples are followed by tables eleven to fourteen, which show the amount of target DMs used by each group in the pre- and post-tests.

Interaction patterns are shown in order to reflect the different types of interaction in each phase of the test. The patterns are: teacher to students (T-SS) (part 1), student to student (S-S) (part 2) and teacher to students and student to student (T-SS, S-S) (part 3).The function of each target DM is indicated in brackets in cases where there were different functions of the same DM taught. Each DM is highlighted in bold. Interviewer prompts (<S 00>) have been included for clarity where needed and students are shown as <S 01>, <S 02> etc. Students' responses have not been corrected. Full transcription conventions are given in appendix nine.

III group

Part 1 (T-SS)

<S 00>: Err, what's the transport like in your city?

<S 02>: Erm, **you know**, in Istanbul the traffic is mess **you know**, nobody can find a till now, **you know**.

<S 00>: How important do you think it is to learn about other cultures?

< S 01 >: **Well (PAUSING)**, err, culture. First thing, I think, err, I have to talk about myself because I always love to learn about other cultures.

<S 00>: What kind of music do you like to listen to?

<S 04 >: **Well (PAUSING)**, actually, there's no one, no specific music.

<S 03>: When I was young I like err, read, err, for example, yellow book or horror book, but now I prefer read something more lighter, lighter, and err, **like** err, for example love, about love.

Part 2 (S-S)

< S 01>: Let me start with the first question about Internet and online business. Err, sometimes in buying from Internet is, err, not safe because you, you, **you know**, you don't feel the thingy that you want to buy, stuff that you want to buy but the, how can I say, the, **I mean**, the system of shopping on Internet is perfectly safe.

< S 02>: If I send it back to China, **you know**, they will send it back to me.

<S 02>: You can use err, a similar, like a debit card, is not because there are …

<S 01>: No, **I mean**, when you want to buy something the PayPal it will become in the middle.

Part 3 (T-SS, S-S)

< S 02>: I don't know what to buy for them because, **you know**, I'm happy with books.

<S 00>: Do you think men enjoy shopping?

<S 02>: **Well (SHIFTING)**, it depends.

PPP group

Part 1 (T-S)

<S 00 >: What do you do to keep healthy?

<S 07>: Take exercise and, err, **you know**, there's no time for me to do err, running exercise so I just keep the food healthy to my, for my body.

< S 08>: But some countries have lot of beautiful view and have beautiful building, **you know**, Europe is, err, very old so I think I will err, travel around Europe.

<S 00>: Is there any way that your town or city, where you're from, could be improved do you think?

 <S 06 >: **Well (PAUSING)**, we, no, always we improve.

Part 2 (S-S)

< S 07>: **So,** S 08, do you agree that Internet is a safe place to shop?

<S 08>: Yes, I agree with this. In fact I have bought lot of things from Internet (<S 07>: **Right (RESPONDING)**).

<S 07>: Do you think that they are safe for us?

<S 08>: Yes, because that's why we have some law, **you know**, hmm, sometimes you must use some software your computer.

<S 01>: It's individual about the film, **you know**, **I mean**, I prefer children spend time about studying.

Part 3 (T-SS, S-S)

<S 00 >: OK, imagine your friend tells you about a great book. Would you read it or would you prefer to go and see the film?

<S 06>: **Well (Pausing)**, err, I ask him to give me some information about that, **then** I prefer watching.

3.2.3   Pre- and post-test use of discourse markers

The tables below show the amount of the target DMs used by students in both groups in pre-

and post-tests.

Table 11 Pre-test usage of target DMs: III group (pilot study)

Student	You know	Like	Individual mean (all DMs)
S 01	13	0	0.65
S 02	33	1	1.70
S 03	0	1	0.05
S 04	0	0	0
Group Mean (per DM used)	11.50	0.50	Group mean (all DMs) 0.12

Table 12 Post-test usage of target DMs: III group (pilot study)
ST = student, R = responding, P = pausing, S = shifting, IM = individual mean.

ST	You see	You know	Right (R)	I mean	Well (P)	First	Well (S)	Like	IM (all DMs)
S 01	1	19	0	3	2	0	1	1	1.35
S 02	0	51	0	4	0	0	0	0	2.75
S 03	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0.05
S 04	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0.10
Group mean (per DM used)	0.25	17.50	0.25	1.75	0.50	0.25	0.50	0.25	Group mean (all DMs) 0.2125

Table 13 Pre-test usage of target DMs: PPP group (pilot study)

Student	You know	Like	Individual mean (all DMs)
S 05	0	0	0.00
S 06	0	0	0.00
S 07	0	1	0.05
S 08	2	0	0.10
Group Mean (per DM used)	0.50	0.25	Group mean (all DMs) 0.0075

Table 14 Post-test usage of target DMs: PPP group (pilot study)
ST = student, R= responding, P = pausing, S= shifting, IM = individual mean.

ST	So	You know	Right (R)	I mean	Well (P)	First	Then	Well (S)	IM (all DMs)
S 05	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0.05
S 06	2	6	1	3	3	0	0	0	0.75
S 07	1	2	1	0	0	1	1	1	0.35
S 08	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.15
Group mean (per DM used)	0.75	2.75	0.75	0.75	0.75	0.25	0.25	0.25	Group mean (all DMs) 0.065

3.2.4   Analysis of quantitative results

The uses of DMs by each group show some clear changes. Both groups showed a rise in the use of DMs from pre- to post-test. In the initial tests, shown in tables eleven and thirteen above, the use of DMs by both groups was restricted to just two markers, 'you know' and 'like', and the number of uses was, on the whole, limited. Several learners used none of the target DMs in their test. The exceptions to this pattern were students S 01 and S 02, two members of the III group, who employed 'you know' thirteen and thirty three times respectively. This use of 'you know' is difficult to account for precisely but it is possible to suggest at least three reasons. First, the high frequency of 'you know' in British spoken English (Carter and McCarthy 2006) may mean students will have been exposed to it in input many times, given that all learners were living and studying in the UK. Second, the higher global level of both learners may have meant they were ready to notice and thus acquire this DM from the input they were exposed to. Third, each student may have found success using 'you know' as part of a speaking strategy, perhaps as a means of pausing or filling a space in the stream of speech, something which may also have contributed to their high scores in 'discourse management' and 'interactive ability'.

Overall though, the rise in use of DMs across both groups was worthy of note. Both groups showed an overall increase in the amount of DMs used. The III group showed a rise in total use of DMs to 85 from 48 uses in the pre-test, a rise of 37 uses. The PPP group, on the other hand, showed a rise in total use of DMs to 26, an increase of 23 uses from the pre-test. On the surface, this would seem to suggest that the III group made the largest gains in overall use of DMs. However, a closer analysis reveals that much of the rise in usage here can be accounted for, again, by the high instances of usage of 'you know' by both S 01 and S 02. In the case of S 02 particularly, 51 uses of 'you know' in the post-test account for a significant percentage of the total use of DMs. When looking at other participants, it is also clear that the PPP group showed a rise in usage amongst all participants, which was not the case with all members of the III group. S 03, for instance, only made one use of a DM in both pre- and post-tests. Also of significance is the range of DMs employed by each group in the pre- and post-test. Although this increased in both cases, the range of DMs used in the post-test was slightly wider with regard to the PPP group.

In the pre-test, the III group used only 'you know' and 'like', while in the post-test, there were uses of 'you see', 'you know', ' right' (response) , 'I mean' , 'well' (pausing), 'first', 'well' (shifting), and 'like', meaning six new DMs were employed. In comparison, the PPP group also used 'you know' and 'like' in the pre-test but then used 'So'(opening), 'you know', 'right' (response), 'I mean', 'well (pausing)', 'first', 'then' , 'well' (shifting). This means seven new DMs were employed.

3.2.5   Discussion of quantitative results

These results indicate that both approaches increased the use of DMs overall in both groups and there was an improvement in their mean scores for 'discourse management' and 'interactive ability'. This increase is slightly more noteworthy in the case of the PPP group because there was a wider range of DMs across the group as a whole and each member of the group showed an increase in their use of the target DMs. This may indicate that the use of a PPP framework had a greater impact on the usage of the target DMs but this must be a tentative conclusion, due to several factors. First, if we accept that an III framework hopes to help students to notice features of their input in class, which students can apply to their subsequent input outside of class, it is likely that this process will take some time and certainly more than the one week allowed for this pilot study. Second, the restrictions of the study design did not allow for a control group to measure either group against. Third, the overall lower level of the PPP group (as indicated by the pre-test global scores) may have impacted on their use of the DMs presented to them. Put simply, they may have made use of the DMs because they had more need to increase their lexical resources than the III group. Fourth, the classroom framework may have contributed to the students' notion of what was expected of them in the post-test. Although learners were not given any instruction to use DMs in either test, the PPP group may have been primed to use the DMs in the test as they had been prompted to do so in classroom activities.

3.2.6   Summary

This section has shown that both groups marginally increase their global achievement scores comparing pre- and post-test results. We have acknowledged that there is little significance in this result and it may be accounted for by learners' familiarity with the test format. It has also shown that both groups increased their use of DMs comparing pre- and post-test results, with a slightly wider range of DMs used in the post-test by the PPP group. While this may indicate both frameworks can aid at least short term retention of DMs, we would not seek to make bold claims for the effect on acquisition given that the post-test was run immediately after the study and that the results were not measured against a control group. The difference in the two frameworks may also be accounted for by the marginally different level of the two groups and the PPP approach 'priming' students to make greater use of DMs in their post-test.

As we have discussed, the intention of the study was not to look at these results in isolation but rather in tandem with qualitative data detailing the students' perceptions of the approaches. It is to this we will turn next.

3.3   Results, analysis and implications of qualitative data 1

We have noted the reasons for the use of qualitative data collection in our methodology rationale above. The two methods of data collection were learner diaries (qualitative data 1) and semi-structured interviews (qualitative data 2). In this section the results from each set of data are discussed in turn.

3.3.1   Results of the diary study

The results of the diaries were coded into the following two categories: learners' descriptions of class content and views on class methods. Initially, a sample of entries for three days has been made from learners in the different groups in order to present a contrast between the different views expressed. These samples have been divided into comments about class content and class methods. Following analysis of this initial overview, there is a more detailed discussion of comments from each group. Student comments have not been corrected and full samples of two diary entries are available in appendix four.

Comments about class content

Day one

S 08 (PPP) Last weekend/next weekend our headmost topic. You don't need to worry about there will be no content to talk comparing to native speaker teacher let us listen to a dialog. In fact, I had no idea then. Until teacher gave me the original text. When I saw the paper easier. So my listening is poorer than reading. Discourse markers for instance so, you know, I mean, anyway, well, right, etc. I studies there are six meanings for different words. I think this is the Queen's English.

S 02 (III) Today's topic was 'discourse markers'. We listened to a short conversation of two native speakers. It was obvious they used many discourse markers within the conversation and we did few.

Day two

S 07 (PPP) Yesterday we have learned how to use 'right' and 'well' in spoken English. We knew both of them another meaning today. At first we listened three parts dialogue about post office and answered some questions. After that we need to find out 'right' and 'well' from the dialogue. At that time we knew the meaning of the two words.

S 04 (III) Today the lesson was about 'service encounter' 'post office'. The lesson takes three kinds of activities. First we listened to three types of conversation and make notes and also answer the following questions. Secondly, the teacher gave us a transcript of the conversation that we listened to and discuss about the word, the pattern of speech and found the discourses markers.

Day three

S 06 (PPP) We studied a dangerous thing you have done and to tell our story to people and what kind of language we used in a story. We learnt how to order when we tell story for example starting signal, time, place, problem and solution. Finally we studied how to give some details then came back to continue what you were talking about, for example 'anyway'

S 01 (III) We started with a light conversation with our partner about dangerous things that we have done. I think it was a good warm up to engage with the day's topic.We focused on spoken language and we started with some new vocabulary which we needed to know before listening to the story, which happened to Chris many years ago. A certain order to tell a story is like a standard way in spoken language and in story either. You can find the order as follows: starting signal, time/places, background details, problem, solution, evaluation.

Comments about methods

Day one

S 08 (PPP) During the third part teacher gave us some small card to use the word in the card to practice using the new way. It's like a game. It was my favourite part. Also, I didn't do well.

S 02 (III) Chris gave us sheets on which there are some blanks to fill in the discourse markers. That to fill in the blanks is a good way to learn and memorise the words. But Chris classified the use of DMs and asked us to find out which belongs to which group. It was a little bit tricky to place them because (I think) it's a little bit tricky to place an explanation in my mind if I have no examples and if the explanation is in a foreign language. I mean it would be easier if I saw at least one example for each explanation before marking the sentences.

Day three

S 06 (PPP) Then we did some practice. It was incentive and we all interested in that.

S 01 (III) Furthermore we listened to a spoken story and discussed the language, which was so useful. Discussing everything in detail is a good point for improvement especially in a foreign language. We distinguished the spoken story from the news paper version and understand the differences in: grammar, vocabulary and structure which were so clear. Finally, we changed a news article to a spoken story which was a good test and experience to feel the topic.

Day five

S 05 (PPP) During the last part of the class I especially enjoyed the way of exercising by erasing parts of the sentences on the whiteboard, I think if it lasts for longer it could be a good way for me to learn. Probably I will try to practice other language structures this way on my own.

S 03 (III) Finally, we re-wrote a textbook trying to make it less 'textbook like'. A good exercise to notice the difference between the simple textbook and a normal conversation.

3.3.2 Discussion of qualitative data 1

It is possible to suggest that several salient points emerge from this data.

First, it seems clear that learners from both groups were able to show an explicit knowledge of the language areas taught. They could, for instance, often name the discourse markers studied in the classes and identify the topic and context in which they had studied them. In some cases, they could also name macro discourse structures such as those used in spoken narratives and the level of formality of the language in question. This suggests that there was not a great difference between the frameworks in helping students to develop this explicit knowledge. As has been noted, whether this type of knowledge is of benefit to learners or not is a subject of some debate (see for example, Krashen 1985 and Sharwood Smith 1981) but it might explain the learners greater use of DMs in their post-test, if only for the simple reason that if learners know what they have studied, they may be better able to make conscious use of it, as Sharwood Smith (1981) argues.

Second, there were clearly differences in student perceptions of the frameworks. A further look at the data from each group reveals that learners in each group had clear views on the methods used in each class. If we look further at the PPP group, there are several comments that reflect the learners' views on practice. Learners seemed to broadly accept the value of practice within the classroom:

S 08 (PPP) This lesson was useful because we have done lots of practice.

S 08 (PPP) I found that useful and that practice makes me confident about speaking.

S 06 (PPP) Then we did some practice. It was incentive and we all interested in that.

S 05 (PPP) During the last part of the class I especially enjoyed the way of exercising by erasing parts of the sentences on the whiteboard, I think if it lasts for longer it could be a good way for me to learn. Probably I will try to practice other language structures this way on my own.

S 07 (PPP) At last we were asked to use these words in a dialogue. This is useful although I had to think how to use these.

At the same time, there was evidence that showed students were not always convinced of the benefits of student centred practice activities:

S 07 (PPP) When we worked in group I found my tongue knot. I am too depending on dictionary to communicate with others.

S 08 (PPP) And then we practiced how to describe our own recipe using the verbs we just learnt. I can not use them very skilled. Because there are some new verbs for me and also I need to think of spoken discourse markers.

S 05 (PPP) More discourse markers, much easier to remember but equally difficult to use. I would like to practice them but how?

S 05 (PPP) I think that practicing English in pairs is inefficient. In pairs we often learn subconsciously other people's errors.

S 05 (PPP) When we were practicing we were told to form the sheet with prescription and phrases. For me it is too much to learn long prescription, new phrases and to use them.

What seems then to emerge is a perception that practice can be useful, not least in an affective sense. Two learners make reference to the enjoyment and incentive of practice and the word 'useful' is employed several times. However, there is clearly also a perception amongst some of the learners that practice with other students is not always useful and that, if expected too soon after meeting some new language, it is too difficult. These are two slightly different views: one of which may be a reaction against CLT in the classroom, which associates pair and

group work with this kind of teaching, the other a reaction against practice before learners feel prepared for it.

Turning to the III group, there is evidence that suggests students felt that activities which developed language awareness through noticing were of benefit:

S 03 (III) The other one is how we can put an informal conversation in an informal or natural conversation. These kinds of activities help us to use an informal conversation instead of a formal one.

S 02 (III) Now I don't only know the differences between spoken and written story structures but also (hopefully) I can use this knowledge in the future.

S 01 (III) I think this kind of activity (*back translation*) helps us to find the differences between our language and English also helps us can we use the discourse markers in speech.

S 04 (III) Then we did something very useful we change the spoken style into written style and looked at the differences between it. I think this kind of activity helps us to recognise the differences between written and spoken style.

S 01 (III) We distinguished the spoken story from a newspaper story and discussed the language, which was so useful and we could find and understand the differences in grammar, vocabulary and structure which were so clear.

S 03 (III) It was useful to translate a piece of English in own language and then to translate it again in English. This kind of activity, I think could be good because it could help me to understand better the informal speech.

S 02 (III) Finally, we re-wrote a textbook trying to make it less 'textbook like'. A good exercise to notice the difference between the simple textbook and a normal conversation.

Despite this, there was some doubt expressed about this approach by some students:

S 03 (III) Finally, we tried to re-write a piece from a version 'textbook-like' in a manner more natural. That was the part, maybe, more difficult because it is not easy to re-write something already correct.

S 01 (III) I think this method is suitable for a short time but for a long module it would be boring.

S 02 (III) It was a little bit tricky to place them because (I think) it's a little bit tricky to place an explanation in my mind if I have no examples and if the explanation is in a foreign language. I mean it would be easier if I saw at least one example for each explanation before marking the sentences.

What seems to emerge here, despite some reservations, is broad support for the use of noticing tasks within an III framework, with several learners commenting on how this type of instruction had raised their awareness of, for instance, formal and informal speech and differences in spoken and written style.

If the data from both groups is considered, then it is a somewhat mixed picture. Both groups seemed equally able to explicitly state what they had studied, although the III group were able to articulate this more fully. This may suggest that an III framework led to a higher level of explicit knowledge about language. Amongst the PPP group, there was a perception that practice was useful but that when rushed or forced too early, it was less helpful. In addition, it was felt that practice conducted through pair work (i.e. not with a teacher) could be detrimental to learning. The III group seemed generally more positive about the use of their framework and were able to state clearly the kind of awareness they felt it had developed in them, although there were some reservations.

There are several factors which need to be considered before drawing firm conclusions: the initially higher level of the III group (as shown in the global marks on their pre-test), allowed them to better articulate their thoughts about the methodology. It may also be the case that students of a higher level have a more highly developed interlanguage which allows them to discuss texts, context and language choices to a greater extent than a lower level group and thus to perceive this type of instruction as beneficial.

3.3.3 Summary

Despite the noted reservations, it is possible to draw some conclusions from this data. First each approach developed explicit knowledge about the target DMs. This may explain the greater use of DMs in their post-tests. Second, both groups saw some benefit in the types of instructions used in their respective classes. Third, despite marginally superior post-test scores, the PPP group expressed more reservations about the type of instruction they received than the III group, particularly in regard to the benefit of 'rushed' practice and practice with other students.

As we have stated, however, this data could only provide a snapshot of learners' perceptions of the teaching methodology used. For this reason, it was also felt that follow up interviews would provide greater detail, which may be able to better explain the diary data. It is to this data we turn next.

3.4 Results, analysis and implications of qualitative data 2

The questions used in the guided interviews and full transcripts can be found in appendix five. This section selects data from each interview before offering a discussion of it.

3.4.1 Interview data

Two interviews were recorded and later transcribed. What follows is a selection of comments coded into the following categories: the usefulness of studying DMs in general, the usefulness of practice, the usefulness of noticing and other general comments. Each learner is quoted in turn in order to illustrate the contrast between their views and a discussion follows these comments. Learner errors have not been corrected.

The usefulness of studying DMs

S 01 (III) This was a good and new experience for me and I'm really happy to attended in this class and I think it was good for my spoken language honestly. I've seen this kind of discourse markers I mean in a television, you know. The reporter was talking and err, and she used lots of discourse markers in front of TV here the reporter use lots of discourse markers, 'you know The Royal Family, you know the government, you know, you see, so, well' yeah. These are the things that was interesting. And these discourse markers, I think, you know, make a situation

for you to think more during your speaking. (It was useful) because, maybe, it was a routine language or something else. You know, something like your, how can I say, you're involved in your daily language, your daily spoken language and maybe you can hear such as these kind of language err, I don't know, at train, at bus station, at bus, these kind of situations, you know. I will to focus on discourse markers, when you know how to use discourse markers, you know, you, your sentences will be, how can I say, more clear or something like this, err, and, err, if you just pick these words from conversation between native speaker or British flow, these, yeah, maybe it would be hard for you to use or maybe you would use these discourse markers or word in the wrong position because it was so interesting for me, the difference between 'you see' and 'you know'.

S 05 (PPP) First of all I now I remember how these discussion, discourse markers are important and I can hear them almost everywhere and many people use them, even foreigners, so they are important. I don't know if I use them but I catch myself using them from time to time err, I wrote something in my diary that we have, we haven't such discussion markers but probably I was wrong because I use them because some of them we have, almost the same. But if we think about this discussion markers, I didn't realise that they are so important and probably I will use them more often and probably they are useful because I can see them everywhere now, as I mentioned. If I think it's important probably it's because somehow I am not recognised as English person if I, even if I speak well sometimes, English people cannot understand me so this is first.

The usefulness of practice

S 01 (III) Because, you know, maybe you didn't told us to practise but writing a diary each day err, I want to say generally makes us, makes students to repeat a day completely yeah. If you have a class and all the students are above twenty five, yeah, you can leave the practice to them. They will practise, maybe, maybe not but most of them I think, practise after the class or during the week till next class. But this is the meaning of practice, I think because you revise, you review all information that you got at morning ,err, you know, you revise it at night and these things are, I think a good method to practise without saying you have to practise this, you have to practise this.

S 05 (PPP) So first I learnt theoretically this is my way of learning English and then I start training .Usually I know theoretically much more than I can use but things that I don't train is not persistent, I cannot use permanent things, I mean if I learn something theoretically, it is only for a few days/weeks/months and then I forget it. But if I train then it is for much longer. If we think about training, just speaking and practising then probably because of problems with understanding, because we use different pronunciation and it was sometimes difficult for me so probably I cannot say exactly but I think it was a good way of learning, this way of training. Sometimes I have, this is my negative feeling about simple training is that sometimes I learn too simple rules and then I use some words just because they fit to some place in sentence but they are misused exactly but I think it was a good way of learning, this way of training.

The usefulness of noticing

S 01 (III) Err, as I mentioned in my diary, you know, this method is maybe good for a long long term, you know I mean, just for one week, same schedule, same err, just the topic completely different but same schedule, same progress, process, maybe is a bit boring for students and also teacher. Because same material, same err, stuff and the things that the students each day everyday involved with those information. These charts, this schedule you know maybe make makes the students bored. Because every day you have same topic, same process, yeah. I think a good part and good method in this pilot study was, err, the translation, the translation. Translation to our mother tongue and after that translation from our mother tongue to English (yes), you know is a good method to err, you know, is a good method to get familiar with language, with vocabularies, try to remember all vocabularies try to, err, how can I say, you know what I mean…try to remember all the stuff and when you write it when you translate it you will find the difference and next time it will be better for you to remember the English think it's possible you know to get these, for example discourse markers or other things, other vocabulary and these kind of stuff in environment or outside the university, in normal life. But when you completely focus these items in a class you can find it all, 'oh I've heard it before' for example, at train, at bus station, yeah. Err, yeah. It's easily to, if you just listen to a conversation between two native speakers, two English bloke, you can easily find loads of discourse markers,'well', 'I mean', 'you know', 'you see' – these kind of information.

S 05(PPP) Discourse markers are important and I can hear them almost everywhere and many people use them, even foreigners, so they are important.

Other comments

S 01 (III) Maybe it's really useful, you know, to use these kind of discourse markers but maybe if you use as a foreign student, maybe it's OK and it's right for you I don't know, your son or your native students. But if I use, as a foreign student, if I use lots of time 'you know', 'you mean' 'well' 'so' maybe it's a bit inconvenient of yourself and it shows your self-confidence is not high enough. But for a native speaker, yeah, I'm 100% sure about his or her knowledge, that he or she knows about the topic and about his or her speech but when I use discourse markers, you know, as much as I can, 'you know, you know, you know', it's not sounds good. If I'm right or wrong, I don't know.

S 05 (PPP) And I don't think we can pick everything just, I'm thinking about understanding and speaking, I don't believe that learning English structure without theory is a good idea. We learn our mother tongue but it last for a very long time and we start when we are very young and our brain is in different stage probably. So I think that we have to learn theory then training. Theory is important but without training we forget it I think. I don't, complicated grammar is not something we can remember for a very long time and even if I know grammar it is useless for me, I cannot think always about grammar. But also what I said before, learning English without grammar, some lessons, also looks ridiculous I think because of my friend. Obviously he knows, he has a very wide vocabulary, he speaks, he can communicate but sometimes his language looks like, sometimes he, it sounds like a comedian.

3.4.2   Discussion of qualitative data 2

There are several key points that seem to emerge from this data. The first is that both learners seem to agree that the spoken discourse markers studied were, in a general sense, useful to them. S 01, for instance, suggests:

'When you know how to use discourse markers, you know, you, your sentences will be, how can I say, more clear or something like this', while S 05 states that:

'now I remember how these discussion, discourse markers are important and I can hear them almost everywhere and many people use them, even foreigners, so they are important.'

These comments reinforce some of the positive evaluations regarding the lesson content made by students in their diaries. There is also a clear belief that this language needs to be learnt, at least to some extent, within the classroom and cannot easily be acquired through exposure to the language. In this regard, the comments of S 05 are particularly interesting:

'I'm thinking about understanding and speaking, I don't believe that learning English structure without theory is a good idea. We learn our mother tongue but it last for a very long time and we start when we are very young and our brain is in different stage probably'. He goes on to suggest that 'learning English without grammar, some lessons, also looks ridiculous I think because of my friend. Obviously he knows, he has a very wide vocabulary, he speaks, he can communicate but sometimes his language looks like, sometimes he, it sounds like a comedian.'

S 01 has less strongly held beliefs but does also suggest that looking at such language in the classroom helps:

'I think it's possible you know to get these, for example discourse markers or other things, other vocabulary and these kind of stuff in environment or outside the university, in normal life. But when you completely focus these items in a class you can find it all "oh I've heard it before" for example, at train, at bus station, yeah.'

These comments help to provide a degree of negative evidence. Students do not seem to believe that this kind of language can easily be acquired outside the classroom; therefore there is a place for the use of different teaching approaches in helping student with this process.

In regard to the different approaches, a more mixed picture emerges. The students seem to disagree on the usefulness of practice. Student S 01 suggests that classroom practice of language forms may not be needed. Instead, he believes that for adults, they themselves can be responsible for this:

'If you have a class and all the students are above twenty five, yeah, you can leave the practice to them. They will practise, maybe, maybe not but most of them I think, practise after the class or during the week till next classes.'

Student S 05, on the other hand, suggests that practice, which he terms 'training,' is of use to students:

'If I learn something theoretically, it is only for a few days/weeks/months and then I forget it. But if I train then it is for much longer. If we think about training, just speaking and practising then probably because of problems with understanding, because we use different pronunciation and it was sometimes difficult for me so probably I cannot say exactly but I think it was a good way of learning, this way of training.'

He then qualifies that slightly by suggesting that good practice needs adequate time and should not be rushed:

'If I could exercise more, if it was longer it would be much more useful but it was useful.'

What emerges here then are two contrasting views: one that says you can leave practice to students, particularly mature (and presumably motivated), adult learners and one that says it is helpful, if there is adequate time and preparation for it.

In terms of noticing, the comments reflect much more agreement. Both students make several comments which suggest the lesson helped them to notice the DMs outside the class. Student S 01 suggests, for instance, that:

'...you can hear such as these kind of language err, I don't know , at train, at bus station, at bus, these kind of situations, you know', while S 05 states, 'I remember how these discussion, discourse markers are important and I can hear them almost everywhere and many people use them, even foreigners.'

This suggests that both approaches contributed to students noticing the forms outside of class. This may account in some way for the greater use of DMs in the post-test scores of each group, if we accept Schmidt's (1990) argument that conscious noticing is a necessary prerequisite of acquisition. It may also account, somewhat simplistically, for the generally positive evaluation

of the usefulness of DMs. If students are able to notice them in use, this may add to their perception that they are useful and this in turn may encourage them to make use of them in their own language output. This suggestion must, however, be tempered by S 01's final comments, where he suggests that amongst non-native speakers, the extensive use of DMs may not always be positive:

'Maybe it's really useful, you know, to use these kind of discourse markers but maybe if you use as a foreign student, maybe it's OK and it's right for you I don't know, your son or your native students. But if I use, as a foreign student, if I use lots of time "you know", "you mean" "well", "so" maybe it's a bit inconvenient of yourself and it shows your self-confidence is not high enough.'

3.4.3   Chapter summary

Viewed as a whole, the data allows us to draw several conclusions:

- Both approaches led to an increased use of DMs in a paired format speaking test, when compared to their use in a pre-course test.

- This increase in use was not reflected equally across all students.

- The PPP group used a marginally wider range of the target DMs in their post-test. The difference was not enough to suggest that one approach was more beneficial than the other in this regard and the results were not analysed to check for statistical significance.

- Students from both groups could demonstrate explicit knowledge of what was studied.

- There was a commonly held view that studying DMs was useful.

- In interviews, it was agreed that studying DMs in the classroom was more likely to help them than simply acquiring them from the input they are exposed to.

- Amongst all students there was a more positive evaluation of an III framework but practice was also seen as useful, providing it was not rushed and there was time to prepare.

- Practice within the classroom was not seen as essential by all students, though many felt it was helpful.

- Both approaches seemed to enhance students' ability to notice the DMs focused upon. This was reflected in diary comments, interviews, and if we are to accept the claims made for noticing, we could argue it may have contributed to the increase in the use of DMs pre- and post-test.

Overall, the results of the pilot study were instructive and suggested a number of changes to the study design which were made for the main study. We will move on to discuss and give a rationale for these changes in detail in the next chapter but they can be summarised here, as follows:

1. The research questions were revised.

2. The main study also contained a control group. This group were not given any explicit focus on DMs but it was expected that they would be exposed to the DMs within their classroom and non-classroom input.

3. The number of participants increased so that three groups, each containing twelve learners, formed the subjects of the study.

4. Each group was given a pre-test, immediate post-test and delayed post-test of eight weeks.

5. The quantitative data was analysed for statistical significance.

6. Two focus groups of six learners undertook post-study guided interviews. Learners were interviewed according to the group (PPP/III/Control) they were a participant of.

7. The qualitative data was coded using computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software and word frequencies, keyword frequencies and the most frequent chunks were produced using corpus analysis software.

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4   Methodology

4.0   Chapter introduction

Having described our pilot study, we now move on to describing and justifying the methodology used for the main study. This section begins with a review of our research questions and the hypotheses we are trying to prove, including an explanation of the revisions made to the questions following the pilot study. The chapter then gives an outline of the research tradition on which this study is based, before detailing and justifying the proposed methodology and the revisions made as a result of the pilot study.

4.1   Research questions and hypotheses

Let us remind ourselves of the main research questions, which we first detailed in the introductory chapter (section 1.1.1).

1. To what extent does explicit teaching aid the acquisition of spoken discourse markers by intermediate (CEFR B2) level Chinese EAP learners studying in the UK?

> Does it improve discourse management, interactive ability and global scores in a free response speaking test?
>
> Does it increase the number of target DMs they are able to produce in a free response speaking test?
>
> Is the increase significant when comparing the experimental groups with each other and with a control group?

2. Which explicit framework aids acquisition of the target DMs more – a PPP framework which practices the target DMs or an III framework which helps students to notice the target DMs but does not practise them in class?

> Do both frameworks help equally or does one help more than the other?
>
> Do both help more than no explicit input?

3. To what extent do B2 level Chinese EAP learners themselves believe one classroom approach to learning DMs (PPP/III) is more helpful than the other?

> Do the learners believe that studying DMs is worthwhile?

It is clear that these research questions contain a number of minor revisions and additions to the ones used in our pilot study. The revisions were made because it was felt that they better reflected the following hypotheses we were trying to test:

Hypothesis one

We are assuming that the explicit teaching of the target DMs will make a difference to both the experimental groups in terms of the number of DMs they acquire and that this will be superior to the control group who will not be taught them. We are also assuming that learning DMs should improve interactive ability, discourse management and global scores amongst both the experimental groups when compared to the control group.

Hypothesis two

Both explicit approaches will help more than no teaching of the target DMs. One explicit approach will help students to a greater extent than the other in terms of acquiring the target DMs.

Hypothesis three

Learners will believe that studying the target DMs is worthwhile and will have a distinct preference for one teaching framework above the other. They will believe that one style of teaching helps them to acquire the target DMs more effectively than the other.

Now we have examined our main research questions, we can begin to describe and justify the methodology we used for the main study, including revisions made following the pilot study.

4.1.1 Classroom research, methods comparison and form-focused instruction

The broad theoretical background on which this research is based is that of classroom research. Following Nunan (2005:225), we can broadly define classroom research as 'empirical investigations carried out in language classrooms'. There are clearly a number of aspects of a language classroom which might be researched but some examples which have commonly been investigated are teacher talk, student and teacher interaction and the effectiveness of the classroom methodology employed. Nunan (2005:226) defines this in comparison to what he terms 'classroom oriented research', which takes place outside the classroom (perhaps in a

laboratory setting) but which may have relevance to the language classroom. Kasper and Roever (2005:322), term this type of methods comparison 'interventional classroom research', meaning that in the field of pragmatics they investigate, the aim is to discover if and how different types of classroom intervention may help to teach pragmatics to English language learners.

Within this broad definition of classroom research, the research in this thesis can be placed within the area of instructed second language acquisition because we are interested in 'how instruction makes a difference to the acquisition of a second language' (Nunan 2005:226) and more specifically, the effects of different teaching methods on the acquisition of DMs. Within the area of instructed second language acquisition, the research thus 'fits' the long tradition of methods comparison studies, which investigate the effectiveness of different types of instruction.

An early investigation of this sort was conducted by Scherer and Wertheimer (1964), who compared the effects of Audiolingualism to grammar translation, in a longitudinal study. The subjects were approximately three hundred college students learning German and each method was measured over two years through pre- and post-tests, interviews and questionnaires. Despite the considerable amount of data the study produced, it did not demonstrate that one method was superior to the other but that the emphasis of each method was reflected in the ability of each group of learners. This meant that learners taught using grammar translation were superior at reading, writing and translation, while the learners taught using Audiolingualism were superior at listening and speaking. Similarly, Swaffar, Arens and Morgan (1982) compared Audiolingualism with cognitive code learning and also found inconclusive results.

These difficulties may be due in part to the idea that different methods help with different aspects of language learning, so that a method which emphasised, for example, listening, would improve that skill more than one which emphasised reading (Nunan 2005:227). It may also be because the dividing line between different classroom methodologies can be somewhat illusory. Methods, approaches and frameworks may be differently realised in the classroom than the way they are described in theory. In a broad discussion of methodology,

Kumaravadivelu (2005:166) suggests that 'teachers who claim to follow a particular method do not adhere to its theoretical principles and classroom procedures at all' and 'teachers who claim to follow different teaching methods often use the same classroom procedures'. We might also suggest that many methodologies 'borrow' elements from each other, so that the mechanical drills much favoured in Audiolingualism still feature in many classes taught using CLT. This means it can be hard to clearly distinguish differences between methodologies, making comparison somewhat problematic. Naturally, there are also a number of variables which can contribute to a learner's acquisition of language at any given time, such as the amount of exposure they have to English outside the classroom or their age, which means it can be difficult to claim definitively that it is only the chosen classroom methodology which influences language acquisition. This suggests that it may not be productive to try and reproduce a large scale study of the type Scherer and Wertheimer (1964) undertook but, as Brown and Rodgers (2002: 215) suggest, there is value in small scale methods comparison studies related to specific learning contexts. It is also clear that there are benefits if we undertake such research in an actual classroom, with real learners and real language (as opposed to artificial, invented language) because in the classroom we can bridge the gap between theory and practice (Brown and Rodgers 2002:11) and show that what we are attempting to find out is directly applicable to teaching. This is more difficult to achieve if we use a laboratory or artificial language. Clearly, there is a need to differentiate the methods being used as specifically as possible and resist the temptation to generalise the results from one learning context to all learners in all contexts. Nonetheless, using classroom research as a basis for methods comparison seems a logical choice.

There have also been a number of different studies within the broad field of instructed second language acquisition which have sought to compare the effect of different methods and investigate the effects of 'form-focused instruction' (Ellis 2001a:1) (hereafter FFI). Such studies have investigated a number of different methodologies, often contrasting the effects of implicit and explicit instruction (Norris and Ortega 2001:167), as we discussed in chapter two. These differ from the large scale methods comparison studies described above and have tended to be on a smaller scale. Nevertheless, they are relevant to this study. Another common theme has been to investigate either focus on form (hereafter FonF) instruction, or focus on forms

(hereafter FonFS) instruction. These somewhat confusing terms have different interpretations (see Ellis 2001a, 2001b and Norris and Ortega 2001, for instance) but essentially the difference rests on what Long (1991) has suggested: FonF means a re-active focus on form in response to learner need, as it arises out of communicative tasks. FonFS means a pre-planned focus on form, as may occur in a traditional structural syllabus. Although Ellis (2001b) outlines many other distinctions, these only seem to blur the differences between the two types of FFI, as do the rather weak arguments that FonFS implies a focus on form and not meaning, while FonF implies a focus on meaning and not form. It is difficult, in fact near impossible, to see how we can have one without the other. For these reasons, in this study we will define FonF as a re-active focus on form and meaning, and FonFS as a pre-planned focus of form and meaning.

In an extensive review of FFI methods research between 1980 and 1999, Norris and Ortega (2000, 2001) note the wide range of research available and the difficulty in comparing vastly differing research designs. Despite this, they were able to reach some interesting conclusions. Overall, as we noted in the literature review, they found that explicit instruction was more effective when compared to implicit instruction or no instruction and that the effects of explicit instruction were both short-term and durable, as shown in immediate and delayed post-tests. Kasper and Rover (2005), in a discussion of classroom research concerned with teaching pragmatics, find agreement with these results. They report that the studies they reviewed demonstrated the overall benefit of explicit metapragmatic instruction (giving learners explicit information about form and function relationships), when compared to input and practice only.

4.1.2   Rationale for the use of classroom research

This findings of Norris and Ortega discussed above give a clear rationale for classroom-based methods comparisons studies investigating different types of explicit FFI. Firstly, their results demonstrate that explicit FFI is more effective than no instruction. This justifies a study which investigates only the effectiveness of explicit instruction and not implicit instruction. Secondly, as we noted in chapter one, if explicit instruction is more effective in helping learners to acquire forms, then clearly there is value in investigating which kind of explicit FFI helps the most. This is particularly relevant because in this regard Norris and Ortega found no conclusive evidence about which type of FFI is most effective. Instead, they found that FonF and FonFS were equally effective. Kasper and Roever (2005) were similarly inconclusive when comparing

which type of explicit instruction may be of more benefit in learning pragmatic routines. Rose and Ng (2001), for example, found that an inductive, guided discovery approach worked better when teaching the language of complimenting, while Takahashi (2001) found a deductive, teacher lead explanation approach the most effective method of teaching indirect requests in Japanese.

Norris and Ortega (2001) also found that the method of measuring the subjects had a significant impact on the results. The majority of studies reviewed used quantitative measures to assess the effectiveness of the different instructional treatments, typically comparing learners' use of the forms being investigated by comparison of pre and post-test results. There was, however, a significant difference in the results depending on the type of test used, with a focused test (such as sentence completion, or circling the correct form) seemingly more effective than a free response test. The length of study was also significant, with shorter studies seemingly producing greater effect overall. This suggests that both these factors are significant variables to take into account in study design and these aspects will be discussed later in the chapter when we discuss the study design in more detail.

It is clear then that this study attempts to build on the tradition of classroom-based research, and most specifically of methods comparison studies within the field of FFI described above. In terms of the research areas which Norris and Ortega (2001:159) investigate, we are clearly closest to the following two questions:

1. 'Is acquisition promoted more effectively when learners process the input in psycholinguistically relevant ways than when they experience traditional grammar explanation and practice?'

2. 'Is comprehension practice as effective as production practice for learning L2 structures?'

The quantitative aspects of the study are therefore influenced by previous studies investigating these two questions (for example, VanPatten and Cadierno 1993, DeKeyser and Sokalski 1996, 2001). We are trying to compare two kinds of explicit instruction to the teaching of DMs. We are then trying measure how each approach affects subsequent production of the DMs when comparing pre- and post-test scores. In addition, we are placing greater emphasis on what

effect learners believe each approach has on their acquisition of DMs and whether they think that learning them is useful. As we have pre-determined the forms in focus we might categorise this as a FonFS study, but as we have noted above, this term is taken to imply a pre-planned focus on form and meaning, not form alone.

Figure one summarises the research tradition upon which this study is based and table fifteen below (slightly adapted from the literature review) summarises the theoretical differences between III and PPP in order to highlight the differences between the two explicit types of instruction.

Figure 1 The methods comparison research tradition

Methods
comparison
studies

Classroom research

Explicit focus on forms

Focus on forms

Form focused instruction

Instructed second language acquisition
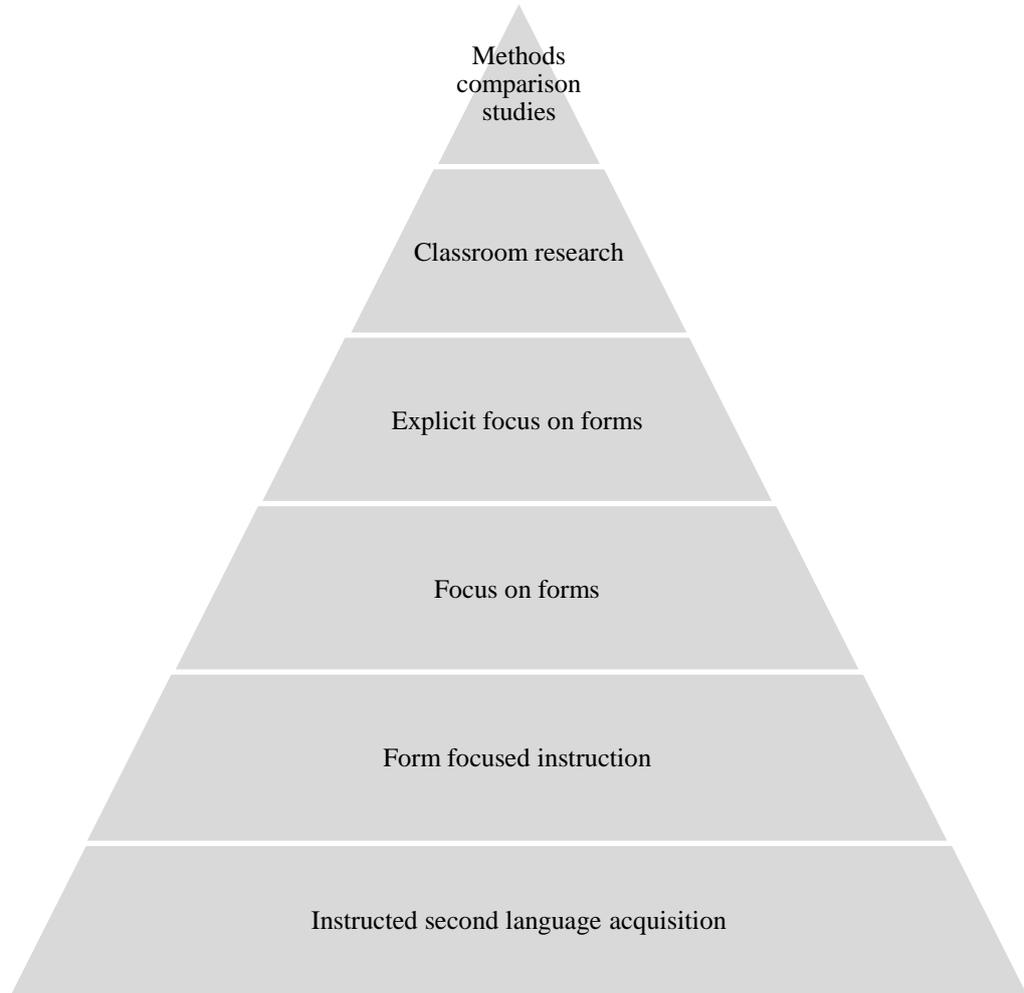
Table 15 Theoretical differences adapted: III and PPP

III	PPP
Inductive	Inductive
Form focused instruction (FonFS)	Form focused instruction (FonFS)
Explicit	Explicit
Input orientated	Output orientated
Declarative knowledge	Declarative knowledge + procedural knowledge
Reflective	Productive
Information processing	Skill building
Noticing	Using

4.1.3   Classroom research and methods comparison: problem and solutions

Despite the benefits of classroom research which we have outlined, there are a number of difficulties inherent in its use. Some of these have been discussed by Brown (1995) and Dornyei (2007) respectively. They can be summarised as follows:

1. Classroom research is time consuming

2. If we are working with other teachers, then gaining their co-operation and time can be difficult.

3. It can be difficult to persuade students to take part and to stay committed to the study.

4. We need to ensure that the research is ethical and the classroom research does not in any way harm the language development of the learners.

5. We can compare methods in the classroom but we cannot rule out the influence of other variables upon acquisition, such as the amount of exposure to the language outside the classroom.

As we will discuss in more detail in the next section, we attempted to counter these problems in the following ways:

1. As in the pilot study, it was decided to limit the amount of input given to ten hours per experimental group. This was partly because the students would only be available for a limited time and partly because it was felt that this amount of input could make a difference to the learners' acquisition of the target DMs. It was felt that a greater number of hours than ten might reduce the willingness of students to take part, as they were also asked to complete diaries, take part in focus groups and complete delayed post-tests.

2. It was decided that it would be too difficult to expect other teachers to deliver the classes and apply each framework as intended so all classes were delivered by the researcher. Colleagues assisted with delivering the pre and post-tests.

3. The students chosen (as we will discuss) had only recently arrived in the UK, were keen to learn and all had time to participate in the classes. Students were paid a fee of five pounds each to take part in the delayed post-tests to guard against attrition.

4. Students all gave their written consent on a form complying with UCLAN's ethics code (University of Central Lancashire 2007) and were assured that all results would be made anonymous. It was not considered that either teaching framework would be damaging to their language development in any way.

5. As we have discussed above, it was felt that classroom research would be of most benefit to a study of this kind and we would try to control the variables we could control (the nationality, age, number, level of the students) and accept we could not control variables such as the amount of exposure to input outside the class.

4.2.   Study design

The design of this study was based on what Nunan (2005) and Ellis (2001b) have both described as experimental studies. Nunan (2005:227) calls this type of study as a 'classical experimental design' and Cohen *et al.* term it a 'true experimental design' (Cohen *et al.*2007: 275). This can be described as follows: two experimental groups are taught the same language or pragmatic routine (such as making requests), each with a different teaching approach. Several methods may also be compared at once (for example, Takahashi 2001). The studies also typically include a control group, who are given general instruction but no lessons specifically focussed on the target forms. Length of instruction varies greatly in this type of study (Norris and Ortega 2000, 2001) but in this case we chose to give each experimental group ten hours of input each, as we did in the pilot study. We have discussed the reasoning behind this in point one above. Groups also vary in number but are typically around fifteen per experimental group (for example, VanPatten and Cadierno 1993). Each group is given a pre- and post-test, which is used as a quantitative measure of language gains within each experimental group over the course of the research (for example, Scherer and Wertheimer 1964, VanPatten and Cadierno 1993). The pre- and post-test may take many forms, including sentence completion, free response and gap filling, and in some cases several different tests may be used (for example, VanPatten and Sanz 1995). Typically, an experimental design does not include other measures, particularly qualitative ones, (Ellis 2001), but bases its results on quantitative measurement of pre- and post-tests scores alone. Cohen *et al.* (2007:275) suggest that this type of design needs to include several key features:

1. One or more control groups

2. One or more experimental groups

3. Random allocation to control and experimental groups

4. Pre-test of groups to ensure parity

5. One or more interventions in the experimental groups

6. Isolation, control and manipulation of independent variables

7. Non-contamination between the control and experimental groups

As we have noted, research in our main study was based on this experimental design. It compared three groups of twelve learners at the same proficiency level. There were two experimental groups taught the same DMs with a different framework and there was a control group who received general instruction in English but with no specific instruction on the target DMs. These match the first two features mentioned by Cohen *et al.* above. Students were randomly assigned to each group, a pre-test was given to each group and the main variable was the teaching method used for each experimental group. Learners from different groups were not mixed together at any stage. These aspects match the final four recommendations of Cohen *et al.* given above.

However, because this study attempted to measure both 'target language accuracy' (Ellis 2001:33) quantitatively with a pre- and post-test and to add two further qualitative measures in the use of diaries and focus groups, the design differed slightly from the typical experimental design described in its methods of data collection. In this sense it was closer to what Ellis (2001:32) has termed 'hybrid research' and Dornyei (2007: 169) terms a 'mixed methods' design, specifically a quan → QUAL design. Quantitative measures are used first, followed by qualitative measures, which are given greater weighting within the study. The model we followed was therefore closest to what has been defined as a 'sequential explanatory design' (Creswell and Clark 2011: 305).This is shown in table sixteen and is adapted from Creswell and Clark's model.

Table 16 Mixed methods design (main study)

Phase	Procedure	Product
Treatment	Each experimental group (III/PPP) received ten hours of explicit instruction in the target DMs. Control group received no instruction in the target DMs.	
Quantitative Data Collection	Pre-, post- and delayed tests (delay of eight weeks).	Numeric data – test scores for interactive ability, discourse management and global ability and the amount of target DMs used.
Quantitative Data Analysis	Raw data analysis SPSS analysis. One-way ANOVAs performed on all test scores – total and gain scores.	Descriptive statistics.
Qualitative Data Collection	Learner diaries produced by each member of the experimental groups.	Text data – diary entries.
Qualitative data Analysis	Coding and thematic analysis.	Codes and themes.
Qualitative Data Collection	Focus groups – with 6 participants from each experimental group. Equal numbers of male and female participants. Interview protocol outlined to participants.	Transcripts of focus groups.
Qualitative Data Analysis	Coding and thematic analysis.	Codes and themes.
Integration of the Qualitative and Quantitative results	Interpretation and explanation of all three data types.	Discussion and implications.

4.2.1   Rationale for study design

According to Dornyei (2007:164) one reason for choosing a mixed methods design is to

'achieve a fuller understanding of a target phenomenon'. In this case we were interested in

what Dornyei (2007:165) terms the 'expansion function' of mixed methods. This means that

they allow us to expand the scope and breadth of the study by exploring different aspects of the

same phenomenon. For this reason, mixed methods research designs have become increasingly

popular in the social sciences in recent years (Creswell and Clark 2011) because in certain

types of research 'one data source may be insufficient' (Creswell and Clark 2011:8). This

seems particularly pertinent if the phenomenon is a complex one, as is the case when trying to

measure the effect different teaching methodologies have on the acquisition of particular

language forms by using classroom research. Classrooms are complex places and it will always

be difficult to prove conclusively that one explicit teaching method is more effective than the other as long as we are researching real language. This is because the exact interaction between method and acquisition is hard to prove definitively. For this reason, it was felt that although a pre- and post-test measurement could demonstrate, for example, which DMs students used both before and after the study and whether this differed between the two experimental groups and a control group, this alone would only act as one measure of the two frameworks. In other words, it would not give a full picture of their effect. One reason for this may be that a test alone is a somewhat blunt instrument. It can tell us, for example, which students from which groups used more DMs in an immediate and delayed post-test. This is in itself necessary and we can argue that it is objective and measurable. However, it does not tell us much more than that; we cannot discover, for instance, why a particular learner used more DMs than another or what a learner felt about a particular type of instruction.

It was for this reason that a mixed methods design was chosen. In line with the arguments made in the literature review, learners' subjective impressions of different learning approaches have tended to be neglected in classroom research with a similar design to this study (for example, VanPatten and Cadierno 1993, Ellis and Nobuyoshi 1993, DeKeyser and Sokalski 1996, 2001) and findings have been based largely on test scores alone. Given that the acquisition of language in an instructed context is likely to be at least affected by how a learner responds to a certain methodology, this seems a serious omission. It is perhaps a simplistic notion but it seems reasonable to suggest that if learners perceive a classroom approach to be useful, then we must accept this as a valid perception, even if it runs contrary to our own beliefs about learning and teaching. This perception may also have a relationship with test scores, so that a group favouring one method, approach or framework may achieve higher scores, for instance. The design of this study therefore attempts to incorporate the views of learners and discuss how they may relate to quantitative test data.

We have mentioned that many experimental studies of a similar design also feature a control group. This was also the case in this study and was something we were not able to do in the pilot study. Although it is clear in this study that we were trying to measure the difference between two explicit teaching frameworks, a control group enabled us to try and demonstrate that each type instruction had more impact that no instruction. Having looked at the study

design as a whole, we will now move on to describing and justifying each element of the study design, including changes made from the pilot study.

4.2.2   Participants

The sample size chosen for the main study was twelve students per group. Thirty six Chinese learners (fourteen male, twenty two female) at the same broad level of language proficiency were assigned to three groups, experimental group 1 (III), experimental group 2 (PPP) and group 3 (control). All students were given the same standardised placement test at the start of their EAP pre-sessional course at UCLAN. This placement test did not include a spoken element. Only learners who were at CEFR B2 level were chosen to take part in the study. A learner's competency at this level, as we mentioned in chapter three, can be broadly defined as follows:

> 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 (Council of Europe 2001:24).

The pre-sessional course lasted for three weeks and classes took place in the morning. The study was conducted over ten hours in the afternoon, over the course of one week. Students had been in the UK, on average, for three weeks prior to the start of the study. The experimental classes were offered to the learners as free extra classes, with only those students who agreed to take part used as part of the sample. All students on the pre-sessional were going on to study a variety of undergraduate courses at the university but their choice of degree programme did not influence the sampling. The greater number of learners was intended to make the data more robust and reliable and as discussed in chapter three, the small sample used in the pilot study was because that study was intended to be exploratory in nature.

4.2.3   Rationale for sample size

The sample size of twelve students per group reflects advice given by Dornyei (2007:99). He suggests that experimental studies of this type should ideally include fifteen students per group.

Cohen *et al.* (2007: 100-102) suggest that a minimum number of thirty is required if we wish to undertake any type of quantitative analysis of the data. Whilst we were initially able to obtain fifteen learners per teaching group (III, PPP and control groups) a lack of attendance from some learners meant the sample size had to be reduced. However, the sample size did total thirty six, which is over the number of thirty which Cohen *et al.* suggest above. It is also similar to the sample size used in comparable experimental studies such as Van Patten and Cadierno (1993) and represents the average EAP class size at the institution. This suggests that we can justify this number for this study, providing we do not overgeneralise and acknowledge that the sample is relatively small for a study of this kind. Providing we suggest that the study gives indications about the population as a whole then it can certainly be argued that a representative sample in this context could be generalised to similar populations, i.e. learners at the same level, studying English at higher education institutions in the UK.

Dornyei (2007:96) suggests that any sample must be representative of the population it seeks to represent. The population in this case was Chinese international students at UCLAN at a CEFR B2 level of English, the standard level of English required for many undergraduate programmes at this and other higher education institutions (University of Central Lancashire 2011). The change from multilingual learners to monolingual learners also enabled us to remove another variable; the learners' L1. This is not to say, of course, that all Chinese learners at this level would always produce identical results but it meant we would be less likely to account for differences in results because learners had different L1s. Also, as we have discussed elsewhere (Halenko and Jones 2011), as the largest nationality of international students in the UK as a whole and in our institution, Chinese students now play a significant part in the international student cohort. As a result, the use of this nationality group also has a further benefit. It means that the study adds to a growing body of research investigating the experience of Chinese learners at UK and other higher education institutions (for example, Jarvis and Stakounis 2010, Jin and Cortazzi 2011). Whilst the aim of this thesis is not a broad investigation into Chinese learners per se, it can certainly add a contribution to this area of research.

The learners were chosen from a pre-sessional course for two clear reasons. Firstly, the fact that the pre-sessional had three hundred or more learners offered an opportunity for

'convenience sampling' (Dornyei 2007:99). Cohen *et al.* (2007: 113, 114) suggest that this type of sample involves the researcher 'choosing the nearest individuals to serve as respondents and continuing that process until the required sample has been obtained'. The sample was certainly of this type in the sense that the learners were those who were available but as we have mentioned the learners were not simply 'the nearest individuals'. The learners needed to fit the level we specified and they needed to be learners on the pre-sessional programme. In this sense, we can argue that the sample was also 'purposive' (Cohen *et al.* 2007:114) because we only chose students who had the characteristics of learners we wished to investigate; all of the same level, with the same L1, all having lived in the UK for a period of approximately three weeks and all taking part in an EAP pre-sessional course. This reduced the possibility that a random convenience sample might have included some learners who had lived in the UK for a longer period and thus may have had more exposure to DMs. However, it must of course be acknowledged, as we have previously, that it was impossible to control for the amount of exposure each learner may have had to DMs outside the class while on the pre-sessional course and this may have had an effect on test scores. Secondly, the learners in the sample chosen were likely to have had the same the same type of instrumental motivation for studying on the pre-sessional i.e. to improve their English to prepare themselves for their course and everyday life in the UK. This reduced the possibility of other types of motivation affecting the results. For instance, if we had taken a random sample of English learners at B2 level in the local area, many may have an integrative motivation for studying English, such as gaining British citizenship. This may mean they would purposely seek more exposure to 'native speaker' language such as spoken DMs and try to produce this language as much as possible. Clearly, this would add an additional variable which could have had an effect upon the results.

4.2.4   Form focus and pedagogy

The target DMs chosen and the way the III and PPP frameworks were realised was essentially the same as in the pilot study, which was described in chapter three. The target DMs and their function remained the same, the exception being that a decision was made not to teach the DM 'well' with the function of closing the conversation. The revised target DMs and their functions are shown in table seventeen:

Table 17 Target discourse markers and their functions (main study)

Function	Discourse markers	Examples
Opening conversations/topics	Right, So	*Right*, shall we start? *So*, what do you think about the cuts?
Closing conversations and topic boundaries	Right, Anyway	*Right,* I think that's everything *Anyway*, I'd better go, I'll see you next week.
Monitoring shared knowledge	You see, You know	*You see*, since I've hurt my back I can't walk very well. The weather in England is, *you know*, pretty awful. .
Response tokens	Right	A. I think we should go there first. B. *Right*.
Reformulating	I mean, Mind you	I don't like English food. *I mean*, some of it is ok but most of it I don't like. The weather in England is terrible. *Mind you*, I guess it's OK sometimes.
Pausing	Well	A. What do you think of the plan? B. *Well*, let's see. I guess it's a good idea.
Sequencing	In the end, First, Then,	*First*, we started walking quickly… *Then*, we started running… *In the end*, we managed to escape.
Shifting	Well	A. Do you live in Preston? B. *Well*, near Preston.
Resuming	Anyway, As I was saying, Where was I?	Erm, yeah, anyway, we started walking really fast Erm, yeah *as I was saying*, we started walking really fast Erm, *where was I*? We started walking fast and then started running.
Introducing examples	Like	I think being healthy is much more important so you need to have, *like*, green food.
Justifying	'Cos	I don't want to go *cos* it's too expensive.

The main way the frameworks were differentiated was in the same way as described in chapter three. The defining difference was that the III group was not given any practice of the target DMs (either pre-communicative or contextualised) but were given a number of tasks which encouraged them to notice aspects of the DMs (such as discussing the difference between the DMs in English and their L1). The PPP group were given pre-communicative and

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contextualised practice of the DMs, in activities such as drills, making dialogues including the target DMs, and role-plays which encouraged use of the DMs. An outline of each lesson is given in appendix one and an example of the different lesson procedures was discussed in table four (section 3.1.7). The lesson procedures used in the main study were the same as in the pilot study.

4.2.5   Rationale for form focus and pedagogy

It was decided to remove 'well' used to close topics or conversations following the pilot study. No students made use of this function of 'well' in the post-tests in the pilot study and it was felt that 'right' and 'anyway' were adequate to teach this function. The remaining target DMs were chosen for the same reasons as detailed in the pilot study:

1. The CANCODE corpus of spoken British English, as listed in Carter and McCarthy (2006), demonstrates that they are highly frequent. This was considered to be a useful starting point.

2. Others (such as 'mind you') were chosen not because they were the most frequent DMs but intuitively they were considered to be useful in this learning context.

3. It was important to limit the number of target DMs to those which could realistically be taught in the lesson time.

In addition, as appendix thirteen shows, there may not be exact equivalents of each DM in the learners' L1 (Chinese) but they were at least translatable, which suggests that conceptually they would be understandable to Chinese learners. The ten hours of input, as mentioned in 4.1.3 was also chosen to counter a difficulty discussed above when conducting classroom research: ensuring student participation .It was clear that these learners would only be available for a period of one week and asking for more than ten hours of participation (in addition to the two hours of study they were undertaking on their pre-sessional course) was likely to result in students withdrawing from the study. It was felt that, following the pilot study, the amount of input could make a difference to the learners' acquisition of the target DMs in the time given. The lesson procedures were retained from the pilot study as it was felt that they allowed us to distinguish clearly between the two frameworks and the pilot study results demonstrated that students were clearly able to comment upon the different types of instruction.

4.3 Data collection: using tests

Dornyei (2007) notes that a pre-and post-test is an established instrument in research of this kind. Typically, the test is given for each experimental group and a control group, both prior to the treatment, immediately following the treatment and (often) after a delayed period following the treatment. The use of a test in this study followed this tradition and included an immediate and delayed post-test of eight weeks. Dornyei (2007:118) also suggests that tests are used to compare the effects of different experimental groups by measuring 'gain scores' when we compare pre- and post-tests and measuring these against a control group for comparison. Typically, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) is then undertaken in order to check whether the difference in mean scores and gain scores of treatment groups is significant or not. We will describe how this analysis was carried out in the next section (4.3.2). This section will describe and justify the type of speaking test chosen.

Commonly, the types of tests used in studies of this kind have been described by Norris and Ortega (2001) as follows:

1. Metalinguistic judgement

For example, judging how grammatically correct a sentence is based on the target form(s).

2. Selected response

For example, selecting the correct sentence with the target form(s) from a multiple choice task.

3. Constrained constructed response

For example, filling in gapped sentences with the target form(s).

4. Free constructed response

For example, being given the opportunity to use the target form(s) in a role-play.

This study employed a free constructed response format, by employing a paired, interactive test. Students were given the opportunity to use the DMs in focus but were not explicitly pushed to do so as they would have been had we employed a constrained constructed response,

for example. In this sense, the test was most similar to the role-plays or elicited conversations described by Kasper and Roever (2005) and often employed in pragmatics research.

4.3.1 Rationale for test type

We have noted that the use of this kind of pre- and post-test is well-established in experimental and quasi-experimental research designs of this nature because, providing the sample is representative and groups are equivalent, it allows us to measure a key variable; the type of instruction given to each group. A free response test allowed us to gather quantitative data and overall means and gain scores in terms of usage, alongside global scores and scores for interactive ability and discourse management. These scores could then be measured for significance of variance. The data could thus act as one objective measure of the effectiveness of these types of instruction, which would act as a useful counterweight to the qualitative data collection and help us to find at least part of the answer to our research questions. We can imagine, for example, students stating in diaries and interviews that they prefer one type of instruction to another and it is useful to establish whether such a preference is reflected in pre- and post-test gain scores or not. In this sense, the tests allowed for triangulation of the data.

There is, however, an obvious threat to internal validity in two key areas: 'the practice effect' and 'participant desire to meet expectation' (Dornyei 2007:53). As students become more familiar with the test format, their performance could improve as a result of this and not the type of experimental instruction they have received. This is a genuine threat to validity if it has any effect on the test results and we need to carefully explain how we guarded against this so that it did not have a significant impact on the test scores in this study.

If we wish to measure the gains in the use of DMs in a pre- and post-test, it is clear we need to use the same test format at least but it does not mean we need to use precisely the same topics or questions in each test, providing each test is equivalent. For this reason, a variant of the same test was used in each case so that the topics chosen differed between each test but the test followed exactly the same format and each test was equivalent. It was hoped this would militate against the practice effect to some extent as students would not be able to rehearse answers from test to test, although they would become more familiar with the test format.

The second threat to validity is that each experimental group may try to 'exhibit a performance which is expected of them' (Dornyei 2007:54). In other words, they may try to use DMs in the test in order to please the researcher or because that is what they believe they should do. To a certain extent, we could not remove this possibility but we could try to ensure it did not have a significant effect upon the test scores. Firstly, students were not told that the study was trying to measure use of DMs but were given a broad description of it, telling them it was aimed at helping them to improve their spoken language. Such a description does not constitute any lack of research ethics but does mean that learners would not be focused on using DMs in order to please the researcher. Secondly, they were not given any explicit instruction to use DMs in any of the tests. Thirdly, if students did try to use as many DMs as possible to please the researcher, it did not guarantee they would be used correctly i.e. with the functions taught. The tests were also viewed by a second researcher (a senior lecturer in ELT) when calculating which target DMs were used. Only DMs used with the correct function were included when calculating overall usage and gain scores. This meant that a learner who simply tried to use as many DMs as possible would not necessarily achieve a greater gain score.

As we have noted, this type of study also frequently employs both an immediate and delayed post-test. The reason for this is clear. We wish to measure immediate gains from the experimental treatment and gains over time, something we were unable to during the pilot study. This then allows us to analyse the results in terms of their effect on acquisition. Schmitt (2010:2), discussing studies of this type focused on vocabulary acquisition, suggests that a delayed post-test 'shows durable learning' and an immediate post-test shows 'whether treatment had an effect'. This gives us a clear rationale for the use of an immediate and delayed post-test.

The question then turns to how we define 'immediate' and 'delayed'. In their overview of FFI studies Norris and Ortega (2001), show that in studies of a similar design, definitions of these terms vary considerably and unfortunately there is no real consensus regarding the optimal amount of time after a study to hold a delayed test (Schmitt 2010: 156). For the purposes of this study, 'immediate' was taken to mean directly after the experimental instruction had finished, on the last day of teaching for each group. This meant that each group took an

immediate post-test after ten hours of instruction and it was used in order to find out if the treatment had any effect.

A delayed post-test took place after eight weeks. This followed a suggestion made by Truscott (1998) that a delay of more than five weeks but less than one year may be enough to measure the longer-term effect of FFI upon acquisition. A delayed test of eight weeks after the immediate post-test fitted the timescale suggested by Truscott and was also a practical time limit because learners had not left the university and were available.

As we have noted above, there are several kinds of test available to us. It is worthwhile, then, discussing each type in turn and justifying our choice of a free response test. Metalinguistic judgement tests allow learners to demonstrate that they can observe the target language and judge correct usage. For us, this would mean asking learners to look at samples of the target DMs and to comment on correct or incorrect usage. This type of test seems largely to assess declarative knowledge and whilst valid for this, does not allow us to assess how well the learners can actually produce the target DMs. Our research questions show we are interested in how two different types of teaching impacts upon the acquisition of the target DMs and the ability to produce them is one clear way to measure this. In other words, we wanted to assess the procedural knowledge of the learners when using the target DMs and a metalinguistc judgement test would not allow us to do this. Selected response tests also allow students to assess correct usage, but by looking at a choice of language samples. As in metalinguistic judgements, this type of test assesses declarative knowledge and as such did not serve our purpose. Constrained constructed response tests allow learners to produce the target language in very controlled ways, through, for example, filling in gaps in sentences, using the target language. This kind of test assesses declarative knowledge to a certain extent (learners need to analyse the correct form to use) and procedural knowledge (learners need to decide which to use in the context). The advantage of this type of test is that we can design it to focus very explicitly on the target forms and thus we can test only those forms in focus. The disadvantage is that it only tests procedural knowledge to a limited extent. It is clear that the ability to fill in the gaps with a target form without time pressure and the visual support of the written word is not the same as being able to use a form in spontaneous speech. In fact, we can easily imagine a learner being able to do the first successfully but not the second. We have also noted that this

study attempted to measure spoken DMs and as such, the appropriateness of a written test format is at least questionable.

Free constructed response tests allow learners to produce the target language in a much 'freer' format, through, for example, the use of role-plays. This kind of test aims to measure procedural knowledge by giving students the opportunity to use the target forms, but not 'forcing' them to do so. This study employed such a test because, as we have noted, we wished to measure the effect of two different types of instruction on the usage of the target DMs and such tests have been used successfully to demonstrate significant effects of FFI (Norris and Ortega, 2000, 2001, N.Ellis 2007).

The problem with such a test is of course that students may not use the target forms at all. This may not mean they have not acquired them through the different types of instruction but that the test simply allows for avoidance of the target forms. There is no doubt this is a risk with this kind of test but, as we have noted, if we wish to measure spontaneous use of the target forms, then other test types do not serve our purpose. What we need to ensure is that the test chosen does not restrict the types of responses students can give, i.e. it does allow for free responses and gives learners the opportunity to use the target DMs.

The test chosen allowed for this in two ways. Firstly, it is an established test, in commercial use. This means it has been extensively piloted both in its design and choice of topics to ensure a good variety of interaction, between both the interlocutor and students and between students themselves. This is clearly reflected in the use of non-specialised topics of general interest and the three-part design, which allows for a variety of interaction and free responses. The full version of the tests can be found in appendix two. Table eighteen shows the stages of the free response speaking test used in the pilot and main study.

Table 18 Stages of the free response speaking test (pilot and main study)

Part 1 – Introductions
Interview to elicit personal information. Candidates respond to the interlocutor and not to each other. The interview consists of a number of short turns with candidates being invited to respond alternately. Part 1 last for **3 minutes** divided equally between both candidates. In the event of three candidates, allow **4 minutes** divided equally between all candidates.
Part 2 – Interactive discussion.
Candidates discuss a topic based on two prompts provided by the interlocutor. They exchange ideas and opinions and sustain a discussion for **four minutes**. The interlocutor does not take part in the discussion. If candidates start to address the interlocutor directly, hand or other gestures should be used to indicate that the candidates should speak to each other.
Part 3 – Responding to questions
A three-way discussion between interlocutor and candidates based on the topic from Part 2 of the test. The interlocutor leads the discussion by selecting from the questions below. It is not necessary to use all the questions. The interlocutor may ask for a specific response from one candidate or throw the discussion open to both candidates. The interlocutor should encourage candidates to elaborate on, or react to, their partner's response by verbal invitation *(e.g. What do you think? Do you agree?)* or non-verbal gesture. Candidates should be given equal opportunities to speak but the interlocutor may wish to give a candidate who has been rather reticent in earlier parts of the test a chance to redress the balance. This part of the test lasts about **five minutes**.

The marking scheme for the test (see appendix three) reflects the different opportunities for learners to display various facets of language competence. This is because it includes both a global marking system and bandings for grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, discourse management and interactive ability. This ensures that learners who attempt to restrict their responses so that they are, for instance, always grammatically accurate are unlikely to score very highly. Secondly, by examining recordings of the test made with learners at the same level who had not been subject to any experimental instruction, we can see these learners do make use of several of the target DMs. Table nineteen shows the usage of the target DMs by two sets of learners at B2 level, studying at the university. The first two learners (students A and B) were Chinese and the second pair (students C and D) Japanese and Spanish. They therefore represent a realistic sample of the international student population in the context of our study. The recordings were made for marking and standardisation purposes and none of the students were given any explicit instruction in the use of the target DMs before the test.

Table 19 Sample test responses without teaching of target discourse markers

Function	DM(s)	Student A	Student B	Student C	Student D
Opening	So	1	1		
Monitoring	You know		2		
Justifying	Cos		2		2

Although the students' use of DMs is limited, we can clearly argue that this does at least demonstrate that the test provided opportunities to use the target DMs.

4.3.2 Data analysis: analysing tests and measuring statistical significance

Dornyei (2007:118) suggests that tests are often used in studies of this type to compare the effects of different experimental groups by measuring 'gain scores' from pre- to post-tests and measuring these against a control group for comparison. Typically, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) is then undertaken in order to check whether the difference in mean scores and gain scores of treatment groups aresignificant or not. This is the procedure which was followed for this study. Usage of the target DMs was measured in the following ways:

1. The tests were marked by independent test raters and marks (0-5) given for each learner's global, interactive ability, discourse management, grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation scores, using the standardised oral test marking criteria given in appendix three. For the purposes of this study, only interactive ability, discourse management and global scores were analysed.

2. These scores were then measured using a one-way ANOVA and post-hoc S-N-K tests. The SPSS software package (see, for example, IBM SPSS Software 2011) was used to check for statistical significance in terms of overall marks in interactive ability, discourse management and global scores (pre-, post- and delayed tests) and in terms of gains made in each area, pre- to post, post- to delayed and pre- to delayed test. This followed a suggestion from Schmitt (2010:268) that these gains can demonstrate what has been acquired as a result of the treatment.

3. The tests were also analysed in terms of the number and type of the target DMs used by each group in pre, post and delayed tests. Recordings were made and the researcher and a colleague

watched, counted and agreed on the DMs used correctly, with the right function and broadly correct pronunciation. These scores were then measured using a one-way ANOVA and post - hoc S-N-K test using SPSS software This was to check for statistical significance in terms of overall scores in these areas (pre-, post- and delayed tests) and in terms of gains made from pre- to post, post- to delayed and pre- to delayed tests (Dornyei 2007: 219—221).

4. In addition to the statistical analysis, the raw scores and gains were analysed and displayed. as it was felt they were also illustrative in terms of which DMs were used and not used and how scores changed from tests to test

4.3.3   Rationale for test analysis

It was clear from the pilot study that the test scores needed to be analysed in this way if we are to claim they are significant as a result of the teaching. For example, we might be able to say a learner uses more DMs in a post-test compared to a pre-test and this may be an interesting result, but unless we analyse it using measures such as a one-way ANOVA, we cannot claim it to be statistically significant. One-way ANOVAs and post-hoc S-N-K tests were chosen because these are one of the most common ways to measure significance with three groups of learners and are commonly used in studies of a similar design (Dornyei 2007:219—221). ANOVAs allow us to check if there are statistically significant differences between the scores of each group and S-N-K tests allow us to identify precisely which groups have significantly higher or lower scores. Only the discourse management, interactive ability and global scores were analysed because, as discussed in the pilot study, it was these aspects of the marking criteria which it was felt use of DMs may have an impact upon.

One issue which can arise when asking markers to score tests is to ensure that there is inter-rater reliability, which simply means that each marker gives scores which are broadly consistent with the next marker. This was achieved in this case in three ways. First, each marker was given standardisation training, using the marking criteria for the tests (appendix three). This involved marking videos of tests at the same level which achieved different scores and matching the marks to examiners comments and scores. Second, tests which received the top, middle and bottom mark were 'blind' second marked by a further marker, who had also been standardised. The scores for these candidates were then given as the mean of the two

markers' scores, although there was little variation in the scores given. Third, none of the markers were told to listen for the use of DMs and all marked each candidate on grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, discourse management, interactive ability and a global score. This ensured that they focused on the candidates' performance as a whole and not just on the aspects which were analysed statistically. As we have noted, the scores were also analysed in their raw state as it was felt they could also provide illustrative data in terms of which DMs were used and not used and how scores changed from tests to test.

4.4 Data collection: using diaries

As briefly mentioned in chapter three, diary studies are a well-established research tool in qualitative data collection and have been used from both a learner's and teacher's perspective to gain insight into language learning, language use and teacher development (Kasper and Roever 2005:329).

As a research tool, diaries offer a great deal of flexibility. They may be used as part of a longitudinal study design (for example, Schmidt and Frota 1986) or over a short, cross-sectional study (for example, Halbach 2000). They can be solicited or 'commissioned' (for example, Jing 2005), or kept as part of an individual teacher or learner's own individual development which a researcher can then be given access to. Diaries may form the primary means of data collection (for example, Jing 2005) or be used alongside other methods of data collection (for example, Gan *et al.* 2004). In the case of individual diaries, there is a common trend for the subject of the diary study to be the researcher themselves, (for example, Schmidt and Frota 1986, Leung 2005). Diaries can be pen and paper based, electronic or a combination of both (see Bolger *et al.*, 2003, for an in-depth discussion). They may be written in the target language or a learner's/teacher's first language and collected at intervals or following completion of a study.

If diaries are solicited, Dornyei (2007:156) suggests that there are three main options for when they can be written: at intervals set by the researcher (for example, one hour after each class), at a given signal (for example, students are sent a text message asking them to complete their diaries) or after a specific event (for example, each class). The final option is that a 'model' diary can be provided to learners who are writing in the target language. This can give a very

clear structure (for example, Jones 2009) or simply suggest a broad framework for learners to follow (for example, Halbach 2000).

In this study, the solicited diaries were intended to gain access into the language learning of each experimental group: how they responded to what they were learning (the target DMs) and how they were learning them (through a PPP or an III framework). The diaries were used over the period of the data collection (ten hours per experimental group) and as such were not intended as a longitudinal measure but a short, cross sectional, 'snapshot' of each learner in each experimental group during the period the study took place. The learners were asked to write their diaries in English and they were collected at intervals (following each class). The design was event contingent because students were asked to write them following each class. As in the pilot study, a model was provided to each learner at the start of the study and the task was explained to all learners (see appendix four for the guidance provided).

4.4.1   Rationale for using diaries

Diaries were chosen as the first method of qualitative data collection because, as mentioned in chapter three, they can give us 'internal', participant data and as such offer an insight into the learning process which quantitative data cannot. They also give us access to introspective data which we may not be able to obtain through other qualitative methods such as observation (Bailey and Ochsner 1983:189). Nunan (1992:118) describes diary studies as 'important introspective tools' in qualitative research, not least because they allow researchers an insight into the affective factors surrounding learning, something Dornyei (2007) supports. Krishnan and Hoon (2002:228) suggest that diaries can also work as a 'powerful tool' in allowing students to evaluate courses, giving us an 'insider account' (Dornyei 2007:157) of the classroom. Diaries can provide useful sources of data from a descriptive point of view because they allow us to see how a learner's thoughts change towards a given teaching method and can also suggest useful points of development which we can follow up with more extensive interviews. Halbach (2000:85) summarises these benefits clearly: 'By reflecting on the processes that go on inside the writers' minds, they open up fields that are not normally accessible to researchers'. They also, of course, provide opportunities for a learner to demonstrate what they may have noticed in the form of a written report, something we suggested was a key method we would use to measure noticing. Diaries allow learners to report

on their learning in a similar sense to the kind of think-aloud protocols employed by Alanen (1995). She argues that this kind of report can provide evidence of noticing or lack of noticing and as such is valuable research evidence. We would also argue that a diary allows learners to reflect on learning in a way which they cannot do during a think-aloud protocol, as they have time to reflect, under considerably less time pressure. In addition, as the data from the pilot study shows, diaries can provide a large amount of data which can contribute to our understanding of how learners evaluate different methodologies.

We have argued previously that many similar studies have tended to ignore such 'internal', qualitative data in favour of one or more tests. As a result, the assumption seems to have been made that superior post-test scores are proof that one type of instruction is more effective than the other. This seems to ignore the fact that learners themselves are recipients of any given methodology and their belief in its effectiveness must play at least some part in how effective it actually is. We have argued that tests can give an objective and reliable measure of scores in each experimental group but of course they do not tell us how learners themselves perceive the different classroom methods. This seems essential if we are to gain a fuller picture of the two teaching frameworks being contrasted and how they affect acquisition of the target DMs: 'externally' in a test score and 'internally' in the learners' eyes.

Despite these arguments in favour of using diaries there are, naturally, several threats to the validity of the data and the way the data collection is managed. Each of these will be discussed in turn. The first weakness is that the diaries used in this study were solicited by the researcher. We might argue that this has the potential to make the data unreliable because learners may not have truly reflected on how they felt but attempted to write what they think the researcher wanted, knowing he would read it. This is certainly a possibility but was countered in two ways. Firstly, clear instructions were given in the guidance to students, making it clear that they were not being asked to comment on the teacher themselves or make a judgement on whether the lessons were 'good or not'. Secondly, students were assured that the diaries would only be seen by the researcher and that anonymity would be maintained in any subsequent use of the data.

The second potential weakness is asking learners to write a diary in English, the L2 in this case. Intermediate learners, if required to write a diary in the second language 'may not find the task simple' (Krishnan and Hoon 2002:227) and as a result could then lose motivation and interest in keeping their diary. This might lead to diary data only being available from a certain number of subjects in the sample, which in turn could lead us to suggest that the diaries are not representative of the sample as a whole. Whilst this was a possibility, asking the learners to write their diaries in their L1 and then translating them into English was not a realistic option in this study. It would not have been practical or financially viable to arrange for a number of diaries to be translated from Chinese to English. Even if this had been possible, we would then have been faced with the real possibility that the translations were not a 'true' reflection of what learner's had originally written. The obvious solution to this was to provide learners with a 'model' diary entry, as we did in the pilot study, to give them an example of what they could write. This did not remove the difficulty of writing the diary in the L2 but it offered essential guidance to learners. Dornyei (2007:158) recommends 'a detailed training session to ensure that participants fully understand the protocol', something which Bolger *et al.* (2003) also suggest. We provided this with a 'model' entry and an explanation of the instructions before the first input session. The model entry can be found with the instructions given to learners in appendix four.

The third potential weakness of diaries is related to the second and is probably the biggest difficulty. Dornyei (2007) and Bolger *et al.* (2003) note that diaries demand a lot from the participant in terms of their time and commitment to writing them and this can mean that participation gradually tails off over the course of a study. We helped to reduce this in the following ways:

1. The diaries were made as easy as possible to write by providing a model.

2. The diaries were collected at regular intervals to ensure learners were participating and completing them.

3. It was made clear that each entry was event contingent, i.e. they needed to write an entry after each lesson.

4. Learners were offered an incentive to write their diaries. In this case, I corrected the English used by learners and returned this to them so they could perceive there was a learning 'pay off' for them. Only the original data was used for the study and only spellings were corrected to facilitate analysis with CAQDAS software.

A final problem is one which several researchers have noted; the data is difficult to analyse objectively (for example, Leung 2002, Dornyei 2007). Should the data be analysed subjectively, it could lead to us finding only what we are hoping to find and not what the data actually tells us. In this study we attempted to overcome this by using CAQDAS software to help analyse the data. We will describe and justify this in the data analysis section of this chapter (4.4.5).

4.4.2   Data collection: using interviews

The use of interviews is well-established within qualitative research in ELT (for example, Nunan 1992, Richards 2003, Dornyei 2007) and it is argued that interviews can provide a rich source of qualitative data. In common with diary studies, interviews offer a good deal of flexibility and can be used with a variety of study designs. Dornyei (2007) identifies three main types of interview: structured, unstructured and semi-structured. A structured interview follows a rigid structure, which ensures that all interviewees are asked the same questions and there is no deviation from the interview schedule or spontaneous follow up questions possible. In this sense, structured interviews are similar to a questionnaire in spoken form (Dornyei 2007:135). An unstructured interview is clearly the opposite of this; the researcher will not follow a fixed interview schedule. S/he may begin with some general questions but will then allow the interview to go in the direction in which the interviewee's responses lead, clarifying as needed (Dornyei 2007:136). A semi-structured interview falls between these two extremes. The researcher prepares an interview guide with a series of questions and follows up probes. It is recommended that this guide is trialled first to ensure the questions elicit the data being sought (Dornyei 2007:137). During the interview, the interviewer uses the guide as a basis for framing the questions used but is also free to add spontaneous follow up questions when the answer seems likely to reveal further interesting data. Dornyei (2007) suggests that the semi-structured format is most often used in qualitative applied linguistics research, as it allows for the generation of rich data, with a clear focus on the research questions.

4.4.3 Data collection: using focus groups

Focus groups have become a widely used method of data collection in qualitative research within many social science subjects (Morgan 1997, Macnaghten and Myers 2004, Myers 2005). Although they are essentially just another type of interview, the differences in design results in data of a slightly different nature than that of semi-structured interviews. Whereas an interview is normally conducted on an individual basis, a focus group typically consists of six to ten participants and three to five focus groups are likely to be conducted in any one study (Morgan 1997, Dornyei 2007). A focus group also differs because it requires the interviewer to act as a facilitator of the discussion; to be a 'moderator' rather than simply a person asking questions (Dornyei 2007:145). As such, the role may involve such things as ensuring the discussion is not dominated by one or more speakers and that people don't talk over each other. The amount of intervention which a moderator will choose depends largely upon the nature of the group but it is generally hoped that the group discussion will form a substantive part of the data (Macnaghten and Myers 2003:68).

It was decided, following the pilot study, to use a semi-structured format to gain data from two focus groups in the main study. Six students were chosen for each group and both featured an equal mix of male and female students. Focus groups were held immediately following the ten hours of classes, using the same prompts as tested in the pilot study, where semi- structured interviews were used.

4.4.4 Rationale for using focus groups

The use of focus group interviews allowed for triangulation of data so that tests, diaries and interviews enabled us to examine the research questions from three angles, following the mixed methods design we have described.

The choice of focus groups themselves rather than individual interviews was partly a practical one; as recording and transcribing twenty four individual interviews would have taken considerably more time than was available. It was also hoped that the discussion which would take place in the focus groups would allow for a richness of data which individual interviews may not always develop. In this sense, we were hoping to use, as Morgan (1997:2) suggests, 'group interaction to produce data and insights which would be less accessible without the

interaction found in a group'. Myers (2005:535) supports this view when he suggests (of focus groups) that 'they are more accessible than surveys for interpretation of interaction'.

The semi-structured format was chosen to allow for follow up and flexibility, whilst maintaining a structure and focus. A structured interview format was deemed too restrictive, particularly in a focus group format where the richest data is likely to arise from spontaneous discussion of the questions (Morgan 1997) and an unstructured format was likely to have produced such a range of data it may have become too difficult to interpret. A semi-structured format allowed for focus and at the same time, gave participants room to expand on answers and to follow up on diary comments.

The choice of six students follows recommendations given by Morgan (1997). He suggests that focus groups should normally consist of six to ten participants. The sample for the groups was based on what Morgan (1997) and Macnaghten and Myers (2004) have termed 'theoretical sampling'. This means that participants are not chosen for each focus group in order that they are representative of the population as a whole (in our case international learners at a higher education institution in the UK) but rather because the participants are 'defined in relation to the particular conceptual framework of the study' (Macnaghten and Myers 2011:68). The qualitative aspects of this study were used as an attempt to elicit learners' views about teaching frameworks and language taught to them. Therefore, it made sense to choose an equal number of male and female participants and in particular, those learners who it was felt would be willing and able to participate fully in English. We did not follow Morgan's suggestion (1997) to hold three to five focus groups because it was felt to be impractical to arrange this. Also, four groups consisting of six students would have meant everybody in the experimental groups was interviewed, rather than a sample.

Naturally, there are several threats to validity when choosing to use focus groups. We can describe these as follows and then discuss how these were countered:

1. Transcription of a group interview is technically more difficult than an individual interview, and some comments may be missed (Dornyei 2007).

2. Students try to follow the group norm and give answers they think will be acceptable to the moderator (Myers 2005, Dornyei 2007).

3. The moderator pursues their own agenda and doesn't allow students to adequately express their views.

4. The data may be interpreted too subjectively leading the researcher to use the data to fit with preconceived ideas and not following where the actual data takes him.

These threats to validity were countered in the following ways:

1. It is certainly the case that transcribing a focus group with six participants is more difficult than an individual interview. We attempted to ensure that this was easier by giving a brief oral guide before each focus group to ask that students did not speak over each other and listened to what others were saying, for instance. Each focus group was also videoed as well as being audio recorded to make it as easy as possible to identify each speaker.

2. The oral guide given to all students prior to the focus groups attempted to ensure that their honesty was valued and that there were no right or wrong answers sought. The moderator (in this case, the researcher) also attempted to ensure that all participants could contribute equally through methods such as nominating quieter students to answer or asking if they agreed with more confident students' views.

3. The interview schedule was an important element in this process. By piloting the prompts used for two semi-structured interviews in the pilot study, we could ensure that questions and prompts used would elicit a lot of responses from the students, reducing the risk of the moderator following their own agenda.

4. Subjectivity and bias is something which all qualitative forms of research can be accused of. However, there are a number of ways we can counteract this. The main way we attempted to do so in this thesis was through the use of CAQDAS software, which we shall describe and justify in the next section.

4.4.5   Qualitative data analysis: using CAQDAS software

The diary and focus group data were analysed in three main ways. First, the data was coded into categories, using CAQDAS software. Second, corpus software was used to give counts of the most frequent words, keywords and lexical chunks in the data. Third, concordance lines of several keywords were generated to illustrate how the words were being used in the data by the different groups of learners.

In the past twenty years or so, there has been a growing trend to make use of CAQDAS software in qualitative research and mixed methods research (for example, Fielding 2002, Kelle 2002, Lewins and Silver 2004). The reason for the use of such software packages is partly practical and partly theoretical. In terms of practicality, it allows us to handle large amounts of data more quickly than we have previously been able to. We can, for example, code data into categories at the click of a mouse rather than by hand and we can move data from category to category quickly or search for keywords when attempting to define categories. It is therefore possible to assign data to codes which we might miss if carrying out the task manually. In this sense, the software does not replace the analysis that we, as researchers, wish to undertake but merely facilitates it. The researcher themselves is still required to read the data and think of ways to code it; no software package will do this job for us. As Fielding (2002:168) suggests, 'It is important to repeat that simply using CAQDAS software does not mean the whole analytic process take place ''within'' the software'.

There are a number of CAQDAS software packages we can use (Lewins and Silver 2004) but for our purposes, we chose NVIVO 8 (see QSR International, 2011, for samples) to code and retrieve our data. For analysis of the most frequent words and the keywords, a free corpus data package, (Compleat Lexical Tutor 2011) was chosen because unlike NVIVO, this software allowed us to analyse the most frequent words and produce a keywords list based on a comparison with a standard corpus.

4.4.6   Rationale for the use of CAQDAS software

CAQDAS software allowed us to offer a greater level of objectivity to counter the accusations of bias which are often a criticism of qualitative research. When we coded data, for example, an outside observer may be able to suggest that we chose only data which matched our

interpretations of it. As Fielding (2002:172) states 'Critics of qualitative research cite its lack of formality and cumulativeness…These traits compare unfavourably with the formal and systematic character of statistical analysis and survey methods'. CAQDAS software allowed us to approach coding in a way which was more systematic and thus more objective than the manual coding used in the pilot study. It enabled us to create categories and move data between these categories easily. This meant we could review our codes many more times than if we had coded manually and attempt to ensure that they were not a partial or biased interpretation. CAQDAS software also allowed us to search for words and phrases most commonly used within a set of data. For instance, if we made a code based on 'practice' we could search the entire data set to find all mentions of this word. This also enabled us to use frequency data to support the ways in which we categorised the data, adding a systematic and objective dimension to our data analysis. These advantages are summarised by Kelle (2002:486):

> CAQDAS also helps with the systematic use of the complete evidence available in the data much better than any mechanical system of data organisation. If the data are methodically coded with the help of software, researchers will find evidence and counter-evidence more easily. This clearly reduces the temptation to build far-reaching theoretical assumptions on some quickly and arbitrarily collected quotations from the material.

Naturally, there have been concerns about the use of CAQDAS software as Kelle (2002:478) outlines. Chief amongst these seems to be that the software could somehow remove the researcher from 'closeness' to the data. Kelle (2002:478), however, argues that the technology simply makes clearer some of the problems of qualitative data analysis, chief amongst these being the relationship between the data and theory. CADQAS software did not replace our own data analysis in this study, it simply made coding, retrieving and providing objective justifications easier for us. We could, for example, find comments in learner diaries or focus groups which seemed to suggest that one group of learners found an activity more useful than the other group. NVIVO helped us to find these comments quickly and easily, and Compleat Lexical Tutor (2011) provided objective support in the form of frequency counts, showing that one group did, for example use the word 'useful' more times than the other group.

4.5   Chapter summary

This chapter has outlined the theoretical tradition upon which the methodology of this study is based. It has also described the research methodology used in the main study and given a rationale for each method used.

The changes made following the pilot study can be summarised as follows:

- It was decided to run a control group alongside the III and PPP groups, something which we were not able to do with the pilot study as there were not enough students available. This group was not given any explicit focus on the DMs but were taking classes at the same time. It was expected that DMs would feature within their classroom and non-classroom input (for example, within teacher talk) but there was no explicit or implicit teaching of them.

- The number of participants was increased to include three groups (PPP/IIII/Control) of twelve learners, (fourteen male and twenty two female).

- Participants were monolingual Chinese learners at B2 (CEFR) level, taking part in a three week pre-sessional academic English course. They had been placed at this level using a standardised placement test (not including a speaking component). Learners had been in the UK for an average of three weeks at the start of the study. The average age of the learners was twenty two.

- A free constructed response speaking test was used as a pre-test, immediate post-test and a delayed post-test, which took place eight weeks after the study. The pilot study did not employ a delayed post-test.

- Two focus groups of six learners from each group were interviewed following the study. Each group consisted of three male and three female learners. Participants were chosen based on availability, ability and willingness to take part. Each focus group was interviewed using a semi-structured interview format, as used in the pilot study.

- The diary data and focus group data was analysed using CAQDAS software (NVIVO 8) to code and retrieve the data. The software made the coding process easier but the actual codes were decided by the researcher's interpretation. A corpus programme (Compleat

Lexical Tutor 2011) was used to produce frequency lists, keyword lists, lists of the most frequent lexical chunks and concordance lines of important frequent words.

Aspects of the study that did not change can be summarised as follows:

- Each experimental group received ten hours of instruction and the lessons used were the same as in the target study. An outline can be seen in appendix one.

- The target DMs remained the same, with the exception that 'well' used to close topics or a conversation was not taught.

- The III and PPP frameworks were differentiated in the same way. III involved no practice of the target DMs but did involve tasks which encouraged learners to notice aspects of the language such as the difference between these spoken forms and written forms. The PPP groups were given pre-communicative and communicative practice using the target DMs.

- Participants in the III and PPP groups were asked to keep a diary throughout the course of the study, detailing their views of classroom methods and content. All learners were given a model diary sample to read before completing their own diary entries and were asked to comment upon the class content and methodology. All participants were asked to complete the diaries after each class and they were collected at regular interval throughout the study.

Having discussed and summarised these changes, the methodology used should now be clear. The next chapters therefore display and discuss the results of the main study. We begin by analysing the quantitative data in chapter five before moving on to the qualitative data in chapter six. Chapter seven analyses the results as a whole and the limitations of the study. Finally, chapter eight discusses possible implications for future research and our final conclusions.

5   The main study: quantitative data analysis

5.0   Chapter introduction

This chapter describes and analyses the quantitative data from the main study before the

qualitative data is discussed in chapter six. The data analysis in this chapter will include

discussion of the results and will relate it to our research questions. The data will also be

analysed as a whole in chapter seven, where it is related back to the research questions in more

detail and conclusions are drawn. The quantitative data will be presented first through

displaying raw scores from each group. This entails analysing the means and gains made in the

interactive ability, discourse management and global scores and the total amounts of the target

DMs used by each group. Following this, we will present the one-way ANOVA results which

indicated statistical significance. Results which did not indicate significance will be

commented upon but not displayed as tables.

5.1   Interactive ability, discourse management, global marks and discourse marker usage: raw scores and gains

Tables twenty and twenty one show the mean (M) raw scores in pre- (PRE), post- (PST) and

delayed (DEL) tests for interactive ability, discourse management and global ability for each

group. As we have described previously in chapter four, these raw scores were established by

asking trained test markers to score each student, with the maximum score being 5 and the

minimum being 0. The marking criteria are given in full in appendix three. Standard deviations

are also displayed.

Table 20 Raw totals for interactive ability (IABIL) discourse management (DMN) and global (GLB) scores pre-, post- and delayed tests (main study)
Group 1 = III, Group 2 = PPP, Group 3 = Control

Group	IABIL PRE	IABIL PST	IABIL DEL	DMN PRE	DMN PST	DMN DEL	GLB PRE	GLB POST	GLB DEL
1. Mean	3.3750	2.9792	3.8542	3.3333	2.9375	4.0208	3.4583	3.2292	3.9167
N	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
Std. Deviation	0.91391	0.66962	0.54833	0.53654	0.78426	0.56867	0.71377	0.65243	0.60616
2. Mean	3.7917	3.1667	4.4375	4.0417	3.2917	4.2708	3.8125	3.3542	4.3125
N	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
Std. Deviation	1.05977	0.64256	0.53433	0.85834	0.72952	0.32784	0.79861	0.60733	0.37119
3. Mean	4.2500	3.3542	4.1250	4.1042	3.4583	4.3125	3.8750	3.5208	4.3750
N	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
Std Deviation	0.57406	0.50518	0.32856	0.63477	0.57241	0.30386	0.64403	0.40534	0.22613

Table 21 Raw gain scores for interactive ability (IABIL), discourse management (DMN) and global (GLB) scores, pre- to post (PREPST), post- to delayed (PSTDEL) and pre- to delayed (PREDEL) tests (main study)
Group 1 = III, Group 2 = PPP, Group 3 = Control

Group		IABIL PRE PST	IABIL PST DEL	IABIL PRE DEL	DMN PRE PST	DMN PST DEL	DMN PRE DEL	GLB PRE PST	GLB PST DEL	GLB PRE DEL
1	Mean	-0.1042	0.9167	0.4792	-0.3958	1.0417	0.6042	-0.2292	0.6875	0.4167
	N	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
	Std. Deviation	0.93819	0.86164	0.99120	0.77941	0.80364	0.91365	0.69461	0.76963	1.06778
2.	Mean	-0.4792	1.2292	0.6458	-0.7083	0.9792	0.2292	-0.4583	1.0000	0.5000
	N	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
	Std. Deviation	0.66108	0.65243	1.01946	0.63812	0.71873	0.74968	0.43736	0.64842	0.69085
3.	Mean	-0.9375	0.7708	-0.1250	-0.6458	0.7708	0.2083	-0.3958	0.8542	0.5000
	N	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
	Std. Deviation	0.73179	0.58832	0.64403	0.82199	0.71873	0.54181	0.82199	0.52720	0.60302

Tables twenty two and twenty three show the raw scores for the mean usage of the target DMs by each group in pre- and post-tests and the mean gains made by each group in the usage of the target DMs. Standard deviations are also shown.

Table 22 Raw means of target discourse markers used: Pre-, post- (PST) and delayed (DEL) tests (main study)
Group 1 = III, Group 2 = PPP, Group 3 = Control group

Group		TotalPRE	TotalPST	TotalDEL
1	Mean	0.2500	1.2500	0.9167
	N	12	12	12
	Std. Deviation	0.62158	1.13818	1.50504
2	Mean	1.5833	3.4167	2.9167
	N	12	12	12
	Std. Deviation	1.37895	3.44986	3.72847
3	Mean	0.8333	0.2500	0.9167
	N	12	12	12
	Std. Deviation	1.99241	0.62158	1.24011

Table 23 Raw gains of target discourse markers: Pre- to post (PREPST), post- to delayed (PSTDEL) and pre- to delayed (PREDEL) tests (main study)
Group 1 = III, Group 2 = PPP, Group 3 = Control

Group		Gain PREPST	Gain PSTDEL	Gain PREDEL
1	Mean	1.0000	-0.3333	0.5000
	N	12	12	12
	Std. Deviation	1.20605	1.72328	1.00000
2	Mean	1.8333	-0.5000	1.3333
	N	12	12	12
	Std. Deviation	3.40677	4.07877	3.62650
3	Mean	-0.5833	0.6667	0.0833
	N	12	12	12
	Std. Deviation	2.15146	1.43548	2.39159

5.1.1   Analysis of raw test data

The raw interactive ability, discourse management and global scores indicate that the

performance of all three groups was weaker in each area from pre- to post-test in terms of gains

made in these areas. The control group in particular posted a much weaker score in terms of

interactive ability from pre-test (M = 4.2500) to post-test (M= 3.3542) but both experimental

groups also posted weaker scores. The III group's score, for example, was M = 3.3333 for

discourse management in their post-test and M = 2.9375 in the delayed test. This meant that the

'gain' was in fact a decline of M = -0.3958.The PPP group's global score was M = 3.8125 in

the pre-test and M = 3.3542 in the post-test, which indicates a decline of M = -0.3958.

This is a somewhat surprising result, as we might presume that teaching would have a positive impact on these scores, particularly in the post-test. It is possible to suggest that this change could be accounted for by a deviation in the markers' scores but as we described in chapter four, all scores were standardised and the top, middle and bottom scores blind second-marked. These scores did not indicate large deviations in any markers' scores in either pre-, post- or delayed tests. It is hard to account for these weaker scores but perhaps they were a result of the immediate post-tests coming at the end of the experimental input and pre-sessional course. Students may have been tired and produced weaker performances.

All groups made gains from post- to delayed test and from pre- to delayed tests but the gains were larger from post- to delayed test, shown most clearly in the gains made in interactive ability by the PPP group from immediate post- to delayed test (M = 1.2292) and the III group's discourse management score from post- to delayed test (M = 1.0147). This suggests that the two experimental groups made gains over time to a greater extent than the control group, indicating that that the teaching of DMs did have a positive impact in these areas in the longer term.

In terms of the raw usage of the target DMs and gains made, both experimental groups increased the number of target DMs used, particularly when we compare their pre- and immediate post-test scores. The control group's gain scores did not improve from pre- to post-test and in fact declined (M =.-0.5833) but did improve from post- to delayed test (M = 0.6667) and from pre- to delayed test (M = 0.0833). However, these gains were weaker than those of either of the experimental groups, indicating, as we might expect, that the teaching did have an impact on the learning of the target DMs. In terms of the raw gains made in the amount of DMs used per group, this impact is most notable in the PPP group. Their usage increased the most from the pre- to immediate post-test with a raw gain score of M = 1.8333. They also made a gain from the pre- to delayed test (M = 1.3333). The III group made weaker gains in the amounts of target DMs used, M = 1.000 from pre- to post-test and M = 0.5000 from pre- to delayed test.

What is also of note is that although usage of the target DMs increased for the experimental groups, this was not matched by increased scores for interactive ability, discourse management

and global marks. For example, whilst the PPP group made a gain of M = 1.8333 in their usage of the target DMs from the pre- to post-test, their scores in interactive ability, discourse management and global marks decreased by M = -0.4792, M = -0.7083 and M = -0.4583 respectively. This suggests that there was no correlation between increased DM usage and interactive ability, discourse management and global scores.

The delayed test results also chime with other studies following a similar experimental design (for example, Halenko and Jones 2011) which demonstrate that impact of instruction tends to decline over time. Whilst the experimental groups increased their usage of the target DMs from pre- to post-test, the gains declined when we compare the immediate and delayed post-tests. The III group's mean usage declined by M = -0.3333 from post- to delayed test and the PPP group's mean usage declined by M = -0.5000.This can be seen clearly in table twenty four, which gives the total number of DMs used per group

Table 24 Number of target discourse markers used: Pre-, post- and delayed tests (main study)

	Pre-test	Immediate post-test	Delayed post-test
III group	3	15	11
PPP group	19	39	34
Control group	10	3	11

The scores in table twenty four and in tables twenty two and twenty three above show that the experimental teaching did have an impact on both groups. In terms of the raw scores only, the impact was greater on the PPP group. Although the control group also increased their usage over time, the increase was by only one DM from pre- to delayed test, compared to an increase of eight DMs in the III group and fifteen DMs in the PPP group. In addition, the control group's usage of DMs decreased in the post-test, indicating that input from the English-speaking environment alone did not produce consistent results in terms of how the target language was acquired.

We can demonstrate the positive impact instruction had with some samples from the tests of the experimental groups. Four samples are given from each post- and delayed test for each experimental group. Interaction patterns are shown as follows to reflect the interaction in each phase of the test : Teacher to students (T-SS) (part 1), student to student (S-S) (part 2) and

teacher to students and student to student (T –SS, S-S) (part 3).The function of teach target DM is indicated in brackets where there were different function taught. Each DM is highlighted in bold. Interviewer prompts (<S 00>) have been included for clarity where needed and students are shown as <S 01>, <S 02> etc. Students' responses have not been corrected. Full transcription conventions are given in appendix nine

III group

Immediate post-test

Part 1 (T-SS)

<S 10>: I think my family is a helpful family, if err, if my family have something, **like** err, something, we will discuss together and err, they can show themselves ideas or something like that.

Part 2 (S-S)

<S 12>: To be honest, I don't agree that shopping online is not safe

<S 01>: Why?

<S 12>: Be=**you see**, sometime, sometimes the product in the internet, I saw it but I can't touch it.

<S 06>: But the fee about email, fee about email, who pay?

<S 03>: Pay?

<S 06>: Fee about I send...**Like** facebox, **like** EMS.

Part 3 (T-SS, S-S)

<S 01>: If the problem is not serious, we will not complain because, **you know**, it's waste time.

Delayed post-test

Part 1 (T-SS)

<S 12>: It's kind of world war three, **you know**, it's **like**, it's a kind of computer game.

Part 2

<S 01>: I think fashion is, **you know**, you wear some clothes different from others.

< S 02>: **So**, **(OPENING)** do you like fashion magazines?

<S 04>: To what extent do you think wearing fashionable clothes makes you a popular person?

<S 10>: Maybe yes, **you know**, the girls wish ourselves the beautiful one.

PPP group

Immediate post-test

Part 1 (T-SS)

<S 00>: What do you do to keep healthy?

<S 16>: I think it's more healthy is much more important so you erm, have, **like**, green food.

Part 2 (S-S)

<S 19>: Always I think the internet is a safe place to shop (<S 20>: **Right (RESPONDING)**).

<S 19>: **You know**, I like shopping very much.

Part 3 (T-SS, S-S)

<S 00>: Who goes shopping the most in your family?

<S 19>: In my family? Err, **well**, **(PAUSING)** maybe my mother.

Delayed post-test

Part 1(T-SS)

<S 20>: Err, **'cos** I study out of the Jianshi for many years actually I don't know so much

Part 2 (S-S)

<S 07>: I think the world is more attention about the men's fashion

<S 20>: **Right (RESPONDING)**.

< S 15>: **So**, do you think that men are more interested in fashion now?

Part 3 (T- SS, S-S)

<S 00>: Do you dress differently if you go out with your friends or your parents?

<S 22>: Differently? Not that much, just wear, err, **like**, everyday.

It is also interesting to note that although the teaching did increase output of the target DMs, the output of the target DMs was not consistent across all students, with some students accounting for a higher proportion of usage than others. This indicates that, as we might expect, the experimental teaching had greater impact on some learners than others, a result consistent with theories of second language acquisition which suggest that learners may only acquire items of language when they are ready to do so (Ellis 1990). Another factor, as we noted in chapter four, is that there are a number of variables which no study of this kind could control for, such as the learner's motivation and exposure to and use of English outside the classroom, which may also have had an impact on these results.

These raw scores also indicate that some DMs were used more than others. Table twenty five shows how the DMs were used by each group in each test. DMs not produced in the tests were not included in the table. The function of each DM is indicated in brackets.

Table 25 Target discourse markers used by each group (main study)

The function of each DM is indicated in brackets. C = closing a topic or conversation E =giving an example, M = monitoring shared knowledge, O = opening topics or conversations, P= pausing, J = justifying, REF = reformulating, RSP = responding, S = sequencing.

Group	Pre-test	Immediate post-test	Delayed post-test
III group	You know (M) 2 Like (E) 1	You know (M) 5 Like (E) 6 Right(C) 1 You see (M) 1 So(O) 2	You know (M) 7 Like (E) 1 So (O) 3
PPP group	So (O) 5 You know (M) 3 I mean (REF) 2 Well (P) 2 Like (E) 7	So (O) 2 You know (M) 10 You see (M) 1 I mean (REF) 1 Well (P) 8 Like (E) 5 Right (RSP) 11 Then (S) 1	So (O) 8 You know (M) 2 Cos (J) 7 I mean (REF) 1 Like (E) 12 Right (RSP) 4
Control group	So (O) 2 You know (M) 5 I mean (REF) 1 First (S) 1 Like (E) 1	So (O) 1 You know (M) 2	So (O) 5 You know (M) 2 I mean (REF) 4

5.1.2 Discussion of target discourse marker usage

These results indicate that some of the target DMs were clearly easier for these learners to acquire. It is difficult to pinpoint precisely why certain DMs were used but it is possible to offer some suggestions:

1. The most commonly used DMs 'you know' and 'like' are amongst the most frequently used items in British spoken English. The CANCODE corpus lists 'you know' as the most common chunk in their corpus and 'like' amongst the most common words (O'Keeffe *et al.* 2007). Therefore, learners are very likely to have heard these in input available outside class time and this is likely to have reinforced the input given in class.

2. Several commonly used DMs have near equivalents in the learner's L1 (Chinese) and therefore the DM and its function are easier to transfer from the L1 to the L2 (English). A translation of each DM is given in appendix thirteen. Translations also indicate that in some cases Chinese employs the same word or phrase for several DMs. For example, 'right' and 'anyway' used to close topics or conversations are both translated as 'hǎo le', which may have

resulted in learners generally avoiding these functions of the DMs as there was confusion about which to use.

3. Longer DMs such as 'as I was saying' and 'where was I?' place greater pressure on the learner's processing capacity simply because they are lengthier, harder to remember and therefore, easier to avoid. Research on lexical chunks (for example, Schmitt 2004) does indicate that they can be remembered and produced as a single lexical item but this also suggests that if learners cannot recall the whole chunk, they may avoid using it.

4. The tests tasks were not identical to the contexts of use employed in the lessons. This may have meant that because learners were not asked to, for example, narrate a story they did not feel the need to use DMs such as 'then', 'first', 'anyway' which were presented in narratives in the lesson input.

5.1.3   Statistical analysis of test scores

Having looked at the raw data, we now need to analyse it for statistical significance. In other words, we will be asking if the means are significantly different when we compare groups. As discussed in chapter four, the method of analysis was to compare results by using a one-way ANOVA to compare means and determine if there was any significant difference between the scores of each group. If significance was found, then a post-hoc S-N-K test was administered to determine where the significance lay. Significance was assumed if probability (p) was shown to be 0.05 or less ($p < 0.05$), that is, the results could be assumed to have occurred by chance in only 0.05 percent of cases. This was chosen because it is the standard measurement in this type of analysis (Dornyei 2007) and is displayed in bold in each table. Only scores which indicated statistical significance were further analysed using post-hoc S-N-K tests.

Table 26 Interactive ability (IABIL) scores: Pre-, post- (PST) and delayed (DEL) tests compared (main study)
One-way ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Total PRE IABIL	Between Groups	4.597	2	2.299	3.014	0.063
	Within Groups	25.167	33	0.763		
	Total	29.764	35			
Total PST IABIL	Between Groups	0.844	2	0.422	1.134	0.334
	Within Groups	12.281	33	0.372		
	Total	13.125	35			
Total DEL IABIL	Between Groups	2.045	2	1.023	4.420	**0.020**
	Within Groups	7.635	33	0.231		
	Total	9.681	35			

Table 27 Post-hoc S-N-K test: Total delayed interactive ability scores compared (main study)
Group 1 = III, Group 2 = PPP, Group 3 = control

		Subset for alpha = 0.05	
Group	N	1	2
1.00	12	3.8542	
3.00	12	4.1250	4.1250
2.00	12		4.4375
Sig.		0.177	0.121

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

The difference is significant if we compare the PPP and control groups to the III group. The results indicate that these first two groups scored significantly higher than the III group on the total delayed test interactive ability score. They also show that the difference between the PPP and control groups was not significant.

Table 28 Interactive ability (IABIL) gain scores compared: Pre- to post (PREPST), post- to delayed (PSTDEL) and pre- to delayed (PREDEL) tests (main study)
One-way ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Gains IABIL PREPOST	Between Groups	4.181	2	2.090	3.385	**0.046**
	Within Groups	20.380	33	0.618		
	Total	24.561	35			
Gains IABIL PSTDEL	Between Groups	1.316	2	0.658	1.304	0.285
	Within Groups	16.656	33	0.505		
	Total	17.972	35			
Gains IABIL PREDEL	Between Groups	3.948	2	1.974	2.430	0.104
	Within Groups	26.802	33	0.812		
	Total	30.750	35			

Table 29 Post-hoc S-N-K test: Total delayed test interactive ability scores compared (main study)
Group 1 = III, Group 2 = PPP, Group 3 = control

		Subset for alpha = 0.05	
Group	N	1	2
3.00	12	-0.9375	
2.00	12	-0.4792	-0.4792
1.00	12		-0.1042
Sig.		0.163	0.251

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

The gain in interactive ability was significant in the case of the III group compared to the

control group This group's score eroded significantly less when compared to the control group

but not when compared to the PPP group. We can thus say that from pre- to post-test the

performance of the III group was significantly better than the control group in terms of

interactive ability. However, this was only in the sense that their scores decreased significantly

less than the control group. They did not increase significantly more.

Table 30 Discourse management (DMN) total scores compared: Pre-, post- (PST) and delayed (DEL) tests (main study)
One-way ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Total PRE DMN	Between Groups	4.399	2	2.200	4.623	**0.017**
	Within Groups	15.703	33	0.476		
	Total	20.102	35			
Total PST DMN	Between Groups	1.698	2	0.849	1.727	0.194
	Within Groups	16.224	33	0.492		
	Total	17.922	35			
Total DEL DMN	Between Groups	0.597	2	0.299	1.712	0.196
	Within Groups	5.755	33	0.174		
	Total	6.352	35			

Table 31 Post-hoc S-N-K test: Discourse management total pre-test scores compared (main study)
Group 1 = III, Group 2 = PPP, Group 3 = control

		Subset for alpha = 0.05	
Group	N	1	2
1.00	12	3.3333	
2.00	12		4.0417
3.00	12		4.1042
Sig.		1.000	0.826

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

The pre-test discourse management score shows that the III group were significantly weaker in this area than either the PPP or control group but there were no significant differences between the PPP and control groups.

Table 32 Global marks total scores compared: Pre-, post- (PST) and delayed (DEL) tests (main study)
One-way ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Global PRE	Between Groups	1.212	2	0.606	1.164	0.325
	Within Groups	17.182	33	0.521		
	Total	18.394	35			
Global PST	Between Groups	0.514	2	0.257	0.804	0.456
	Within Groups	10.547	33	0.320		
	Total	11.061	35			
Global DEL	Between Groups	1.483	2	0.741	3.997	**0.028**
	Within Groups	6.120	33	0.185		
	Total	7.602	35			

Table 33 Post-hoc S-N-K test: Global marks delayed test scores compared (main study)
Group 1 = III, Group 2 = PPP, Group 3 = control

		Subset for alpha = 0.05	
Group	N	1	2
1.00	12	3.9167	
2.00	12		4.3125
3.00	12		4.3750
Sig.		1.000	0.724

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

This score indicates that the III group were significantly weaker than the PPP and control group in terms of their global score in the delayed test. However, the PPP group did not differ significantly from the control group.

Table 34 Total usage of target discourse markers: Pre-, post- (PST) and delayed (DEL) tests (main study)
One-way ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Total PRE	Between Groups	10.722		5.361	2.570	0.092
	Within Groups	68.833	33	2.086		
	Total	79.556	35			
Total PST	Between Groups	62.889	2	31.444	6.945	**0.003**
	Within Groups	149.417	33	4.528		
	Total	212.306	35			
Total DEL	Between Groups	32.000	2	16.000	2.711	0.081
	Within Groups	194.750	33	5.902		
	Total	226.750	35			

Table 35 Post-hoc S-N-K test: Total post-test usage of target discourse markers compared (main study)
Group 1 = III, Group 2 = PPP, Group 3 = control

		Subset for alpha = 0.05	
Group	N	1	2
3	12	0.2500	
1	12	1.2500	
2	12		3.4167
Sig.		0.258	1.000

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

This table demonstrates that there was a significant difference in the total amount of DMs used in the immediate post-test. The PPP group used a significantly larger number of the target DMs than either the III or control group.

5.1.4 Discussion of test results

Taken as a whole, the quantitative test date provides a somewhat mixed picture in terms of our research questions. We can summarise the findings as follows:

The raw totals and gain scores in terms of interactive ability, discourse management and global marks show that both experimental groups did improve their scores more than the control group, particularly when we compare pre- to delayed test scores and post-test to delayed test

scores. We need to temper this with the fact that all groups had weaker scores in their immediate post-test. This is hard to account for and as we have noted, the standardisation ensured inter-rater reliability.

The totals and gains in terms of interactive ability, discourse management and global marks were only statistically significant in a limited number of aspects. We have noted above that the gain in interactive ability of the III group was significant ($p<0.046$) when compared to the control group at the pre- to post-test stage but only in the sense that their scores weakened significantly less than the control group; the scores themselves did not actually improve. We must also temper this with the fact that the III group's interactive ability was significantly weaker ($p<0.017$) than the PPP and control groups at the pre-test stage, so less attrition in this area was possible for this group.

The PPP group did outperform the III group on the total global scores in the delayed test and in the total interactive ability scores at the delayed test stage. Between groups, these differences showed a significance of $p<0.028$ and $p<0.020$ respectively. However, the post-hoc tests show that the PPP group did not outperform the control group in these areas, so we cannot suggest that these scores provide evidence that the teaching of DMs had a significant impact upon them.

In terms of the raw total usage of the target DMs, we can clearly see that there was a greater increase in the target DMs by both the experimental groups when compared to the control groups, and that this was greater at the post-test stage than the delayed test stage. Put simply, as we would hope, this suggested that teaching the target DMs did have some impact on both the experimental groups and that the control group did not seem to increase their usage of them without teaching.

The total of the target DMs used was significant ($p<0.03$) at the immediate post-test stage for the PPP group, when compared to both the control and III group. This suggests that in the short term, the PPP framework led to a greater increase in usage of the target DMs and the treatment had more impact upon this group, although this was not sustained into the delayed test. In addition, no statistically significant gains were found when comparing usage of the target DMs pre- to post-test, post-to delayed test and pre- to delayed test. This means that although we can

state that the treatment had a significant impact upon the PPP group's use of the target DMs in the post-test, neither experimental group (nor the control group) made significant gains in terms of acquiring the target DMs.

There was also no statistical significance found in the gains made in discourse management or global scores when comparing the experimental groups with the control group or the experimental groups with each other. The PPP group did outperform the III group on some total scores (for example the global delayed test score) but were not significantly better than the control group. This suggests that an increased use of the target DMs did not have a positive correlation with improvement in interactive ability, discourse management or global scores, as we suggested when discussing the raw test data in section 5.1.1 above.

In terms of our first two research questions, the results can be interpreted as follows:

1. To what extent does explicit teaching aid the acquisition of spoken discourse markers by intermediate (CEFR B2) level Chinese EAP learners studying in the UK?

> Does it improve discourse management and interactive ability?
> Does it increase the number of target DMs they are able to produce in a free response speaking test?
> Is the increase significant when comparing the experimental groups with each other and with a control group?

We can suggest that in this study the explicit teaching did not aid acquisition in statistically significant ways because the gains made were not shown to be significant at the value $p < 0.05$. The raw scores show that the teaching did have an impact on the interactive ability, discourse management and global scores of both experimental groups but the only gain score which demonstrated that the two experimental groups significantly improved when compared to the control group was the gain made in interactive ability at the pre- to post-test stage. Although the scores of both groups decreased here, they decreased significantly less than the control group.

The teaching clearly did increase the amount of target DMs used by the experimental groups as shown in the raw scores. This was statistically significant in the case of the PPP group at the

post-test stage. This demonstrates that the treatment did have a positive impact on the PPP group in terms of their usage of the target DMs.

2. Which framework aids acquisition of the target DMs more – a PPP framework of teaching DMs or an III framework which helps students to notice DMs but does not practise them as items in class?

> Do both frameworks help equally or does one help more than the other?
>
> Do both help more than no explicit input?

In terms of acquisition, the lack of significant gain scores does not allow us to suggest that one teaching framework aided acquisition of the target DMs more than the other. Cleary though, in terms of the number of DMs used in the immediate post-test, the PPP framework had a more significant impact. The raw scores also suggest that explicit teaching had more impact than no teaching because both experimental groups did increase their usage of the target DMs after the lessons. If we examine the usage from pre- to delayed test, the III group increased their usage by eight target DMs, the PPP group increased their usage by fifteen target DMs, while the control increased their usage by just one target DM.

5.2   Chapter summary

In this chapter we have described the quantitative data and analysed the results in relation to the first two research questions. In the next chapter, we move on to describing the qualitative data and to analysing this data in order to discover what additional answers it may provide to the first two research questions and to what extent it can help to answer the third research question.

6   The main study: qualitative data analysis

6.0   Chapter introduction

This chapter describes the qualitative data. It begins with the coding of the learner diaries before analysing lists of the most frequent words used in the diaries, the keywords used and the most frequent two-, three-, four- and five-word chunks used. The data is also illustrated with use of concordance lines of some of the most frequent words. As described in chapter four, the coding, frequency lists and concordance lines were produced with the aid of CAQDAS software.

6.1   Coding of group diaries

Each diary entry was typed and then analysed using NVIVO 8 software to formulate categories. As we also wished to analyse the data for aspects such as the most and least frequent words, spelling errors were corrected but otherwise, the language used by students has not been changed. In chapter four, we explained that the software was used to help code and retrieve the data easily but it was not used (and indeed cannot be used) to formulate codes on its own; this remains the task of the researcher. The coding categories were expanded from those used in the pilot study so that they now comprise 'methods', 'class description', 'noticing', 'practice' and 'usefulness'. The meaning of each code was as follows:

Methods: Any evaluative comments made in relation to a teaching activity or aspect of methodology used in class.

Class description: Any non-evaluative comments made in relation to what was studied or activities completed in class.

Noticing: Any comments which provided evidence of noticing or evaluative comments made in relation to noticing activities in class. Evidence of noticing was defined, as we have in chapter two (2.2.3), broadly as 'conscious registration of attended specific instances of language' (Schmidt 2010: 725) and more narrowly as the ability of a learner to consciously 'notice the gap' (Schmidt 1990) between their current interlanguage and the target language, between the L1 and L2 and to consciously notice differences between spoken and written modes. Noticing is measured through a learner stating what has been noticed in the form of a

verbal or written report and this may include displays of metalinguistic awareness. In the case of the diary data, the evidence came from written reports.

Practice: Any evaluative comments made in relation to practice activities in class.

Usefulness: Any evaluative comments made in relation to how useful the language or methodology was to the student.

The greater number of categories was a reflection of the larger amount of data and because many of the learners' comments did not fit into just two categories but were still seen as relevant to the research questions. The entries chosen as examples here were considered to be prototypical comments made by the whole group, as it is clearly not possible to display and discuss each diary entry. It was decided not to include comments related to each day of the study but rather to choose comments which related to each category of coding and were considered representative of the group as a whole. The complete diaries are available in appendix four. Each comment included in this chapter was chosen based on two criteria:

1. It contained a word which was connected directly to the category, and/or

2. The selective judgement of the researcher suggested it was closely connected to the category and was a comment made by several students.

6.1.1   Sample coded diary entries
Methods

> (III) Therefore, there are a lot of culture difference between UK and China.
> Nevertheless, I think we can comprehend the style of communication by discussing the difference.
> (III) Then we also learner some short dialogs from teacher, we understand the difference between these English dialogs and Chinese dialogs. I think it will help us make less mistake possible when we talking with others.
> (III) In short to understand much more the rule of English words can help us use the English language more flexibly in our daily life.

(III) And then, we compared the different style of story, the story written on newspaper are more simple and use more verbs. From this lesson, I know how to tell a story in spoken language.

(PPP) On the spot practice was a very good methods. I think, of course, we changed our partner in the middle class time in order to make more conversation with different people.

(PPP) Today, we studied the discourse markers when having a dialogue we listened to a record of two local British and their conversations are the materials for us to study the discourse markers. This is a good way I think since it's related to our life and can be useful.

(PPP) And then, we practised using these words when we communicated with our partners. Finally, we make a conversation with our partners. One acted as the staff from the post office and the other acted the customer. This was enjoyable and useful. I had to think hard and use the spoken discourse markers in our conversation.

(PPP) And finally we told our own stories by using what we learned to each other to practice. This is a good way that practice directly after learned we can remember that easily.

Class description

(III) Today we studied the discourse markers such as I mean, anyway, mind you, right etc.

(III) Today we are learning about conversation used by discourse markers and their different to Chinese. Moreover, I learn some new information about first class stamp, second class stamp. It's delivery product for different times.

(III) Today we studied the features of general speak and review the technologies. For example: the difference between 'you see' and 'you know', the different meaning of well etc.

(III) In this class, the typical order on things happen then we did some exercises for compared with the spoken story and written newspaper story. The kinds of different structure, grammar, vocabulary. Such as the sequencing and structure words in the spoken story but they did not to arise in the written newspaper story.

(PPP) The teacher introduced the spoken discourse to us and taught us how to use it. Moreover, we did some exercises about matching the correct meaning to each discourse markers.

(PPP) Today we studied the another meaning of 'right', 'well' and 'you know'. At the beginning of the class, we learned to read with the aid of pictures. After then, I found that these pictures are connected with the topic of post office.

(PPP) Firstly, tutor ask us told scared story or experience to each other. We shared the stories and enjoy it. Secondly, we learned how to tell a story. It consist of starting signal, time/place, other background details, problem, solution, evaluation (how I feel about this story now).

(PPP) Today we studied the language of recipe. At the beginning of the class, we made a conversation with our partner. We talked about the favourite food. After then, we learned some vocabulary which we can use in describing something how to cook. And then, we did some listening and made some notes. We listened to commentary from Jamie Oliver who is the celebrity chef and did a practice about putting recipe in order. Moreover, we had to care about the language he used in the commentary. And then, we found out the differences between the written description and spoken description from Jamie's salmon.

Noticing

(III) In English, discourse markers are necessary because they are very useful. For example, 'anyway' can tell you that I want to change topic or close the conversation. In addition, if you want to signal I am going to start a new topic or conversation you can say 'so'. Certainly, we also learn many other discourse markers but they just use for oral. We can not use for writing. On the other hand, we will not use these discourse markers in Chinese because Chinese is director than English. We will change topic without discourse marker. Sometime, we will also use discourse marker but it is different with English.

(III) They are widely used by local people.

(III) In contrast, Chinese is much different from English. Because of some of that are not available in Chinese for example, mind up.

(III) Compare with the spoken English is much more simple than written English. Written English should write complete sentences. Most of stories written by present perfect tense.

(PPP) One of the important points was the discourse marker. They always use discourse markers such as so, I mean, anyway in the conversation.

(PPP) Sometimes the phrase doesn't mean anything, but accurately they mean something in daily life. For example, if I'm going to say contrasts with what I have just said, 'mind you' can be used at this time. For instance, 'English food is not quite good, mind you, sometimes it is delicious'.

(PPP) Native speakers like to use the discourse markers very well, when a people told us something, we can say 'right' to show that we are listening or agreeing. However, sometimes if you want to start a new topic, you also can use it. 'Well' and 'you know' have the meaning of pause. If you don't like something but other people ask you, then you can use well to move to another topic.

(PPP) After the listening quiz, Chris gave us everyone a paper of recipe. So, we found some different between the spoken language and written recipe. In the written one the words are quite formal and completed. But in the spoken one, there is no verbs sometimes. James also use 'it' to stand for subjects. To sum up, the words used more informal and friendly in spoken language but completed sentences should be used in written recipe in order to help your audiences understand you easily and clearly.

Practice

(III) Through the listen practice we can clear about every discourse marker's meaning. Finally, we used these discourse marker to answer the question. This is very important to let us remember these discourse marker.

(III) Today we're free talk about the weekend's plan and listening training. These training may be useful for us to talk about my friends, furthermore it can expand our topic because the teacher taught us how to discuss our plans.

(III) After the listening practice and the link of translation I found lots of difference between the first and second language.

(III) This class is very useful for us because we need to practice the listening exercise constantly.

(PPP) Then we did some practices with classmates. I found the pronunciation a little difficult so we need to practice more. Finally, we did a game with our deskmates. Due to enough practice of this game, I can understand it well and use it much smoothly. This kind of activity helps us to stay these phrases in our head.

(PPP) We practised in groups of two. I supposed worked in a post office and served the customer. This was interesting and useful, I had to calculate the numbers and answered her more professional like a native people by using the words we learned. In a words, the practices and useful for me to memorise what I have learned.

(PPP) Before we told the stories, we organized the stories by some key words. Though it was a little but hard for us to tell stories so clear, we did it not bad. When we told the stories, we used the words we learned. So it was helpful for us to improve our spoken English.

(PPP) Finally, we did some practice. I used this language and this structure to tell the story again to my partner. This kind of learning style improves my spoken language.

Usefulness

(III) In this class, I have leaned some useful language I should work hard. I hope one day I can speak fluent English like native speaker.

(III) In my opinion, the discourse markers are useful than only speak English because I had to think and use the expressions with correct meaning. Finally, its benefit to my grammar and teaching me how to choose these words in colloquial sentence.

(III) It's so useful for us to use it in daily talk.

(III) Today we studied some useful language which we might use in shops. Although these languages are not available in China but now we are in UK, we should know their culture buy things in a polite and comfortable way.

(PPP) It was interesting to learn some of the spoken language and pronunciation. I found it useful to learn these kinds of spoken language.

(PPP) Today I have learnt some phrases. I think they are useful I can use them in conversation.

(PPP) Before this class, when we say that sentences we always say the full sentences, after this class we know a lot of short sentences to say the something. That's helpful and useful in our daily life, that's sentences will more clear to UK local life.

(PPP) The language I learned today is very useful in my daily life.

6.2.2   Diary data analysis: discussion of coded diary entries

It is possible to suggest that several salient points emerge from this data, some of which are similar to the discoveries we made during the pilot study.

First, it seems clear that learners from both groups were able to demonstrate explicit knowledge of the language areas studied, which was displayed in the comments in the category 'class description'. They could, for instance, often name the discourse markers studied in the classes and identify the topic and context in which they had studied them. In some cases, they could also name macro discourse structures such as those used in spoken narratives and the level of formality of the language in question. This suggests that, as in the pilot study, there was not a great difference between the approaches in helping students to notice and state what had been studied. This type of explicit knowledge is something we would, of course, hope and expect if teaching learners explicitly and, as we have noted in chapter two, both approaches do attempt to develop declarative knowledge of this kind. Whether this type of knowledge is of benefit to learners is not a fully resolved debate but as we have argued in chapters two and four, explicit teaching has been shown to have a more positive impact on acquisition than implicit teaching (Norris and Ortega 2000, 2001). If declarative knowledge is a result of this kind of teaching, it certainly has the potential to help learners to make language choices. Knowing what they have studied may allow learners to make conscious use of the language taught, as Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1985) have suggested.

Second, there was some difference in the way each approach was viewed but this was not as marked as in the pilot study. Comments about the class methods in general tended to be fewer than in the pilot study and there was a greater amount of class description. However, we can see that learners from the III group did feel that language awareness and tasks which encourage noticing were of use to them. For example:

(III) Then we also learner some short dialogs from teacher, we understand the difference between these English dialogs and Chinese dialogs. I think it will help us make less mistake possible when we talking with others.

There were, however, occasional doubts about the methodology expressed:

(III) So maybe we need more try do more test then we can feel it.

Similarly, the PPP group were generally positive about the methodology used and in particular about the use of practice. In this area, they made a greater number of positive comments than the III group. Comments such as the following illustrate this:

(PPP) Finally, we used these language to practise the conversation again with our partner about the best or worst holiday you have ever had. This kind of practice can help me improve my spoken language.

(PPP) And finally we told our own stories by using what we learned to each other to practice. This is a good way that practice directly after learned we can remember that easily.

The III group made fewer comments about practice (presumably as a result of having not been given any output practice of the target DMs) and tended to comment on it in relation to listening, which was in itself felt to be useful. For example:

(III) Through the listen practice we can clear about every discourse marker's meaning. Finally, we used these discourse marker to answer the question. This is very important to let us remember these discourse marker.

There were, however, one or two reservations expressed about the benefits of practising in class by the PPP group, such as the following:

(PPP) Maybe in the future, Chris could add more situational conversation practice into the class, looking forward to the next class.

(PPP) However, when Chris let us to do the practise I found that I still couldn't express fluently I had few vocabularies. It's my biggest weak point.

This last comment echoes a discovery we made during the pilot study, that PPP can rush learners into practising target language before they are ready to do so, leading to feelings of failure or frustration. Despite these reservations, we can suggest that, overall, there were more positive comments from the PPP group about methodology and about the use of practice in particular.

In terms of what the student noticed, it was again clear that both approaches did help student to notice aspects of the language input. For example:

> (III) As we know, oral English is different from academic writing English. In Chris' class, I found that discourse markers of oral English should be valued. For instance, when we want to signal I am going to start a new topic or conversation, we are supposed to use 'so'.
>
> (PPP) Sometimes the phrases doesn't mean anything, but accurately they mean something in daily life. For example, if I'm going to say contrasts with what I have just said, 'mind you' can be used at this time. For instance, 'English food is not quite good, mind you, sometimes it is delicious'.

The difference between the groups was that the III group seem to notice more in terms of the narrower definition of noticing we outlined in the chapter introduction. They noticed differences between Chinese and English and between written and spoken modes. We can see evidence of this in many comments, such as the following:

> (III) In English, discourse markers are necessary because they are very useful. For example, 'anyway' can tell you that I want to change topic or close the conversation. In addition, if you want to signal I am going to start a new topic or conversation you can say 'so'. Certainly, we also learn many other discourse markers but they just use for oral. We can not use for writing. On the other hand, we will not use these discourse markers in Chinese because Chinese is director than English.
>
> (III) In a spoken story it always has sequencing e.g. starting signal, time/place, other background details, problem, solution and evaluation. And the most of sentences are simple. In contrast, written newspaper story always has complex sentences, only

summary the details. Otherwise, both of the two forms have a common characteristics which is that they use the past tense to tell it.

Naturally, we would expect such a result, as the methodology placed more emphasis on helping students to notice, just as we would expect explicit teaching to develop declarative knowledge. However, if we are to believe that noticing is a necessary pre-requisite of acquisition then perhaps the ability to notice differences between the L1 and L2 and between spoken and written modes will, in the long term, be of more benefit to learners than noticing in a general sense.

Finally, the diaries indicate that both groups did find the language useful and felt it was worth studying. In this regard, again, there were more positive comments from the PPP group, indicating that they found the classes slightly more useful than the III group. Examples of comments which indicate this are as follows:

> (III) In my opinion, the discourse markers are useful than only speak English because I had to think and use the expressions with correct meaning. Finally, its benefit to my grammar and teaching me how to choose these words in colloquial sentence
> (PPP) It was interesting to learn some of the spoken language and pronunciation. I found it useful to learn these kinds of spoken language.
> (PPP) Before this class, when we say that sentences we always say the full sentences, after this class we know a lot of short sentences to say the something. That's helpful and useful in our daily life, that's sentences will more clear to UK local life.

6.2.3 Coded diary data summary

From this data, we have suggested the following:

- Both groups were able to demonstrate declarative knowledge of the language they had studied.
- There were fewer comments about methodology in general than in the pilot study and more comments which simply described the classes.

- The PPP group were more positive about class methods and in particular the use of practice. The III group did, however, offer some positive evaluation of noticing tasks and listening work but these were fewer in number than the PPP group.

- Both approaches produced evidence of noticing but there were comparisons made between L1/L2 and between spoken and written modes by the III group. This indicates that they noticed more about the language.

- Both groups found the DMs in focus useful, suggesting they are worth explicitly teaching to learners at this level in this context.

Having discussed the diary data in terms of how it was coded, the next section will analyse the same data from another angle. This time, as discussed, we are analysing the most frequent words, the most frequent keywords and the most frequent chunks used.

6.3   Diary data analysis: word frequency lists

Although raw frequency counts only give a partial picture of the language being analysed, they do provide insights which we can follow up with more detailed and fine grained analysis (see for example, O'Keeffe *et al.* 2007). In this way, we can build a clearer picture of the language students used in their diaries and begin to show how this qualitative data can answer the second of our research questions. The intention, as we have discussed previously in chapter four, was to use computer software to analyse qualitative data with a greater degree of objectivity. This can be used to counter claim that analysing qualitative data is often subject to the researcher's bias. This is not of course to say that the coded diary comments discussed in the previous section lack validity but rather that this analysis can provide objective support for our findings.

Tables thirty six and thirty seven show the most frequent fifty words used by each group. A list showing the second most frequent fifty words is given in appendix six. A percentage is also given showing the amount of the complete text each word covers, alongside a cumulative percentage showing the percentage of the whole text which the first two, three, four words etc. cover. For example, the first two words 'the' and 'we' cover 8.92% of the whole text, while 'we' alone covers 3.51% of the text.

Table 36 Top fifty most frequent words in the III group student diaries (main study)

RANK/ FREQUENCY	COVERAGE INDIVIDUAL	CUMULATIVE	WORD
1. 196	5.41%	5.41%	THE
2. 127	3.51%	8.92%	WE
3. 111	3.06%	11.98%	AND
4. 102	2.82%	14.80%	IN
5. 92	2.54%	17.34%	TO
6. 67	1.85%	19.19%	I
7. 65	1.79%	20.98%	A
8. 52	1.44%	22.42%	OF
9. 49	1.35%	23.77%	IS
10. 46	1.27%	25.04%	ENGLISH
11. 42	1.16%	26.20%	CLASS
12. 42	1.16%	27.36%	SOME
13. 37	1.02%	28.38%	US
14. 35	0.97%	29.35%	STORY
15. 34	0.94%	30.29%	ABOUT
16. 33	0.91%	31.20%	ARE
17. 33	0.91%	32.11%	FOR
18. 33	0.91%	33.02%	THAT
19. 31	0.86%	33.88%	IT
20. 30	0.83%	34.71%	TODAY
21. 29	0.80%	35.51%	WORDS
22. 28	0.77%	36.28%	SPOKEN
23. 27	0.75%	37.03%	CAN
24. 27	0.75%	37.78%	THIS
25. 24	0.66%	38.44%	DISCOURSE
26. 22	0.61%	39.05%	DIFFERENT
27. 22	0.61%	39.66%	OUR
28. 22	0.61%	40.27%	USE
29. 21	0.58%	40.85%	HAVE
30. 21	0.58%	41.43%	HOW
31. 21	0.58%	42.01%	WITH
32. 20	0.55%	42.56%	FROM
33. 19	0.52%	43.08%	THESE
34. 18	0.50%	43.58%	NOT
35. 18	0.50%	44.08%	SO
36. 18	0.50%	44.58%	WRITTEN
37. 17	0.47%	45.05%	MANY
38. 17	0.47%	45.52%	MORE
39. 17	0.47%	45.99%	STUDIED
40. 17	0.47%	46.46%	TEACHER
41. 16	0.44%	46.90%	LEARN
42. 16	0.44%	47.34%	PEOPLE
43. 15	0.41%	47.75%	ALSO
44. 15	0.41%	48.16%	MARKERS
45. 14	0.39%	48.55%	BETWEEN
46. 14	0.39%	48.94%	BUT
47. 14	0.39%	49.33%	CONVERSATION
48. 14	0.39%	49.72%	COOKING
49. 14	0.39%	50.11%	IT'S
50. 14	0.39%	50.50%	KNOW

Table 37 Top fifty most frequent words in the PPP group student diaries: (main study)

RANK /FREQUENCY	COVERAGE INDIVIDUAL	CUMULATIVE	WORD
1. 290	6.00%	6.00%	THE
2. 177	3.66%	9.66%	WE
3. 159	3.29%	12.95%	TO
4. 142	2.94%	15.89%	AND
5. 135	2.79%	18.68%	A
6. 114	2.36%	21.04%	I
7. 90	1.86%	22.90%	OF
8. 71	1.47%	24.37%	IN
9. 63	1.30%	25.67%	ABOUT
10. 52	1.08%	26.75%	IS
11. 49	1.01%	27.76%	CLASS
12. 47	0.97%	28.73%	THIS
13. 46	0.95%	29.68%	SOME
14. 45	0.93%	30.61%	US
15. 45	0.93%	31.54%	VERY
16. 44	0.91%	32.45%	FOR
17. 43	0.89%	33.34%	YOU
18. 41	0.85%	34.19%	LEARNED
19. 40	0.83%	35.02%	IT
20. 39	0.81%	35.83%	OUR
21. 39	0.81%	36.64%	USEFUL
22. 38	0.79%	37.43%	STORY
23. 36	0.74%	38.17%	CHRIS
24. 35	0.72%	38.89%	THAT
25. 35	0.72%	39.61%	THEN
26. 34	0.70%	40.31%	WITH
27. 33	0.68%	40.99%	CONVERSATION
28. 32	0.66%	41.65%	WAS
29. 30	0.62%	42.27%	TODAY
30. 28	0.58%	42.85%	SPOKEN
31. 27	0.56%	43.41%	CAN
32. 27	0.56%	43.97%	HAD
33. 26	0.54%	44.51%	MORE
34. 25	0.52%	45.03%	LANGUAGE
35. 24	0.50%	45.53%	USE
36. 23	0.48%	46.01%	AFTER
37. 23	0.48%	46.49%	HOW
38. 23	0.48%	46.97%	SO
39. 23	0.48%	47.45%	WORDS
40. 22	0.46%	47.91%	THINK
41. 22	0.46%	48.37%	WHEN
42. 21	0.43%	48.80%	ALSO
43. 21	0.43%	49.23%	HE
44. 20	0.41%	49.64%	LIKE
45. 20	0.41%	50.05%	TELL
46. 19	0.39%	50.44%	COOKING
47. 19	0.39%	50.83%	DID
48. 19	0.39%	51.22%	HAVE
49. 19	0.39%	51.61%	LISTENING
50. 19	0.39%	52.00%	PRACTICE

6.3.1 Analysis of frequency counts

The frequency counts are consistent with analysis of larger corpora in that the most frequent words tend to be grammatical items such as pronouns, which in themselves do not contain much by way of propositional content. O'Keeffe *et al.* (2007:34—35) for instance, found that 'I' and 'we' ranked as the sixth and twenty eighth most frequent words in the ten million word Cambridge International Corpus and second and twenty third in the five million word CANCODE spoken corpus. Although 'we' occurs slightly more frequently in our data than in the CANCODE corpus, this was probably due to the fact that students were describing what they did as a class. The high rank of pronouns such as 'I', 'we' and 'us' is consistent with the findings of O'Keeffe *et al.* (2007).

What is of more interest are the different frequencies of words which carry more propositional content and can thus be related to our purpose of trying to provide objective support for the findings thus far. An initial look at the words used provides support for some of the results we discussed earlier in this chapter, although at this stage we are only looking at the words in isolation so there is a degree of interpretation involved.

There is evidence that demonstrates both groups did display declarative knowledge about what they had studied. The words 'studied' and 'learned' for example, both appear in the top fifty words, 'studied' being ranked at thirty nine in the III group's list and 'learned' at eighteen in the PPP group's list. The greater frequency in the PPP group might suggest that their type of instruction developed a higher level of declarative knowledge, shown in the ability to state what they had learnt. The use of the words 'English' (ranked at ten), 'spoken' (ranked at twenty two) and 'different' (ranked at twenty six) by the III group could be evidence of this group's greater ability to notice differences between the L1 and L2 and spoken and written modes of language, particularly as only the word 'spoken' appears in the PPP group's list (ranked at thirty). The high frequency of the word 'useful' by the PPP group (ranked at twenty one) and the fact that this word does not appear in the III group's list, may also support the suggestion that the PPP groups made more positive comments about the type of instruction they received. Similarly, the PPP group's use of the word 'practice' (ranked at fifty) also seems to support the idea that this group mentioned it more, often in positive comments. The word 'practice' does not appear in the III group's top fifty words.

However, analysing the most frequent words in isolation only provides a certain degree of evidence which can support the analysis of the coded diary comments. In order to gain a clearer picture of what these counts tell us, the words were also analysed for 'keyness'. This measures the frequent words in our data against a general corpus (in this case, the Brown corpus) and calculates how much more frequent they are proportionally in our data than in the general corpus (Compleat Lexical Tutor 2011). The first figure is the rank and the second the keyness of the word. The higher the score, the greater the keyness. Only those words which occur ten times more than in the general corpus are included. Full details of how the computer makes the calculations and the full list of keywords can be found in appendix seven. For details of the Brown Corpus, see the Brown Corpus Manual (1979).

Table 38 Top ten keywords in the III and PPP group diaries (main study)

III group:	(1) 958.50 video
	(2) 657.20 discourse
	(3) 410.50 colloquial
	(4) 383.40 marker
	(5) 342.25 grammar
	(6) 274.00 jiffy
	(7) 273.88 stamp
	(8) 273.78 topic
	(9) 207.22 spoken
	(10) 205.33 chris
PPP group	(1) 921.00 video
	(2) 665.00 chris
	(3) 511.50 scary
	(4) 511.50 vocabularies
	(5) 511.50 enjoyable
	(6) 409.00 quiz
	(7) 409.00 dialogues
	(8) 347.90 discourse
	(9) 307.00 classmates
	(10) 307.00 preston

Having produced these two lists, it is now possible to look at the most frequent words from both groups in contrast, showing their frequency and keyness factors. This then allows us to make a clearer analysis of the words used and discuss them in relation to the findings from the coded diary entries. In order to look more closely, two further analyses of each data set were produced. First, each set of data was further analysed for the most frequent two-, three-, four- and five-word chunks (termed 'N Grams' by Compleat Lexical Tutor 2011) and then a selection of concordance lines for both sets of words were produced. The computer software finds chunks by searching for recurrent strings of words. It is not able to find those strings

which are syntactically whole and so the chunks may be fragmentary and do not always make sense as accepted phrases or collocations.

Table thirty nine shows a comparison of some of the most frequent words and which experimental group they relate to, their rank in each list according to the group they come from and how they rank in terms of keyness, with higher numbers indicating a greater keyness factor. Table forty shows words with contrasting frequency from each group. Each word was chosen for comparison because it related directly to the analysis we have so far made and all the words, excluding only the word 'different', were listed in the keywords of both groups. This word did not occur in the PPP group's list but was considered to be directly related to the analysis. The frequency counts include words outside the top fifty words in some instances, again as these were considered to be directly relevant to the analysis. Tables forty one and forty two below show the ten most frequent two-, three- four- and five-word chunks used in each diary and the concordance lines are used in the discussion of these results. A list of the hundred most frequent chunks from the learner diaries is available in appendix eight.

Table 39 Comparison of frequent words in group diaries (main study)

Words for comparison	Rank order (within the top 100 words)	Number of occurrences	Keyness (in comparison with Brown Corpus)	Group
English	10	46	64.93	III
	64	15	17.93	PPP
Spoken	22	28	207.22	III
	30	28	154.84	PPP
Discourse	25	24	657.20	III
	63	15	347.90	PPP
Learned	60	13	30.43	III
	18	41	71.71	PPP
Written	36	18	32.01	III
	88	12	15.94	PPP
Language	59	13	32.66	III
	34	25	46.94	PPP
Useful	61	13	62.46	III
	21	39	140.00	PPP
Markers	44	15	383.40	III
	86	12	81.80	PPP

Table 40 Words with contrasting frequency in group diaries (main study)

Words for contrast	Rank order	Number of occurrences	Keyness (in comparison with Brown corpus)	Group
Different	26	22	64.93	III
	260	3	(not listed)	PPP
Chinese	77	10	49.78	III
	205	4	14.87	PPP
Practice	176	4	11.65	III
	50	19	41.36	PPP
Interesting	128	6	20.28	III
	56	17	42.95	PPP

Table 41 Top ten most frequent chunks in the III group diaries (main study)

5-word	4-word	3-word	2-word
001. **[4]** SPOKEN ENGLISH AND WRITTEN ENGLISH	001. **[5]** TODAY WE STUDIED THE	001. **[9]** A LOT OF	001. **[24]** IN THE
002. **[3]** THE SPOKEN ENGLISH AND WRITTEN	002. **[4]** ENGLISH AND WRITTEN ENGLISH	002. **[9]** TODAY WE STUDIED	002. **[20]** HOW TO
003. **[2]** TO SIGNAL I AM GOING	003. **[4]** SPOKEN ENGLISH AND WRITTEN	003. **[9]** THE POST OFFICE	003. **[20]** TODAY WE
004. **[2]** FROM THE SPOKEN ENGLISH AND	004. **[3]** IN A SPOKEN STORY	004. **[8]** WE STUDIED THE	004.**[15]** DISCOURSE MARKERS
005. **[2]** WE LEARN A LOT OF	005. **[3]** HOW TO TELL A	005. **[7]** THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN	005. **[15]** WE STUDIED
006. **[2]** CHRIS TEACH US SOME KNOWLEDGE	006. **[3]** TO TELL A STORY	006. **[6]** WRITTEN NEWSPAPER STORY	006. **[12]** THIS CLASS
007. **[2]** IT MEANS I WANT TO	007. **[3]** TODAY WE STUDIED SOME	007. **[5]** IN THIS CLASS	007. **[11]** POST OFFICE
008.**[2]** CAREFULLY SINCE THE LOCAL PEOPLE	008. **[3]** THE DIFFERENT MEANING OF	008. **[5]** A SPOKEN STORY	008. **[11]** SPOKEN ENGLISH
009. **[2]** WANT TO SIGNAL I AM	009. **[3]** AT THE POST OFFICE	009. **[5]** THE SPOKEN ENGLISH	009. **[10]** THE TEACHER
010. **[2]** LISTEN CAREFULLY SINCE THE LOCAL	010. **[3]** THE SPOKEN ENGLISH AND	010. **[5]** KNOW HOW TO	010. **[10]** A LOT

Table 42 Top ten most frequent chunks in the PPP group diaries (main study)

5-word	4-word	3-word	2-word
001. **[5]** THE BEGINNING OF THE CLASS	001. **[7]** AT THE BEGINNING OF	001. **[9]** OF THE CLASS	001. **[27]** IN THE
002. **[5]** AT THE BEGINNING OF THE	002. **[6]** TO TELL A STORY	002. **[8]** AT THE BEGINNING	002. **[26]** WE LEARNED
003. **[5]** HOW TO TELL A STORY	003. **[6]** TODAY WE STUDIED THE	003. **[8]** A LOT OF	003. **[25]** ABOUT THE
004. **[4]** A CONVERSATION WITH OUR PARTNER	004. **[5]** HOW TO TELL A	004. **[8]** TODAY WE STUDIED	004. **[20]** THE CLASS
005. **[4]** THIS WAS ENJOYABLE AND USEFUL	005. **[5]** CONVERSATION WITH OUR PARTNER	005. **[8]** IS VERY USEFUL	005. **[20]** OF THE
006. **[4]** BEGINNING OF THE CLASS, WE	006. **[5]** A CONVERSATION WITH OUR	006. **[7]** TELL A STORY	006. **[18]** HOW TO
007. **[3]** WE MADE A CONVERSATION WITH	007. **[5]** THE BEGINNING OF THE	007. **[7]** A CONVERSATION WITH	007. **[17]** AND THEN
008. **[3]** WE LEARNED SOME VOCABULARIES ABOUT	008. **[5]** BEGINNING OF THE CLASS	008. **[7]** THE BEGINNING OF	008. **[17]** I THINK
009. **[3]** I GOT A LOT OF	009. **[4]** WE MADE A CONVERSATION	009. **[7]** THE POST OFFICE	009. **[16]** WE LISTENED
010. **[3]** CLASS, WE MADE A CONVERSATION	010. **[4]** OF THE CLASS, WE	010. **[7]** AND THEN WE	010. **[16]** VERY USEFUL

6.3.2   Discussion of diary data

As we have suggested, both groups displayed an ability to use the metalanguage needed to describe what they studied, as shown in the use of words such as 'markers' and 'discourse' and this provides support for the claims we have made that both experimental groups displayed declarative knowledge. As we have also stated, we might ordinarily expect learners who have had explicit language lessons to be able to explain what it is they have studied to a greater degree than learners taking implicit lessons. In our initial discussion of the single word

frequency lists, we noted that 'learned' had a higher ranking for the PPP group than the III group (eighteen for the PPP group and sixty for the III group). We suggested that this could indicate that the PPP group displayed a higher level of declarative knowledge through explaining what they had learnt. However, looking at the data as a whole, the higher frequency and higher keyness factor of metalanguage such as 'markers' (frequency rank of forty four, keyness factor of 383.40) 'discourse' (frequency rank of twenty five, keyness factor of 657.20) in the III group diaries, seem to indicate that the III group displayed a greater ability to use such language to describe what had been studied. This could be said to indicate a higher level of declarative knowledge. This is further supported by the frequency of such chunks as 'discourse markers' and 'spoken English', which are ranked at number four and number eight in the III group's data.

The III group more frequent use of 'English', 'written', 'Chinese' and 'different' and the higher keyness factor of each provides support for the suggestion that the III group displayed more ability to make comparisons within and between their L1 and the L2 and spoken and written modes of language, which, as we have argued earlier, indicates a greater level of noticing. This is also demonstrated through the use of chunks such as 'spoken English and written English' and 'the difference between'. The concordance lines for this group give further evidence of this, as we can see in the examples below:

1. discourse markers' meaning will like 'Excuse me'. Therefore, **CHINESE** culture is different with English.

2. understand the difference between these English dialogs and **CHINESE** dialogs. I think it will help us make less mistake.

3. we will not use these discourse markers in Chinese because **CHINESE** is director than English.

1. listeners like you go on. And the written language is very **DIFFERENT** especially the newspaper it needs succinct.

2. Chinese for example, mind up. As we know, oral English is **DIFFERENT** from academic writing English.

This is in contrast to the PPP group, who do not seem to have noticed these differences between the languages in the same way. Generally, their use of the words 'Chinese' and 'different' do not provide as much evidence that this group compared the target DMs to the L1 or noticed differences between spoken and written modes because the words are used in a more general sense.

1. very interesting think. At last to tell the truth, I think **CHINESE** foods are more delicious than local foods.

2. cook something. That is 100% real. In China, a traditional **CHINESE** girl should be able to cook delicious dishes.

3. In the first part, we did some conversations about weekend. **CHINESE** students like use very formal question to ask.

1. However, I found this class quite a bit **DIFFERENT**. First of all, the tutor himself is a native speaker.

2. middle class time in order to make more conversation with **DIFFERENT** people.

The PPP group's much more frequent use of 'useful' (ranked at twenty one, with a keyness factor of 140.00) and 'interesting' (ranked at fifty six, with a keyness factor of 42.95) indicates they found the overall methodology of their classes more helpful than the III group. This again supports the findings of the diary coding. The PPP group's use of 'practice' (ranked at fifty, with a keyness factor of 41.36) reflects both the differences in type of instruction used and provides support for the fact that they found practice to be useful. These results are supported by the high frequency of the two and three word chunks 'very useful' and 'is very useful', (raked at ten and five respectively), which do not occur in the III group's top ten chunks. Concordance lines from the PPP group's data, such the following, offer support for this:

1. worked in a post office and served the customer. This was **INTERESTING** and useful, I had to calculate the numbers.

2. It is very useful for me. Today the class was very **INTERESTING** because we discussed the food.

3. when your friends shared them stories with you that's a very **INTERESTING**

thing. And you only need to be a good listener.

1. In a words, the practices and **USEFUL** for me to

memorise what I have learned.

2. Today I have learnt some phrases. I think they are **USEFUL** I can use

them in conversation.

3.The language I learned today is very **USEFUL** in my daily

life

1. learned to each other to practice. This is a good way that **PRACTICE** directly

after learned we can remember that

2. story, the interesting but scaring story. I think I should **PRACTICE** more

after class in order to

3. Finally, we did a game with our deskmates. Due to enough **PRACTICE** of this

game, I can understand it well and use it

When the III group use similar words, they tend to refer to listening practice and use the words 'interesting' and 'useful' in a slightly more general sense, about the classes as a whole and not activities which are specifically linked to the type of instruction they received:

1. it's easy to understand with readers. Today's class was very **INTERESTING**

because we learnt something about cooking.

2. All in all, this class is **INTERESTING** for

me because I learn many new knowledge.

3. I hope can meet more information about UK it must be very **INTERESTING**. At

the beginning of oral class our teacher gave

1.We're enjoyable and the knowledge are **USEFUL** to our future

lessons.

2. give us some ideas and general spoken grammar. It's **USEFUL** to our UK

life.

3.In this class, I have leaned some **USEFUL** language. I

should work hard.

1. methods instead of the direct answer. After the listening **PRACTICE** and the

link of translation I found lots of difference.

2. to arise in the written newspaper story. Finally, we also **PRACTICE** our

listening skill in this class. We're enjoyable

3. This class is very useful for us because we need to **PRACTICE** the

listening exercise constantly.

6.3.3 Summary

To summarise the findings thus far, we can suggest that according to the diary data, both

groups were able to state what they had learnt, something we would normally expect when

using an explicit teaching approach. The III group demonstrated more use of metalanguage to

discuss what they had learnt. This indicates that the classes developed a higher level of

declarative knowledge, a finding which is consistent with Truscott's (1998) suggestion that

noticing tends to develop this. We can argue that this may have a beneficial impact when

learners come to make conscious choices in their use of language. The III group also noticed

more about differences between L1 and L2 and written and spoken modes. We might suggest

that this higher level of noticing may have a greater impact over time, even if, as we have

discussed in chapter five, it did not always have a direct impact upon their test results.

The PPP group found the type of instruction more useful and interesting than the III group, a

finding which suggests that PPP was the preferred framework. We can also suggest that there

is a positive correlation between these students' views about their type of instruction and their

superior test results. As we have noted in chapter five, the PPP group outperformed both the

control and III group in terms of their mean usage of DMs in the immediate post-test, a finding which had statistical significance.

We will discuss these results in greater detail and in relation to the research questions in the summary of this chapter and in chapter seven. Next, we will describe and discuss the focus group data.

6.4. Focus group data

The focus group data was approached in a similar way to the diary data. The transcripts were first coded into the following categories: 'class methods', 'noticing', 'practice' and 'usefulness', using NVIVO 8 software. The one difference when compared to the diary data was that learners did not usually describe what they had studied in the class as they had done in their diaries and so a 'class description' category was not included in the analysis. Following the coding of the data, the transcript was also analysed for the most frequent words, keywords and chunks. For the purposes of that analysis, all researcher questions and responses were removed from the text. Full transcripts of the focus groups and transcription conventions are available in appendix nine and the entries chosen for selection here contain the researcher's questions. Learner errors have not been corrected. Samples chosen were considered to be prototypical comments made by the whole group as it is clearly not possible to display and discuss every comment made in the focus groups. Each comment was chosen based on the same two criteria used for the diaries:

1. It contained a word which was connected directly to the category, and/or

2. The selective judgement of the researcher suggested it was closely connected to the category and was a comment made by several students.

6.4.1 Sample coded focus group comments

< S 01>, <S 02> etc = student

<S 00> = researcher

Class methods

(III) <S 03>: Yes, but I, I thin =I have err a comment is we can go out, outside the class to learn something, yeah, just like go to the mall to learn how to (<S 01>, <S 02>: Shopping, <S 04>: Yeah) (<S 00>: OK), it's close to the life (<S 06>: Chatting).

(III) <S 04>: I agree with this point and I also have suggestion, maybe, the most of the time you do one exercise and do it again and do it again and translate to English and translate to Chinese, it's very boring, I don't want to do that (<S 00>: Right) because, we do it again some words we remember that and do again and most of words I remember that and translate to English err, I can (<S 03>: Just a job, it's not very easy to remember it).

(III) <S 02>: I enjoyed the way of talking err, just like brainstorming, everyone can speak freely.

(III) <S 05>: I think we need more communication with English people, (<S 00>: Uh huh) not Chinese people so, I think it's helpful to our English (<S 00>: Hmm).

(PPP) <S 03>: I think you can actually take us to some places, for example take us to the supermarket and you act what we learn, yeah that, that's more vivid.

(PPP) <S 03>: And, I think you should probably add some, erm, culture background into the conversation. <S 00>: OK could you explain about that?+ <S 03>: Yes, for example you should mention that this weekend topic is very popular in the UK and maybe we will learn it, yes (<S 05>: Right) <S 03>:Yes, you can't just bring, bring the topic and tell us to practice it but don't tell us why we should to practice this topic.

(PPP) <S 06>: Yeah, erm, when we make a conversation and then we listen and native speaker and to compared the language between, erm, our conversation and, to the model and, I think this method is very useful.

(PPP) <S 05>: When you give us the transcript it's useful (<S 04>: Maybe have other ways, <S 00>: OK) we can see which err, situation we use these word.

(PPP) <S 04>: Firstly, add some foreign, erm, native speaker. Secondly, [laughter] make the lessons vivid, vivid (<S 00>: Uh huh) and thirdly, we can go to some specific loca, err, specific location or field.

Noticing

(III) <S 01>: Err, [inaudible] it's err, different from speaking English and writing English (< S 00>: OK) and some discourse marks.

(III) <S 05>: And we learned about err, how to speak err, natural or write normal and err, find something about err, speak lang err, speak language or writing language is different.

(III) <S 03>: We often = the sentence is by Chinese not by English (<S00>: OK) so, sometimes you =it's very different to know where our means.

(III) <S 01>: Two different language (<S 00>: OK) and I think if I, if I transfer the Chinese to English (S 00>: Yes) and err, does work because a lot of words would be missing (<S 00>:Yes) and err, if I speak English, I think I should think about English

(III) <S 04>: Maybe there is some words is get two speaker more closely [inaudible] 'you know' and maybe like we know each other very well.

(PPP) <S 05>: When you use this, this discourse markers you have be seems like friendly and we want to make friend with you.

(PPP) <S 05>: Because when we think in Chinese and translate to English, we, it is tough to add the best discourse markers to the our dialogue, it's stranger.

Practice

(III) < S 04>: In class you mean, maybe we could have role-play, role-play (<S 00>: A role-play?, <S 01> :Role-play, <S 00> : OK) yeah, we can, I can, we should, we should talk to each other and like play game, and role-play it's very, I think it's quite interesting.

(III) <S 00>: OK, we didn't do any practice of the language. Erm, do you have any comments about that? <S 06>: I think maybe this method may be [says in Chinese] (<S 02>, <S 04>: Suitable) suit for Chinese people because we like this method (<S 00>: Uh huh).

<S 06>: Err, when we when we are , when we were at err, in junior, junior school, high school,(<S 00>: Uh huh) we always, teacher always tell us how to do this err, make, err, do this , do this advertise [inaudible] and so on. We always practise it (<S 00>: Uh huh) so I think that Chinese people like this method, (<S 00>: Practice you mean?) yeah practice (<S 00>: Uh huh).

(III) <S 01>: Err, I think, some more practice must be fair [Laughter] (<S 00>: [Laughs] OK, yeah) because I always forget some discourse marks (<S 00>: Sure) and err, I don't know how to put in my mind and if I practise it can be more useful in the daily life.

(III) <S 04>: We live err, we live with the Chinese people (<S 00>: Hmm) so we, every day we say Chinese, we haven't opportunity to, to practise (<S 00>: OK)

(PPP) <S 02>: Practice is important. <S 00>: OK, can you say more about + <S 02>: But, I say the group is too big, I mean, too many people [laughter] small groups of people, about ten, twelve (<S 00>: Sure) and more international students.

(PPP) <S 05>: Because we are quite, is familiar with each other when we talk, communicate in English (<S 04>: So we want to use Chinese to express our idea)[laughter] + <S 01>: Actually, I know, I know what <S 02> did last night, last night, (<S 00>: Of course) yeah, I should ask him again. [laughter] 'What did you do last night? How was your weekend?'[laughter] +

(PPP) <S 03>: For example, erm, for example is about cooking (<S 00>: Yeah) or buying ingredients, you can take us to the supermarket or to the butcher or to the fish market and you can look at that stuff and tell us how do you say that? For example a bunch, a bunch of something, or you say, that's very useful.

(PPP) <S 04>: I think sometimes, the conversation is very useful, (<S 00>: Hmm) because it can teach us how to, teach us make the discourse marking in the right, in the correct location, yeah.

(PPP) <S 05>: If only one nationality in the class it's useless. <S 00>: To practise?
 <S 05>: Yes.

(PPP) <S 03>: Erm, I think the class should include more, more practice like the (<S 04>: Action?) practice in the field, is just acted, just not, not just the learning in the

class but actually use it in your daily life (<S 00>: OK) and, it could, erm, I think you can check whether you whether we used it in our daily life. For example, tell us how to cook, cook, in English and the next time you come to class you can ask us how, how many of you have used this, this cooking, cooking phrases, or cooking words in your daily life. If you ask us to use it in our daily life, maybe when, next time I cook, I will say it to myself, 'well, there's stir-frying'.

Usefulness

(III) <S 03>: I think it's useful than other class because in other class it's, always, always there's some professional knowledge but in your class is useful in daily.

(III) <S05>: Err, it think it's helpful because err, when I speak English now I usually use 'you know', 'anyway', 'I think', something, I think it's err, really err, like really English, not Chinglish.

(III) <S 03>: It helps (<S 04 >: Helps) +<S 00>: It helps? OK. Can you say a bit more because that's what I'm interested in. <S 03>: Because we just arrived UK one month so we need more useful English (<S 00>: OK) to help us to life in living here (<S 00>: OK, OK).

(III) <S 01>: Erm, err, I think both have useful, err, I can understand them and err, they can understand me (<S 00>: OK). I live with foreigner people (<S 00>: Oh right, OK) yes, err, sometimes they don't know what I'm mean and if I use the 'I mean', I can explain it so it can understand.

(PPP) <S 00>OK, can you say a bit more about why, why is it useful, then? <S 03>: You always talk about your daily life. For example how do you cook or how to plan your trip.

(PPP) <S 03>: Yes, but don't like the academic study we know this we won't use it in daily life, so we'll just forget it (<S 00>: Right). Yes, the thing you teached is very useful, so we try to remember everything.

(PPP) <S 04>: They con,connection words is very useful. (<S 00>: OK) it's just like err, err, for example the 'anyway' (<S 00>: Uh huh) or something like this is make our spoken English more spoken English more like the native speakers.

(PPP) <S 03>: No, I don't think being in the UK can help us to learn something. You just heard people, native speakers, talk like that but you don't know you have to imitate, imitate as you are talking (<S 05>: Yeah), you hear them and you understand them but you talk in your own way and if you don't have this discourse marks this lesson I won't use 'well, anyway' or something, something, something, yeah. (<S 00>: OK) so I think it's useful, (<S 00>: OK) yeah + <S 03>: Hearing is not just hearing, you won't notice it, (<S 00>: OK),you hear people say 'anyway' all the time (<S 00>: Uh huh), but I don't use it a lot, (<S 00>: OK) unless you tell us that this is native tradition to say 'anyway', yeah.

6.4.2 Focus group data analysis: discussion of coded comments

It is possible to suggest that several salient points emerge from this data, some of which are similar to the discoveries we made from the diary data, with some noteworthy differences.

First, it seems clear that learners from both groups were able to show some explicit knowledge of the language areas studied, which was displayed in many of their comments. This suggests that, as with the diaries, both approaches helped students to develop this explicit knowledge, something we would hope and expect if teaching learners explicitly. However, the suggestion that the III group had gained a more developed declarative knowledge of the target DMs was not supported in the focus group data, as both groups displayed a similar amount of awareness.

Second, there were both similarities and differences in the way each teaching approach was viewed and some of the views were significantly different to the diary comments. Learners from the III group were, on the whole, less positive about the teaching methods used. This was generally consistent with the diary data, where we noted that the PPP group were more positive about the type of instruction received. The III group's comments also revealed some more specific aspects of the instruction they did not find useful. One student, for example, commented on his dislike of 'back translation' exercises (students translate from English to Chinese and then from Chinese back into English. They then compare with the original English text):

(III) <S 04>: I agree with this point and I also have suggestion, maybe, the most of the time you do one exercise and do it again and do it again and translate to English and

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translate to Chinese, it's very boring, I don't want to do that (<S 00>: Right) because we do it again some words we remember that and do again and most of words I remember that and translate to English err, I can (<S 03>: Just a job, it's not very easy to remember it).

Other students commented on the desire to have classes take place outside the classroom and be related more directly to real life:

(III) <S 03>: Yes, but I, I thin =I have err, a comment is we can go out, outside the class to learn something, yeah, just like go to the mall to learn how to (<S 01>, <S 02>: Shopping, <S 04>: Yeah) (<S 00>: OK), it's close to the life <S 06: chatting>) +

The PPP group were to an extent positive about the methods used, something consistent with the diary data. Some students, for example, commented on the usefulness of looking at transcripts which contextualised the target language:

(PPP) <S 06>: Yeah, erm, when we make a conversation and then we listen and native speaker and to compared the language between, erm, our conversation and, to the model and, I think this method is very useful.

(PPP) <S 05>: When you give us the transcript it's useful (<S 04>: Maybe have other ways, <S 00>: OK) we can see which err, situation we use these word.

However, several students commented on the need to make the classes take place outside the classroom and be more directly related to real life. For example:

(PPP) <S 03>: I think you can actually take us to some places, for example, take us to the supermarket and you act what we learn, yeah that, that's more vivid.

They also felt that the method used if there had been more cultural information provided:

(PPP) <S 03>: And, I think you should probably add some, erm, culture background into the conversation. <S 00>: OK could you explain about that? + <S 03>: Yes, for example you should mention that this weekend topic is very popular in the UK and maybe we will learn it, yes.

Both groups also made the suggestion that each method would have worked better in multilingual groups. For example:

> (PPP) <S 05>: If only one nationality in the class it's useless. <S 00>: To practise?
>
> <S 05>: Yes.

In terms of what the students noticed, it was again clear that both approaches did help students to notice aspects of the language input in a broad sense. As in their diaries, students could often explain what they had noticed. However, as in their diary entries, the III group did seem to notice more in terms of the differences between Chinese and English and between written and spoken modes and there was little evidence of this type of noticing from the PPP group. We can see evidence of this in comments such as the following:

> (III) <S 04>: Different style. (<S 00>: Uh huh) different style, the speaking ,the speaking style and the writing style it's like 'umm' , 'well', that's what.

When the groups commented upon practice, there was a significant difference from the diary comments. The III group felt more practice would be useful to them and made several comments to this effect, such as the following:

> (III) <S 01>: Err, I think, some more practice must be fair [Laughter] (<S 00>: [Laughs] OK, yeah) because I always forget some discourse marks (<S 00>: Sure) and err, I don't know how to put in my mind and if I practise it can be more useful in the daily life.

One learner commented that practice was familiar to them and would therefore be seen as useful:

> (III) <S 06>: I think maybe this method may be [*says in Chinese*] (<S 02, <S 04>: Suitable) suit for Chinese people because we like this method (<S 00>: Uh huh).
>
> <S 06>: Err, when we, when we are, when we were at err, in junior, junior school, high school, (<S 00>: Uh huh) we always, teacher always tell us how to do this err, make, err, do this, do this advertise [inaudible] and so on. We always practise it.

The PPP group agreed that practice could be useful:

> (PPP) <S 04>: I think sometimes, the conversation is very useful, (<S 00>: Hmm) because it can teach us how to, teach us make the discourse marking in the right, in the correct location, yeah.

However, there were a number of comments which expressed reservations about how useful practice is in class within a monolingual group:

> (PPP) < S 02>: Practice, err, I say sometimes maybe help but sometimes for example, you gave me the discourse markers and we practised with <S 01> (<S 00>: Yeah) we finished very fast (<S 00>: Yes), 'Well, the sentence', 'Do you know the sentence?' (<S 00>: OK) very fast because we are familiar and we know what to say. (<S 00>: Ah, OK.) I mean, I, we really know the meaning and we think it's easy (<S 00>: OK, OK) to go.

There was also some agreement with the III group, that practice is better if it takes place outside the class, with other nationality groups in real world contexts. For example:

> (PPP) <S 03>: Erm, I think the class should include more, more practice like the (<S 04>: Action?) practice in the field, is just acted, just not, not just the learning in the class but actually use it in your daily life (<S 00>: OK) and, it could, erm, I think you can check whether you, whether we used it in our daily life.
>
> (III) <S 04>: We live err, we live with the Chinese people (<S 00>: Hmm) so we, every day we say Chinese, we haven't opportunity to, to practise (<S 00>: OK).

Finally, both groups agreed that learning the target DMs in class was useful for them, because as expressed in their diaries, they felt the language was applicable to their daily life:

> (III) <S 03>: I think it's useful than other class because in other class it's, always, always there's some professional knowledge but in your class is useful in daily.
>
> (PPP) <S 04>: They con, connection words is very useful. (<S 00>: OK) it's just like err, err, for example the 'anyway' (<S 00>: Uh huh) or something like this is make our spoken English more spoken English more like the native speakers.

6.4.3 Focus group coded comments summary

From this data, we have suggested the following:

- As we found in the diary data, both groups were able to demonstrate declarative knowledge of the language they had studied. There was no clear evidence in the focus groups that the III group had developed a greater declarative knowledge, as the diary data suggested.

- The III group felt that practice in class would have been helpful to them and that some language awareness tasks such as back translation were not useful. The PPP group saw some value of practice in class but the evaluation was less positive than that recorded in diary entries. Several learners questioned how useful practice was in a monolingual group.

- Both groups suggested that practice in either multilingual groups or preferably outside the class, in real world contexts, would be a useful addition or adaptation of the methodology used in class.

- The III group demonstrated a greater level of noticing and there were comparisons made between L1/L2 and between spoken and written modes.

- Both groups found the DMs in focus useful because they felt the language was relevant to their daily lives in the UK, suggesting they are worth explicitly teaching to learners at this level, in this context.

The next section will analyse the same data using frequency counts, keyword counts and selective concordance lines to analyse the data.

6.4.4 Focus group data analysis: word frequency lists

The focus group data was analysed in exactly the same way as the diary data and for the same reasons we have mentioned above. The intention, as we have discussed previously in chapter four in relation to the diary data, was to use CAQDAS software to analyse the qualitative data to provide a degree of objectivity. This can be used to counter claims that analysing qualitative data is often subject to the researcher's bias. This is not, of course, to say that the coded focus group comments discussed in the previous section lack validity, rather that this analysis provides objective support for the findings thus far.

Tables forty three and forty four show the most frequent fifty words used by each group. A frequency list containing the second most frequent fifty words can be found in appendix ten. A percentage is also given showing the amount of the complete text each word covers, alongside a cumulative percentage showing the percentage of the whole text the first two, three, four (etc.) words cover. For example, the first two words 'I' and 'err' cover 7 .65% of the whole text, while 'I' covers 4.04 % of the text as a whole.

Table 43 Top fifty most frequent words in the III focus group (main study)

RANK/	COVERAGE		
FREQUENCY	INDIVIDUAL	CUMULATIVE	WORD
1. 94	4.04%	4.04%	I
2. 84	3.61%	7.65%	ERR
3. 82	3.53%	11.18%	THE
4. 82	3.53%	14.71%	WE
5. 67	2.88%	17.59%	AND
6. 62	2.67%	20.26%	TO
7. 47	2.02%	22.28%	CAN
8. 44	1.89%	24.17%	YOU
9. 42	1.81%	25.98%	IN
10. 37	1.59%	27.57%	IT'S
11. 37	1.59%	29.16%	SOME
12. 37	1.59%	30.75%	YEAH
13. 36	1.55%	32.30%	ENGLISH
14. 33	1.42%	33.72%	CHINESE
15. 31	1.33%	35.05%	IS
16. 29	1.25%	36.30%	SO
17. 29	1.25%	37.55%	THINK
18. 25	1.08%	38.63%	BUT
19. 24	1.03%	39.66%	THIS
20. 24	1.03%	40.69%	USE
21. 23	0.99%	41.68%	DON'T
22. 23	0.99%	42.67%	KNOW
23. 22	0.95%	43.62%	LIKE
24. 21	0.90%	44.52%	IT
25. 21	0.90%	45.42%	VERY
26. 20	0.86%	46.28%	BECAUSE
27. 20	0.86%	47.14%	WORDS
28. 19	0.82%	47.96%	OF
29. 18	0.77%	48.73%	THAT
30. 17	0.73%	49.46%	JUST
31. 17	0.73%	50.19%	PEOPLE
32. 17	0.73%	50.92%	WITH
33. 16	0.69%	51.61%	HAVE
34. 15	0.65%	52.26%	A
35. 15	0.65%	52.91%	DIFFERENT
36. 15	0.65%	53.56%	MORE
37. 14	0.60%	54.16%	FOR
38. 14	0.60%	54.76%	NOT
39. 14	0.60%	55.36%	USEFUL
40. 13	0.56%	55.92%	CLASS
41. 13	0.56%	56.48%	DO
42. 13	0.56%	57.04%	MAYBE
43. 13	0.56%	57.60%	OTHER
44. 13	0.56%	58.16%	PRACTISE
45. 12	0.52%	58.68%	NEED
46. 12	0.52%	59.20%	SAY
47. 12	0.52%	59.72%	SPEAK
48. 12	0.52%	60.24%	TRANSLATE
49. 11	0.47%	60.71%	ALWAYS
50. 11	0.47%	61.18%	SOMETIMES

Table 44 Top fifty most frequent words in the PPP focus group (main study)

RANK/	COVERAGE		
FREQUENCY	INDIVIDUAL	CUMULATIVE	WORD
1. 148	3.44%	3.44%	YOU
2. 144	3.34%	6.78%	THE
3. 131	3.04%	9.82%	TO
4. 128	2.97%	12.79%	I
5. 123	2.86%	15.65%	YEAH
6. 110	2.55%	18.20%	WE
7. 108	2.51%	20.71%	YES
8. 105	2.44%	23.15%	AND
9. 84	1.95%	25.10%	IT
10. 75	1.74%	26.84%	IT'S
11. 74	1.72%	28.56%	IN
12. 53	1.23%	29.79%	JUST
13. 52	1.21%	31.00%	IS
14. 49	1.14%	32.14%	LAUGHTER
15. 47	1.09%	33.23%	CHINESE
16. 46	1.07%	34.30%	ERR
17. 44	1.02%	35.32%	US
18. 43	1.00%	36.32%	A
19. 42	0.98%	37.30%	THINK
20. 41	0.95%	38.25%	BUT
21. 41	0.95%	39.20%	FOR
22. 39	0.91%	40.11%	DO
23. 39	0.91%	41.02%	ENGLISH
24. 39	0.91%	41.93%	THAT
25. 35	0.81%	42.74%	NO
26. 34	0.79%	43.53%	LIKE
27. 34	0.79%	44.32%	WILL
28. 32	0.74%	45.06%	DON'T
29. 31	0.72%	45.78%	THIS
30. 31	0.72%	46.50%	VERY
31. 30	0.70%	47.20%	CAN
32. 28	0.65%	47.85%	BECAUSE
33. 28	0.65%	48.50%	ERM
34. 28	0.65%	49.15%	KNOW
35. 28	0.65%	49.80%	NOT
36. 28	0.65%	50.45%	OF
37. 27	0.63%	51.08%	HAVE
38. 27	0.63%	51.71%	IF
39. 26	0.60%	52.31%	HOW
40. 26	0.60%	52.91%	USEFUL
41. 25	0.58%	53.49%	RIGHT
42. 25	0.58%	54.07%	USE
43. 24	0.56%	54.63%	PRACTICE
44. 23	0.53%	55.16%	SO
45. 23	0.53%	55.69%	TALK
46. 23	0.53%	56.22%	THAT'S
47. 23	0.53%	56.75%	THEY
48. 22	0.51%	57.26	WITH
49. 21	0.49%	57.75%	ARE
50. 21	0.49%	58.24%	SAY

6.4.5 Analysis of frequency counts

Again, frequency counts are consistent with analysis of larger corpora, in that the most frequent words tend to be items which in themselves do not contain much by way of propositional content. O'Keeffe *et al.* (2007:34/35), for example, report that 'yeah' is the eighth most frequent word in the five million word CANCODE spoken corpus and that was also similar here, where it was the twelfth most common word used by the III group and the fifth most common used by the PPP group.

The rest of the words used are generally less instructive than those found in the diary data because they tend to reflect the interaction of the focus groups and not ideas which the learners tried to express. 'Think' for instance, is highly frequent in both lists (seventeenth in the III group's list and nineteenth in the PPP group's) because students were being asked to express opinions and as we shall see below, 'I think' was the first and second most common two-word chunk used by each group respectively.

There is again, however, evidence which supports the suggestion above that both groups did display declarative knowledge about what they had studied. Both groups made use of words such as 'English' (ranked thirteenth in the III group's list and twenty third in the PPP group's list), which we can suggest shows they were able to talk about the L2. The high frequency of the word 'Chinese', (ranked at fourteenth and fifteenth respectively) shows that they were also able to make comparisons between the L1 and L2, although the use of 'different' by the III group (ranked thirty fifth) supports the evidence above that this group noticed more differences between the L1 and L2, particularly as it did not appear in the PPP group's top fifty words. The frequency of the word 'useful' provided support for the idea that both groups felt the language was useful to learn. However, the ranking in each list was almost the same (ranked thirty ninth in the III group's list and fortieth in the PPP group's list). This does not seem to support the suggestion that the PPP group found their type of instruction more useful.

However, just as we mentioned with the diary data, analysing the most frequent words in isolation only gives us a certain amount of information. In order to gain a clearer picture of what these counts could tell us, the words were also analysed in lexical tutor for 'keyness' in exactly the same way as the diary data. These are displayed in table forty five. A full list of the keywords and how the analysis is calculated can be found in appendix eleven. Following this,

the keywords were analysed for comparison and contrast. As with the diary data, further analyses of each data set were also conducted. First, each set of data was analysed for two-, three-, four- and five-word chunks and then concordance lines for both sets of words were produced. A list of the hundred most frequent chunks can be found in appendix twelve. All the results were then analysed and concordance lines have been used to exemplify the discussion where appropriate.

Table 45 Top ten keywords in the III and PPP focus groups (main study)

III group	1) 1238.50 chatting
	(2) 653.75 yeah
	(3) 413.00 video
	(4) 309.69 translate
	(5) 255.24 chinese
	(6) 247.80 boring
	(7) 206.50 grammar
	(8) 206.50 travelling
	(9) 165.20 bean
	(10) 101.40 useful
PPP group	(1) 109.00 yeah
	(2) 585.76 laughter
	(3) 335.50 video
	(4) 223.50 preston
	(5) 191.13 chinese
	(6) 167.75 cheers
	(7) 156.60 discourse
	(8) 143.79 speakers
	(9) 134.20 boring
	(10) 134.20 weird

Tables forty six and forty seven show a comparison and contrast of similar frequent words and keywords as those used in the diary data. The word 'written' did not occur in the data and the word 'speaking' was chosen above 'spoken' because it occurred in both focus groups. 'Daily' was substituted for 'spoken' because it occurred more often here and was seen to have significance for the data. Tables forty eight and forty nine show the most frequent ten chunks used by both focus groups. The hundred most frequent chunks used can be found in appendix twelve. All the data produced for the III group amounted to only five, five-word chunks in total.

Table 46 Comparison of frequent words in focus groups (main study)

Words for comparison	Rank order(within the top 100 words)	Number of occurrences	Keyness (comparison with Brown Corpus)	Group
English	13	36	76.2	III
	23	39	46.12	PPP
Discourse	176	2	82.60	III
	106	7	156.60	PPP
Learned	95	5	17.64	III
	169	4	42.61	PPP
Speaking	60	8	55.05	LA
	186	4	14.92	PPP
Language	143	3	11.37	III
	80	11	22.57	PPP
Useful	39	14	101.40	III
	40	26	102.02	PPP
Markers ('marks')	209	2	29.50	III
	309	2	15.96	PPP
Daily	90	5	17.06	III
	69	14	25.88	PPP

Table 47 Words with contrasting frequency from focus groups (main study)

Words for contrast	Rank order	Number of occurrences	Keyness (in comparison with Brown corpus)	Group
Different	35	15	19.91	III
	123	6	(not on list)	PPP
Chinese	14	33	255.24	III
	15	47	191.93	PPP
Practice	44	13	26.35	III
	43	24	57.11	PPP
Interesting	112	4	20.40	III
	110	7	19.33	PPP

Table 48 Top ten most frequent chunks in the III focus group (main study)

5-word	4-word	3-word	2-word
001. **[3]** I DON'T KNOW HOW TO	001. **[3]** I DON'T KNOW HOW	001. **[10]** I THINK IT'S	001. **[26]** I THINK
002. **[2]** BUT I DON'T KNOW HOW	002. **[3]** DON'T KNOW HOW TO	002. **[6]** THE WAY OF	002. **[14]** YOU CAN
003. **[2]** AND DO IT AGAIN AND	003. **[3]** I WILL NOT USE	003. **[5]** I DON'T KNOW	003. **[14]** WE CAN
004. **[2]** I THINK WE NEED MORE	004. **[3]** I THINK WE NEED	004. **[4]** KNOW HOW TO	004. **[12]** CHINESE PEOPLE
005. **[2]** YOU CAN PUT THIS ERR	005. **[3]** BUT I DON'T KNOW	005. **[4]** I THINK WE	005. **[11]** THINK IT'S
(only 5 X 5 word chunks in the data)	006. **[2]** MOST OF THE TIME	006. **[4]** BUT I DON'T	006. **[11]** I DON'T
	007. **[2]** DO IT AGAIN AND	007. **[4]** IN THE CLASS	007. **[10]** IT'S VERY
	008. **[2]** AND TRANSLATE TO ENGLISH	008. **[3]** WE NEED MORE	008. **[10]** HOW TO
	009. **[2]** YOU CAN ASSUMPTION THAT	009. **[3]** THINK WE NEED	009. **[9]** AND ERR
	010. **[2]** I THINK IT'S A	010. **[3]** I WILL NOT	010. **[9]** IN THE

Table 49 Top ten most frequent chunks in the PPP focus group (main study)

5-word	4-word	3-word	2-word
001. **[3]** WE DON'T KNOW HOW TO	001. **[5]** DON'T KNOW HOW TO	001. **[7]** FOR EXAMPLE YOU	001. **[22]** I THINK
002. **[2]** TELL US HOW TO COOK	002. **[4]** I WILL DO THAT	002. **[7]** WILL DO THAT	002. **[15]** TO THE
003. **[2]** TAKE US TO THE SUPERMARKET	003. **[3]** HOW DO YOU SAY	003. **[6]** IS VERY USEFUL	003. **[15]** IN THE
004. **[2]** LAUGHTER RIGHT YES SO	004. **[3]** BEING IN THE UK	004. **[6]** IN THE CLASS	004. **[15]** FOR EXAMPLE
005. **[2]** OF US ALL OF US	005. **[3]** YOU CAN ASK THEM	005. **[5]** KNOW HOW TO	005. **[15]** IN ENGLISH
006. **[2]** DON'T LIKE PRACTICE AT ALL	006. **[3]** IN YOUR DAILY LIFE	006. **[5]** WE DON'T KNOW	006. **[14]** US TO
007. **[2]** IT IN OUR DAILY LIFE	007. **[3]** FOR A LONG TIME	007. **[5]** WITH EACH OTHER	007. **[14]** YOU CAN
008. **[2]** IF YOU PRACTISE A LOT	008. **[3]** TAKE US TO THE	008. **[5]** I THINK THE	008. **[14]** HOW TO
009. **[2]** ALL OF US ALL OF	009. **[3]** WE DON'T KNOW HOW	009. **[5]** DON'T KNOW HOW	009. **[14]** DAILY LIFE
010. **[2]** YOU PRACTISE A LOT IN	010. **[2]** MOST OF OUR CHINESE	010. **[4]** IN THE UK	010. **[11]** IF YOU

6.4.6   Discussion of focus group data

The results from the tables above offer some support for the comments made in the coded data

from the focus groups and in the learner diaries. There is again evidence, for example, that the

III group did notice more than the PPP group. We can find evidence of that in the higher

ranking of the word 'Chinese' and the higher keyness factor (255.24) of that word in their

transcript and the high ranking of 'Chinese people' (the fourth most frequent two-word chunk

in their data). This indicates a greater awareness of the gaps between their L1 and the L2

There is some evidence for this in the concordances below, which suggest that the III group

showed more evidence of comparing Chinese to English while the PPP group tended to use the

word slightly more generally.

III group

1. thinking sometimes we say in English the means is by the	**CHINESE** but err, in
England it's very different.	
2. English is different than like ,err, Chinese people,Chine we call	**CHINESE** English
'Chinglish', Chinglish can help the UK for us	
3. Two different language and I think if I, if I transfer the	**CHINESE** to English
and err does work because a lot of words.	

PPP group

1. translate the Chinese to the English in their mind thinking in	**CHINESE** and they
speak in English yeah. And they translate.	
2. because of the way you answer in	**CHINESE** is going to
be quite different.	
3. the big problem of the	**CHINESE** students is
err when they speaking they just translate.	

We can also suggest (as we have above) that the 'gap' between the two groups in terms of which type of instruction was more helpful is narrower in this data than in the diary data. This is shown by the very similar ranking of the words 'useful' and 'interesting', both of which have a similar keyness factor. 'Useful' was 101.40 for the III group and 102.02 for the PPP group, 'interesting' at 20.40 for the III group and 19.33 for the PPP group. Both groups commonly related the word 'useful' to the language taught and the role it could play in the interaction they needed to have on a regular basis in the UK. This can be seen in the sample concordances below:

III group

1. like really English, not Chinglish. Err, it's very	**USEFUL** and when
you chatting with others and err, I can use	
2. Because we just arrived UK one month so we need more	**USEFUL** English to
help us to life in living here erm, err	
3. and writing English and some discourse marks. I think it's	**USEFUL** in daily

PPP group

1. to Chinese I think sometimes the conversation is very	**USEFUL** because it
can teach us how to teach us make the discussion	
2. I think the discourse marks we learned from your class is	**USEFUL** because why
in communicate with foreigner	
3. Yes err specific words is for us is very	**USEFUL** I think. You
always talk about your daily life	

This positive evaluation can be linked to the word 'daily' which occurred in the data from both groups but with higher frequency in the PPP group, 'daily life' being the ninth most frequent two-word chunk in their data. Learners' positive evaluation about the usefulness of the lessons can at least be partially accounted for by the belief that the DMs in focus are part of 'daily' language, as we can see from the concordance lines below:

III group

1. use the writing story writing words, the written words in	**DAILY** chatting.
Maybe there is some words is get two	
2. English and some discourse marks. I think it's useful in	**DAILY**, some
sentence yes, it's useful. Yeah. Some English	
3. some professional knowledge but in your class is useful in	**DAILY**. No. I don't
know, I, I think it's very easy.	

PPP group '

1. this, this cooking, cooking phrases or cooking words in your	**DAILY** life If you ask
us to use it in our daily life	
2. we try to remember everything .Yeah. In daily life in	**DAILY** life we use it
regularly. Yes, practice makes perfect.	
3. useful very useful. No, why? It's daily life. Yeah, it's just	**DAILY** life. Because
we're interested in it we want to learn.	

These sets of concordances provide evidence that each group perceived the DMs studied to be useful because they are part of daily communication and used in daily life. The higher

frequency of this word by the PPP group suggests that they felt this more strongly, but it is clear from both groups that the target DMs were felt to be worth studying.

There was a greater use than in the diary data of the word 'practice' by both groups, (ranked at forty four by the III group with a keyness factor of 26.35 and ranked at forty three by the PPP group with a keyness factor of 57.11). The PPP group made a slightly higher number of comments about it, as shown in frequent chunks such as 'if you practise a lot' (ranked at eight in their list). This follows the evidence of the coded comments, which indicate that different views about practice emerged in the focus groups. The PPP group were more positive about their type of instruction in the diary data but this was not fully supported by the focus group data. Both groups were keen on classroom practice, and the III group suggested they felt they would have benefited from it, as it is something they felt familiar with from previous instruction in China. However, it was also suggested that this practice should preferably take place with learners of different nationalities and both groups suggested that practice could usefully take place outside the classroom. This could be in the form of guided or teacher led ' real world tasks, such as shopping at the local market. Students from the PPP group were far less positive in their views of practice within a monolingual group, with some learners feeling it was 'useless' in contrast with the data from their diaries, where there was a generally positive evaluation of it. These ideas can be illustrated with the concordance lines below:

III group

1. Sorry, can you repeat the question? Err, I think some more   **PRACTICE** must be fair because I always forget some discourse

2. And we have about ten years' experience so lot of   **PRACTICE**. I don't like the way of practise again, again

3. need this word and so we must err, try to remember, try to   **PRACTISE**, yeah. Because very natural we like to speak Chinese.

4. more fresh creative creativity err, creative and interesting   **PRACTICE**. Useful. Most, more speaking and less the writing.

5. marks and err, I don't know how to put in my mind and if I   **PRACTISE** it can be mo re useful in the daily life.

6. make err, do this, do this advertise and so on. We always **PRACTISE** it so I think that Chinese people like this method.

PPP group

1. you should have practice. Yeah.Yes, should have practice **PRACTICE** after class .That's best, that's the best.

2. and make yourself like native speakers I just don't like **PRACTICE** at all.

3. the listening is useful for me. Just like I said you give me **PRACTICE** I talk to it's very easy! Finished and

4. some people would like to practice.Yes. Hmm. I, I, I think **PRACTICE** is for suitable for most of our Chinese student

5. English more spoken English more like the native speakers **PRACTICE** is important. But I say the group is too big

6. No (laughter) no ,I mean, erm after you learn you should have **PRACTICE**. Yeah, yes should have practice. Practice after class.

6.5 Chapter summary

Looking at the qualitative data as a whole, we can summarise the results in the following way:

- Both teaching approaches develop declarative knowledge of the target DMs, in that learners could generally name and describe what they had studied. This is wholly consistent with what we would expect from two explicit teaching approaches and with the findings from our pilot study. There was evidence for this in the diary and focus group data.

- The diary data suggests that the III group developed declarative knowledge to a greater extent than the PPP group. There was evidence for this in the higher frequency of metalinguistic terms such as 'discourse' in their diaries and two-word chunks such as 'discourse markers'.

- The III group noticed more (in that this was available for report in diaries and focus groups) about the target DMs in terms of comparison with their L1 and when contrasting spoken and written modes of communication. There was evidence for this

in the coded comments and the higher frequency of words such as 'Chinese', 'English', 'different' and 'spoken' in their diary data and by their more specific use of the word 'Chinese' to compare the L1 and L2. This was particularly evident in their diaries but also in the focus group.

- Both experimental groups felt that learning the target DMs was useful for them because they felt the language would be needed in their daily life in the UK and it was not something they would necessarily notice or acquire without teaching. There was evidence for this in both sets of data and particularly in the frequent association of 'useful' with 'daily life' in the focus group data.

- The PPP group were generally more positive about the type of instruction they received, particularly in the diary data. Their coded diary comments also indicated more support for their type of instruction. The higher frequency of the word 'useful' and chunks such as 'is very useful supported this finding.

- Both groups expressed a belief that output practice is important and useful. In the diary comments, the PPP group used the word more often (perhaps not surprisingly) and were generally positive about it. The III group discussed it in terms of listening practice, which was felt to be useful. In the focus groups, however, there was some support for the use of practice by both groups, but reservations about how useful it is in a monolingual classroom. There was also some agreement that the most useful practice would take place in either multilingual classroom groups or outside the classroom in real world situations in which learners are using English.

In terms of research question two and three in particular, we can suggest that this data provides the following answers:

2. Which explicit framework aids acquisition of the target DMs more – a PPP framework which practices the target DMs, or an III framework which helps students to notice the target DMs but does not practise them in class?

Do both frameworks help equally or does one help more than the other?
Do both help more than no explicit input?

The III group showed more evidence of noticing by comparing L1 to L2 and spoken to written modes of language. This is shown in the data from the III group's diaries in particular but also in their focus group data. Longer term, it can be argued that this could have a more positive impact upon their acquisition of these items, particularly if, as we have argued, conscious noticing is an important part of the language acquisition process. The qualitative data also demonstrates that both explicit frameworks did develop some declarative knowledge in both groups, even though this was more highly developed in the III group. If we accept that this type of knowledge can aid the acquisition process (Rutherford and Sharwood Smith 1985), we can suggest that may place both experimental groups in a better position to acquire the DMs than the control group.

3. To what extent do B2 level Chinese EAP learners themselves believe one classroom approach to learning DMs (PPP/III) is more helpful than the other?

Do the learners believe that studying DMs is worthwhile?

PPP was generally considered to be a more useful type of instruction by these learners. Practice was mostly seen as helpful and familiar. There were, however, some reservations about the benefits of practising in monolingual groups. Some students mentioned in their diaries that they felt rushed practice did not help them. In the focus groups, both sets of learners expressed a desire for practice to be more closely linked to the real world and real world tasks

The answer to the second part of the questions was clearly 'yes'. Both groups felt the language was useful and linked to daily life. In the focus groups, both groups suggested that the language would help them with everyday interaction in English and they felt sure that lessons did help them to learn the target DMs, as opposed to just acquiring them from the input available to them in the UK.

Now we have described and analysed our qualitative data, we move on in the next chapter to an analysis of the whole data set and to conclusions we can draw from it. We discuss the results as a whole in relation to our research questions and then the implications of the results. We then turn to a discussion of the limitations of the study. In the final chapter, we discuss possible future directions in which this research could be taken.

7 Conclusions

7.0 Chapter introduction

In this chapter, we first summarise the main findings of the data before moving on to the potential implications in terms of methodology and syllabus design. We then turn to a discussion of the limitations of the study as a whole.

7.1 Summary of findings

Let us return again to our stated research question so that we can try to give final answers to them:

Q1. To what extent does explicit teaching aid the acquisition of spoken discourse markers by intermediate (CEFR B2) level Chinese EAP learners studying in the UK?

> Does it improve discourse management, interactive ability and global scores in a free response speaking test?
>
> Does it increase the number of target DMs they are able to produce in a free response speaking test?
>
> Is the increase significant when comparing the experimental groups with each other and with a control group?

A1. Teaching has some impact in both cases as reflected in the raw usage scores and means of both experimental groups, and in the raw scores and gains made in the interactive ability, discourse management and global scores. This suggests, at the least, that the target DMs were not simply 'picked up' and explicit teaching had an impact. Students also indicated this in their diaries and focus group interviews. The impact was statistically significant only in the case of the PPP group's overall mean output of DMs in the immediate post-test, when measured against the control group and the III group. Gain scores in overall usage of the target DMs were not found to be statistically significant, although the learners clearly felt (in both experimental groups) that they did benefit from the teaching, as expressed in the diaries and focus groups. The totals and gains in interactive ability scores did demonstrate improvement by the experimental groups but these were not statistically significant when compared to the control group, with the exception of the interactive ability gain from pre-post score for both experimental groups. However, this was only significant in the sense that the decline in the

score was not as severe as it was with the control group. The gains made were clearly weaker over time, as shown in both the raw scores and in the one-way ANOVAs for the delayed post-tests. As is consistent with studies of a similar design, there is clearly attrition.

Q2. Which explicit framework aids acquisition of the target DMs more – a PPP framework which practices the target DMs, or an III framework which helps students to notice the target DMs but does not practise them in class?

> Do both frameworks help equally or does one help more than the other?
> Do both help more than no explicit input?

A2. Based on the raw scores, we can certainly claim that each explicit framework did make a difference when we compare the raw test scores of the two experimental groups to those of the control group. The diary and focus group data support this. The test data demonstrates that the PPP group benefitted more from the teaching in that their overall usage of the target DMs increased significantly from pre to immediate post-test. The III group provided more evidence of noticing, by comparing L1 to L2 and spoken to written modes of language. This is shown in the data from their diaries in particular but also in their focus group data. Although this did not produce superior test results for this group, we would suggest that in the longer term, this could have a more positive impact on their acquisition of the target DMs.

Q3. To what extent do B2 level Chinese EAP learners themselves believe one classroom approach to learning DMs (PPP/III) is more helpful than the other?

> Do the learners believe that studying DMs is worthwhile?

A3. Students' perceptions match the answer to RQ1 above. It is clear they felt that learning this language is useful. They also thought that explicit teaching helped them to understand and use the target DMs more quickly than no teaching and that they might not simply acquire them by being in an English speaking environment. This was indicated in both diary comments and focus groups. The PPP group made greater use of the word 'useful' in their diaries and their comments in general suggested that, overall, this type of teaching methodology was considered to be more effective by these students. Many of the students thought that practice is important and useful in classrooms but it was not always seen as useful in monolingual groups. The

notion of what makes good practice also went beyond the classroom to extend to real world tasks. These, the learners suggested, could be accompanied by the teacher or could consist of teachers modelling tasks and students memorising and imitating them. There was also a suggestion that tasks could be performed by learners at home and then reported on in class, perhaps with the aid of recordings they had made of themselves. For these learners, in this context, this suggests that we need to extend the notion of practice so that it moves beyond the classroom and into real world situations in which they are using English.

7.1.1 Implications for methodology

In this study, the use of a PPP framework resulted in a greater ability of students to use the DMs in the short term but this was not sustained over time. Both frameworks had an impact on output of the target DMs, i.e. they increased the usage to a greater extent than no teaching at all. This substantiates the claims made for explicit teaching methodologies (Norris and Ortega 2000, 2001), i.e. they do have some impact on the language the students acquire and 'picking up' even high frequency items simply from the input available in the English-speaking environment seems to have less impact on acquisition. This is also something that the participants of both studies agreed with, when discussed in diaries and focus group interviews.

Critics who dismiss PPP are both right and wrong. Clearly, it did have at least a short-term impact upon learners' ability to use the target items in this study and many of these learners felt that it was a useful framework because it offered them opportunities to practise them. It would therefore be premature to claim that it is a wholly discredited framework, as some have suggested (for example, Lewis 1993, Skehan 1998). However, it is also clear that practice within a PPP framework was not always considered as helpful as it might be by students in this context. The implication from this is that we really need a broader understanding of what practice is. Historically, the ELT profession has made various claims for methodologies based on small or non-existent data sets. This research reveals that in a monolingual class, practice can be seen as useful. However, it was also seen as inauthentic and not always helpful when students were asked to have conversations that they have already had in their L1. Here it is not viewed as skill building but time wasting. Therefore, we can conclude that:

1. PPP in this context was certainly familiar and seen as useful by some of the learners. However, practice within a PPP framework was not seen as useful by all students because it lacked the authenticity of real world communication. It is perhaps more likely to be seen as a useful methodology in this teaching context by multilingual groups than by monolingual groups

2. An III framework in this context did seem to improve the learners' ability to notice, which may have an impact on long-term acquisition.

3. If we are to teach DMs (and other features of spoken grammar) explicitly, then in this context there is a need for an adapted methodology, particularly for use with monolingual groups of Chinese learners. In a sense, the data leads us to conclude that it may be necessary to reconceptualise the notion of practice within explicit teaching methodologies, certainly beyond a simple PPP framework.

DeKeyser (2007b:295) suggests that 'good practice consists of activities that make students process form-meaning links', Ortega (2007:182—184) argues that practice should have meaning, allow for interaction and have a focus on the forms needed to complete the task. One would assume that learners in the context we have studied would be in a perfect position to get just these kinds of practice. They are in an English speaking country, they need to use English (at least) in the university environment and they will certainly hear and need to respond to a great deal of English in written and spoken form. The problem is that the study abroad experience can often lead to learners feeling overwhelmed. This can produce feelings of failure and the desire to withdraw from situations which might help them to practise (DeKeyser 2007c:218—219). There was certainly evidence of this in both focus groups, where learners expressed a desire to learn within classes of multilingual learners and for tasks to be based on real world interaction. DeKeyser (2007c) lists a number of ways we might help learners in this situation, including work on language functions, strategies and listening before they arrive. Once they are in the English speaking environment (in this case, the EAP environment in the UK) he suggests that 'the most crucial intervention is to give them assignments that force them to interact meaningfully with NSs and overcome their fear of speaking' (DeKeyser 2007c: 218). While we would not entirely agree that interaction must be only with native speakers, the

data certainly suggests that, particularly from these learners' point of view, a teaching framework could be adopted which featured tasks (T), noticing (N) and consolidation (C), in various combinations.

Tasks here would consist of real world tasks in the broad EAP environment and wider community, which would involve interaction with both native and non-native speakers to fulfil transactional and interpersonal goals. This might entail learners requesting information or learning how to start conversations, for example. Noticing in this framework would particularly focus on listening in the early stages and making learners explicitly aware of spoken DMs and other forms of common spoken language which may facilitate interaction. Consolidation might involve learners feeding back on tasks they have completed and asking for help, or pre-communicative practice such as repetition of common chunks and memorising short sample conversations featuring the target forms.

Each aspect this framework is directly linked to arguments made in the literature review relating to the Noticing Hypothesis and to the role of practice in CLT. We noted in section 2.2.8 that classroom-based studies investigating methodologies relating to both the Noticing and Output Hypotheses have tended to neglect the views of learners acting as subjects of the research. This thesis has attempted to address this weakness and therefore the inclusion of real world tasks (T) is suggested directly in response to the comments made by the subjects of this study. As we have argued, it was clear that many of these learners wanted a methodology which helped them to bridge the gap between classroom learning and its application in the real world and the use of teacher and student led tasks would hope to address this. The use of noticing activities (N) relates to the research evidence described in section 2.2.2. Here, it was suggested that paying conscious attention to form (s) and developing an awareness of how they differ from your L1 and in speech and writing, can have a beneficial impact upon language acquisition. The data from the III group in this thesis also suggests that this framework did enhance their ability to notice the use of DMs in speech and writing and between their L1 and the L2, which provides an additional justification for the use of noticing activities. Finally, the consolidation activities are related to the use of practice activities as a form of skill building, which may aid learners in transferring declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge, as described in section 1.1.1. Clearly, the evidence from the data relating to the PPP group

demonstrates that pre-communicative and contextualised practice did have a positive impact upon their tests results, at least in the short term. The learners' views, particularly in their diaries, also indicated that many learners felt that practice activities did help them in the process of acquiring the target DMs.

The framework could be conceptualised in many ways. What follows are two examples of this, the first for requesting information in an EAP context and the second for making a conversation with someone you do not know while in class.

1. Requesting information in the library

(NTTC)

Input and noticing activities (N). Students listen to sample recordings of people requesting information in the library, first for meaning and then paying attention to the use of spoken DMs, request forms and the typical moves expected in the genre.

Real world task, teacher led (T). Teacher takes students in small groups to the library and makes simple requests. Students watch and take notes.

Real world task, student led (T). Students complete a similar task themselves.

Report back and consolidation (C). Students report back in class on their own task. Class reviews spoken request forms and DMs through pre-communicative, controlled output practice.

2. Starting a conversation with someone you don't know in class

(TNTC)

Real world task teacher led (T).Teacher demonstrates task – making conversation with someone you don't know in class.

Input and noticing work in the classroom (N). Students listen to examples of similar conversations in class and complete noticing tasks about the way spoken DMs are used to show good listenership and typical gambits used to open conversations.

Real world task student led (T). Students must undertake the same task next time they are in (non-EAP) class.

Report back and consolidation (C). Students report back in class. Class reviews conversation openers and DMs and undertakes pre-communicative, controlled output practice of conversation gambits and target DMs.

7.1.2   Implications for syllabus content

If we are to take the participants of this research as evidence, then DMs and other features of high frequency spoken grammar could form part of the syllabus content to students in this context, i.e., B2 level learners on pre-sessional courses. The learners in this study clearly acknowledged that learning DMs was useful to them because they represent a feature of language which they will need to use and understand on a daily basis. They also commented that they did not feel the DMs would be easily or quickly learnt without being taught them.

Many learners coming to study at undergraduate and postgraduate level in the UK are at this B2 level. As we have noted, EAP courses have, not surprisingly, tended to focus upon predictable aspects of academic English such as essays and presentations but often at the expense of interpersonal language. We can argue that this is something of a missed opportunity because it is precisely in these interpersonal areas of speech that learners can struggle to survive in the UK (Cornbleet 2000). In the EAP environment, this can lead to a great deal of pragmatic failure with language (Halenko and Jones 2011). Jarvis and Stakounis (2010) also provide qualitative evidence from a variety of learners at B2 level in this context which suggests that learners very much want and hope for some assistance with social aspects of English. This chimes with the participants of this study, who consistently highlighted the usefulness of learning spoken DMs because it was language they felt would help to facilitate interaction on a daily basis, both inside and outside the academy. Naturally, there will be a number of DMs beyond the highly frequent ones chosen for this study and which may be used in specific EAP contexts (such as seminars) but there is an argument that the DMs we have

focused upon are of a high enough frequency to ensure they should also be of use in these contexts.

7.1.3   Limitations of the study

Having discussed the results and possible implications of this study, we must also acknowledge what we did not manage to achieve and therefore what the limitations of this study are. These are as follows:

1. The sample size was smaller than the fifteen students per groups that Dornyei (2007:99) recommends for a study of this type, although it was still above the minimum of thirty that Cohen *et al.* (2007) recommend and is the average size for an ESL/EAP group at UCLAN. Norris and Ortega (2000, 2001) note that sample sizes in FFI studies of a similar design do vary somewhat, along with other design features such as length of treatment and test type. However, it seems clear from at least some of the studies discussed in chapters two and four that an increased sample size may lead to more definitive tests results in this type of study. VanPatten and Cadierno (1993), for example, tested the different impact of input processing against traditional instruction (presentation and practice) when focussing on Spanish object pronouns. Using a sample size of forty seven (seventeen for the control and input processing groups and fifteen for the traditional instruction group), they were able to produce results which showed superior gain scores which were statistically significant result at the post- and delayed test stages in regard to the processing instruction group. This led them to conclude that 'instruction is apparently more beneficial when it is directed towards how learners perceive and process the input rather than when instruction is focused on having learners practice the language via output'(VanPatten and Cadierno 1993:54). This is a relatively bold claim and has been questioned by DeKeyser and Sokalski (2001), who undertook a partial replication of the study and argue that these results cannot yet be generalised. Using a sample size of thirty six and forty six, Dekeyser and Sokalski tested the impact of impact processing and output practice on Spanish object pronouns and conditionals. The object pronoun study consisted of a control group of eleven students, an input practice group of fifteen students and an output practice group of ten students, while the conditionals study consisted of a control group of eleven students, an input practice group of nineteen and output practice group of sixteen students. Results demonstrated that the input practice group achieved significantly better scores on

comprehension tasks at the immediate post-test stage and the output practice groups achieved better results on production tasks when the focus was object pronouns. There was no significant difference between the groups at the delayed post-test stage. Regarding conditionals, the study produced results that output practice learners performed significantly better than input practice learners on both comprehension and production tasks at the immediate post-test stage, whole there was no significant difference between groups in the delayed post-test scores. These results led Dekeyser and Sokalski to suggest that each type of teaching leads to a development in the skill it focuses upon: output practice improves production and input practice improves comprehension. They also suggest that different language features may be easier to comprehend and thus easier to produce, as appeared to be the case with Spanish conditionals in their study.

This research demonstrates that the use of a larger sample size in this study may have produced more conclusive quantitative results, at least at the immediate post-test stage. As the VanPatten and Cadierno (1993) study shows, it is possible to produce results which show significant gains with a sample size of approximately forty five students, spread across three groups. Dekeyser and Sokalski's (2001) research also shows the dangers of over generalising results, even if they are statistically significant. The result of this study do therefore give clear indications about the impact of different frameworks on the long and short term acquisition of the target DMs for the population of Chinese learners at B2 level at UCLAN, which are likely to be indicative of Chinese learners at this level in similar institutions in the UK. However, a further study replicating this one with a more robust sample is needed before we can make bolder claims for the findings.

2. The mixture of convenience sampling and purposive sampling did help to reduce certain variables such as L1, age and language level and, of course, allowed us to gain access to the sample. On the other hand, it also limits the finding to one nationality of learners. If it had been possible, a purposive sample representing multilingual groups of learners at the same level in the same institution would have allowed us to generalise the results to the broader international student population at this institution. It may also have produced different results, as shown in the pilot study.

3. In terms of the quantitative data, there was no receptive test given. We have suggested that this was precisely because we wished to check the impact of the teaching methods on acquisition and subsequent use of the target items in student output. However, a receptive test, whereby learners could demonstrate understanding of the target DMs, would have allowed us to obtain data about the impact of each method on these skills and compare impact across both output and student awareness of input. Schmitt (2010:152) suggests that we need to employ different types of tests in studies of this nature, in order to measure both receptive and productive ability. If we do not do this, we cannot presume that productive usage is evidence of receptive awareness or vice versa. Whilst we have not claimed that the test results tell us anything about receptive awareness, the addition of such a test would have made the data more robust. Many studies of this type neglect to employ this type of receptive test and this has been described as an omission:

> It is surprising, however, that the debate of whether explicit instruction is useful or not, focuses exclusively on E-knowledge's (*explicit knowledge's*) impact on speaking and writing and almost never on reading and listening. One might argue, however that E-knowledge (and hence explicit instruction) affects language comprehension during reading and listening positively, in that it helps learners to discern the meaning of the input (Hulstijn and de Graaff 1994:105).

4. We argued for our use of a free response test in chapter three. Clearly, the reason for our use of this test type was that we wished to study the impact of two methodologies on the acquisition and thus output of the target DMs. We argued that a constrained constructed response (such as a gap fill) would not have been appropriate to test this. However, we can suggest that had we used such a test in parallel with the free response test and a receptive test it would have provided us with the kind of multiple measures that Schmitt (2010:152) argues for. He suggests that when measuring acquisition of vocabulary, we should attempt to measure how well learners can recall and recognise (as well as produce) the form and meaning of the target items. (Schmitt 2010:87). Such additional data could have been analysed contrastively and statements made about the impact of the teaching on both productive and receptive acquisition of the target DMs.

5. We have argued that focus groups did provide us with a large amount of participant data and the twelve learners represented half the learners in the experimental groups. However, as we have noted in chapter four, the recommended number of focus groups is normally four to six (Morgan 1997). Therefore, we can suggest that the data would have been more robust if we had been able to include data from four focus groups of six learners. A larger sample of fifteen students per groups would have enabled us to run four focus groups, each containing six students.

7.2   Chapter summary

This chapter has offered a summary of the findings and a discussion of the implications for methodology and syllabus design. It has also acknowledged the limitations of the study. We have suggested that the results indicate the need for a different kind of teaching framework in this context; one which contains elements of PPP, III and task-based learning. This could feature real world tasks, noticing and consolidation activities, in various combinations. We have also suggested that DMs could feature as syllabus items in EAP courses, where the focus might be on interpersonal aspects of language which students will need in their daily lives, both inside and outside the academy. The limitations of the study we have described are the sample size and composition, the lack of a receptive and constrained constructed response test and the number of focus groups used. We have argued that the sample would ideally have contained fifteen multilingual students per group, that receptive and constrained constructed response tests would have allowed us to analyse both receptive and productive mastery of the DMs and that a larger number of focus groups could have made the qualitative data more robust.

8 Implications for future research

8.0 Chapter Introduction

In our final chapter, we discuss the implications for future research which arise from this study. We will firstly discuss the different kinds of study that could be based on investigating the acquisition of spoken DMs, before moving on to discuss other aspects of spoken grammar which we might research in similar ways. Finally, we will review our conclusions.

8.1 Adapting the study

There are several ways in which other researchers might adapt aspects of the methodology used whilst retaining the same essential study design in the same context.

1. More input over a shorter time

We have noted that the amount of input given in this study was ten hours over one week. There is no reason why the amount of input could not be increased, while retaining the same target DMs. We might, for example, increase the number of hours to twenty over two weeks, or twenty over one week and then assess the impact in the same way. We might also combine this instruction with 'input flood', that is, a large number of samples of the target DMs highlighted in dialogues or similar texts, which would also increase the amount of input learners would receive. Hernandez (2008) provides a template for this kind of study. He tested the differences between explicit instruction combined with input flood, compared to input flood alone, with Spanish DMs as the target language. The findings show that explicit instruction and input flood had a greater impact on an experimental group when compared to the group who received input flood alone. Although a similar study (Hernandez 2011) did not replicate the results entirely, it did show that explicit instruction and input flood increased the number of target DMs used in post-tests more than input flood alone.

2. More input over a longer period

Another option for a similar study would be to provide the explicit instruction over a longer period of time and use the same methods of data collection. We might, for example, offer a pre-test before the start of the academic year, teach the target DMs for two hours a week over two or three semesters and then follow with post- and delayed tests. Diaries could be kept on a

weekly basis throughout the course of the teaching and focus groups could be carried out after the teaching is completed. This type of study may well produce different results and fits with the kind of longitudinal design which Schmitt (2010 :156) recommends for lexical studies: 'In summary, vocabulary learning is longitudinal and incremental in nature and only research designs with a longitudinal element can truly describe it.' Whilst the current study does have a longitudinal element because it includes a delayed post-test, the incremental nature of learning could be measured more easily through a longer term study. It may also be the case that an III framework, which aims to foster the skill of noticing, would be more successful over a longer time period because learners would have more time to notice the target features within the input they receive.

3. Change the sample

The original intention was to undertake this study with multilingual learners as participants, something which was possible in our pilot study but not in the main study. The same study design could be repeated with multilingual learners at the same level of language proficiency, in the same context. The sample should reflect the nationality mix at the UK university in which it takes place. The results could then be compared to these results (with Chinese learners) and analysed for possible differences. Ideally, the size of the sample should also be larger. Although we have argued the case for our choice of sample size, a larger sample would allow us to generalise the results more widely. In chapter seven and chapter four, we have suggested a minimum of fifteen participants per group.

4. Compare different methodologies

The same study design could be used to compare the impact of different explicit types of instruction on the same target DMs. We might, for example, compare task-based learning with III or PPP. We might use the type of noticing, teacher and learner led tasks and consolidation framework we have suggested above (7.1.1) as a form of task-based learning. This framework could then be compared to classes teaching the same target forms using PPP and III, or broader approaches such as CLT.

5. Additional tests

As we have noted in section 7.1.3 above, the same study could be undertaken with additional tests, which would assess the acquisition in terms of receptive awareness and ability to use the target forms under controlled conditions. This would allow us to make more definitive statements about the impact of the different types of explicit instruction on understanding as well as using the language. Schmitt (2010: 156) recommends a delayed test in a study of this kind as there will inevitably be attrition when any type of lexis, grammar, or lexico-grammar is learnt. Whilst we have provided this, the results could be enhanced by adding extra post-tests. For instance, we could administer post-tests two weeks, six weeks and eight weeks after instruction and compare the results.

6. Change the mode of diary collection

For this study, we employed interval contingent pen and paper diaries. This choice was made because it was practical and it was decided that this would yield the most data. There are, however, obvious possibilities in asking learners to keep diaries in an electronic form, perhaps in the form of a blog or even as a simple text file. This would make the data immediately available to the researcher in an electronic form and allow for quicker analysis. It may also enhance the contributions of some learners because it is likely to be a format they are familiar with.

7. Increase the number of focus groups

The same study could be enhanced if focus groups were held at several points during the study. This could enhance the quality of the data and naturally, students' views may change over time. If the study was adapted to take place over an academic year, focus groups could take place at the halfway point and immediately following teaching.

8.1.1 Adapting the language focus

There are a number of ways we could also use the same or similar design for different aspects of spoken grammar, within the same learning context. Cutting, (2000), for example, presents

a number of studies which investigate the role of spoken grammar in British EAP contexts, including a focus on areas such as vague language. Aspects of spoken grammar which do not generally feature in ELT materials, particularly vague language and stance markers such as 'To be honest…' (Carter and McCarthy 2006), would seem worthy of investigation in a similar way. These would seem to be aspects of spoken grammar which could help learners at this level in this context to interact and manage their discourse more successfully. We might also change the focus so we investigate spoken DMs associated with specific genres in an EAP context, such as lectures or journal articles. Chaudron and Richards (1986), for example, investigated the extent to which different DMs used in university lectures aided comprehension of the lectures and found that the absence of DMs had a significant impact on the ability of learners to comprehend them. Hyland and Tse (2005) examined a number of 'that' constructions indicating stance in academic journal articles (such as 'This indicates that…'), which act to mark the written discourse in various ways. Similar studies to the one we have undertaken could focus on such chunks, with a shift in focus to production and reception of written academic genres. Alternatively, studies could be undertaken to investigate the teaching of DMs for receptive purposes in lectures, with a focus upon different methods of explicit instruction to teach the target forms.

The final way we might wish to adapt the language focus may be through changing the type of spoken DMs we choose to focus upon. As we noted in our literature review, DMs occupy many word classes and may be single words or lexical chunks. Although it is difficult to suggest that a single word is any more difficult to learn than a chunk, it would be interesting to study the acquisition of, for example, high frequency DMs which are all single words or all three-word chunks.

8.1.2   Changing the study design

Finally, there are two ways I would like to suggest in which we could alter the study design whilst retaining a similar focus.

1. Case Studies

The same DMs could be taught to a smaller group of learners and each could be investigated in greater depth over time, using longitudinal case studies. We could, for example, choose what

are considered to be three prototypical learners at B2 level in this context. We could then supplement the quantitative and qualitative data with more detail about their learning background, aptitude, motivation and adaptation to the English-speaking culture over time. This could provide us with additional data to supplement the results we might find and show how these variables impact upon the acquisition of the target DMs. In a study investigating the acquisition of formulaic sequences, Dornyei *et al.* (2004) investigated the impact of language aptitude, motivation and sociocultural adaptation on acquisition. Their qualitative interview data revealed that:

> Success in the acquisition of formulaic sequences appears to be the function of the interplay of three main factors: language aptitude, motivation and sociocultural adaptation. Our study shows that if the latter is absent, only particularly high levels of the two former learner traits can compensate for this, whereas successful sociocultural adaptation can override below-average initial learner characteristics. Thus, sociocultural adaptation, or acculturation, turned out to be the central modifying factor in the learning of the international students under investigation (Dornyei *et al.* 2004:105).

This suggests that such variables as these may uncover interesting data to supplement our results. We may find, for example, a learner who fails to acquire some of the target DMs may also not have adapted well to the target culture. This in turn could lead to implications for methodology and syllabus design on EAP pre-sessional courses, as sociocultural adaptation is clearly likely to have an impact upon learning. During the focus groups, this issue was touched upon by the learners in this study. Several mentioned the need to use English outside of the university context but often found it difficult to do so. In any study concerned with measuring language acquisition, there will always be variables which we cannot fully control for, such as an individual learner's personality and prior learning experiences but if acculturation is indeed such as an important factor, we might at least take account of it.

2. Teaching DMs as an aspect of pragmatic competence in an EAP setting

We have discussed elsewhere (Halenko and Jones 2011) the benefits of explicitly teaching pragmatic awareness to EAP learners at this level, in this context. It seems therefore reasonable

to investigate the teaching of DMs which might be specifically linked to pragmatic strategies to discover which type of explicit teaching has more impact. We could link the teaching of DMs to common functions such as apologising or refusing within a broad EAP context and investigate which approach has more impact.

8.2   Final Conclusions and summary

Let us return again to our stated research questions and repeat the final answers we have given to them.

Q1. To what extent does explicit teaching aid the acquisition of spoken discourse markers by intermediate (CEFR B2) level Chinese EAP learners studying in the UK?

> Does it improve discourse management, interactive ability and global scores in a free response speaking test?
>
> Does it increase the number of target DMs they are able to produce in a free response speaking test?
>
> Is the increase significant when comparing the experimental groups with each other and with a control group?

A1. Teaching has some impact in both cases as reflected in the raw usage scores and means of both experimental groups, and in the raw scores and gains made in the interactive ability, discourse management and global scores. This suggests at the least that the target DMs were not simply 'picked up' and explicit teaching had an impact. Students also indicated this in their diaries and focus group interviews. The impact was statistically significant only in the case of the PPP group's overall mean output of DMs in the immediate post-test, when measured against the control group and the III group. Gain scores in overall usage of the target DMs were not found to be statistically significant, although the learners clearly felt (in both experimental groups) that they did benefit from the teaching, as expressed in the diaries and focus groups. The totals and gains in interactive ability scores did demonstrate improvement by the experimental groups but these were not statistically significant when compared to the control group, with the exception of the interactive ability gain from pre-post score for both experimental groups. However, this was only significant in the sense that the decline in the score was not as severe as it was with the control group. The gains made were clearly weaker

over time, as shown in both the raw scores and in the one-way ANOVA s for the delayed post-tests. As is consistent with studies of a similar design, there is clearly attrition.

Q2. Which explicit framework aids acquisition of the target DMs more – a PPP framework which practices the target DMs, or an III framework which helps students to notice the target DMs but does not practise them in class?

Do both frameworks help equally or does one help more than the other?

Do both help more than no explicit input?

A2. Based on the raw scores, we can certainly claim that each explicit framework did make a difference when we compare the raw test scores of the two experimental groups to those of the control group. The diary and focus group data support this. The test data demonstrates that the PPP group benefitted more from the teaching in that their overall usage of the target DMs increased significantly from pre to immediate post-test. The III group provided more evidence of noticing, by comparing L1 to L2 and spoken to written modes of language. This is shown in the data from their diaries in particular but also in their focus group data. Although this did not produce superior test results for this group, we would suggest that in the longer term, this could have a more positive impact on their acquisition of the target DMs.

Q3. To what extent do B2 level Chinese EAP learners themselves believe one classroom approach to learning DMs (PPP/III) is more helpful than the other?

Do the learners believe that studying DMs is worthwhile?

A3. Students' perceptions match the answer to RQ1 above. It is clear they felt that learning this language is useful. They also thought that explicit teaching helped them to understand and use the target DMs more quickly than no teaching and that they might not simply acquire them by being in an English-speaking environment. This was indicated in both diary comments and focus groups. The PPP group made greater use of the word 'useful' in their diaries and their comments in general suggested that, overall, this type of teaching methodology was considered to be more effective by these students. Many of the students thought that practice is important and useful in classrooms but it was not always seen as useful in monolingual groups. The notion of what makes good practice also went beyond the classroom to extend to real world

tasks. These, the learners suggested, could be accompanied by the teacher or could consist of teachers modelling tasks and students memorising and imitating them. There was also a suggestion that tasks could be performed by learners at home and then reported on in class, perhaps with the aid of recordings they had made of themselves. For these learners, in this context, this suggests that we need to extend the notion of practice so that it moves beyond the classroom and into real world situations in which they are using English.

This study has been an attempt to investigate two aspects of language teaching which have not generally been given much focus. DMs, as we have noted, have not generally formed a part of ELT language syllabuses, in EFL, ESL or EAP. Given their high frequency and usefulness for learners, this is surprising, particularly in ESL and EAP contexts. We have shown that from the viewpoint of learners at B2 level learning in the situation we have chosen, they are considered to be useful and learners do feel they should be taught them. In an EAP context, we have argued that DMs could form part of a syllabus with a focus on interpersonal language, something which would also be of benefit to those studying general English in an ESL context. This could be linked to the development of specific pragmatic competencies such as the ability to make spoken requests. The choice of DMs could also be adapted so that the focus shifts to written DMs used in an EAP context or on DMs linked to a specific genre such as an academic lecture.

The second aspect which has not been given a great deal of focus is the comparison of two explicit teaching frameworks and their impact on acquisition of DMs, measured with quantitative and qualitative data. We have noted that research about DMs has tended to be descriptive, telling us what they are or mean, (for example, Aijmer 2002) and how learners use them in comparison with native speakers (for example, Fung and Carter 2007). Little attention has been given to how they might best be taught. This study has demonstrated that both explicit teaching frameworks, III and PPP, helped learners to produce more of the target DMs in immediate and delayed post-tests when compared to a control group. This is consistent with research which investigates the impact of FFI. As we have discussed in chapters two and four, such research suggests that explicit teaching aids acquisition to a greater extent than implicit teaching (Norris and Ortega 2000, 2001).

The question of which explicit framework most helped these learners to acquire the target DMs was only partially answered. Cleary, PPP had a greater short-term impact and was generally considered to be a more useful framework by the learners themselves. However, there were reservations about the benefits of output practice as we might traditionally perceive it and not all learners felt that it did help them to acquire the target language. This would suggest we need to at least question the notion that providing learners with practice is always useful when students are attempting to learn DMs or other features of spoken grammar.

Although the results are not entirely conclusive, it is hoped that this study will make a contribution to future investigations into the teaching and learning of spoken DMs and spoken grammar in general, something which can help learners at this level and in this context to communicate more successfully.

9   Bibliography

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10   Appendices

Appendix 1 Overview of main study and pilot study lesson aims

Lesson	Topic	Materials	Target DMs/ functions	Context type/interaction type (based on suggestions in Carter 2004: 150)
1	Talking about the weekend	Teacher's own	**You know** (monitoring shared knowledge) **I mean**, **Mind you** (reformulating) **Anyway** (closing topics/ conversations) **So** (opening topics/ conversations **Right** (responding)	Context: Primarily interpersonal-socialising Interaction type: Collaborative idea
2	At the post office Buying stamps	Exploring Spoken English Unit 11 Transcripts and tapes	**Right** (opening topics/ conversations) **Right** (responding) **Well** (shifting, pausing, closing topics/conversations *)	Context: Primarily transactional Interaction type: Information provision
3	Narrative Telling anecdotes	Teacher's own	**As I was saying**, **Anyway**, **Where was I?** (resuming) **In the end**, **First**, **Then** (sequencing) **Right** (responding)	Context: Primarily interpersonal-socialising Interaction type: collaborative idea
4	Food Explaining recipes/cooking in action	Jamie Oliver DVD -The Naked Chef. Worksheets	**Right**, **So** (opening topics/conversations **I mean** (reformulating) **You know** (monitoring shared knowledge)	Context: Primarily transactional Interaction type: Information provision
5.	Holidays Making joint decisions	Exploring Spoken English Unit 19 Tapescript and tapes	**Well** (pausing) **Like** (examples) **'Cos** (justifying) **You see** (monitoring shared knowledge)	Context: Primarily transactional Interaction type: Collaborative task

*The function of 'well' used to close topics or conversations was taught in the pilot study only.

Appendix 2 Pre-, post- and delayed speaking test prompts

B2 Speaking Test – May 2007

University of Central Lancashire

Certificate in English B2 – Level 2 – Independent User

B2 Speaking Test -19/20 May 2007

EXAMINER PROMPTS

Topics

1. Sports and leisure (pre-test).

2. Shopping (immediate post-test).

3. Fashion (delayed post-test).

Part 1 – Introductions (pre-, immediate post-test and delayed post-test)

> Interview to elicit personal information. Candidates respond to the interlocutor and not to each other. The interview consists of a number of short turns with candidates being invited to respond alternately. Part 1 lasts for **3 minutes** divided equally between both candidates. In the event of three candidates, allow **4 minutes** divided equally between all candidates.

Candidates are shown in by one or other of the examiners and invited to sit down.

Good morning / afternoon. (Make a note of the time at this point as this is the official start of the test). **I am** (interlocutor's name) **and this is my colleague** (assessor's name). **S/He will just be listening.**

Assessor greets the candidates: **Good morning / hello.**

Can I have your mark sheets please? Thank you. What's your name? *(to Candidate A)* And what's your name? *(to Candidate B)* Thank you. *(hand mark sheets to assessor).*

First I'm going to ask you some questions about yourselves.

Interlocutor asks Candidates A and B a selection of questions from those below.

Home and Family Life.

- **Where are you from?**
- **How long have you lived in Athens or X?**
- **What is transport like in this town / city?**
- **What is there for young people to do in Athens or X?**
- **Is there any way that the town/city could be improved?**
- **Tell me something about your family.**
- **Describe your home to me.**
- **Who do you get on with best in your family? Why?**

Hobbies / Interests.

- **How do you like to spend your free time?**
- **What kind of music do you like to listen to?**
- **What do you do to keep healthy?**
- **Can you tell me about a particular holiday you really enjoyed?**
- **Have you ever visited another country? What was it like?**
- **Would you like to visit other countries? Why / Why not?**
- **How important do you think it is to learn about other cultures?**

- **What do you do when you go out with friends?**

Studies.

- **Why did you choose to study at this school / college?**
- **What do you hope to do after you finish your studies?**
- **Tell me about your favourite subject at school / college.**
- **How important is it to learn another language?**
- **What books do you enjoy reading?**
- **How much do you use the internet in your studies?**
- **What are the advantages of a good education?**

Thank you.

Part 2 – Interactive Discussion.

Candidates discuss a topic based on two prompts provided by the interlocutor. They exchange ideas and opinions and sustain a discussion for **four minutes**. The interlocutor does not take part in the discussion. If candidates start to address the interlocutor directly, hand or other gestures should be used to indicate that the candidates should speak to each other.

(Interlocutor) **Now in this part of the test, I am going to give both of you two written questions based on the same topic. I would like you to talk together about the topic for four minutes using the questions to help you. You can add ideas of your own if you wish. I am just going to listen to you. You have only about four minutes so don't worry if I stop you and please speak so that we can both hear you.**

To both Candidate A and B: **Here are your questions.** *(Place the prompts in the middle of the pair.)* **The topic is 'Sports and leisure'.**

You may start when you are ready.

(After four minutes) **Thank you.**

(Retrieve prompt)

TOPIC 1 – Sport and Leisure. (Pre-test)

Part 2 – Interactive Discussion prompts.

Candidate A and B:

Do you think professional sportsmen and women earn too much money?

Do you agree that people have less free time to enjoy themselves these days?

TOPIC 1 – Sports and Leisure.

Part 3 – Responding to Questions.

A three-way discussion between interlocutor and candidates based on the topic from Part 2 of the test. The interlocutor leads the discussion by selecting from the questions below. It is not necessary to use all the questions. The interlocutor may ask for a specific response from one candidate or throw the discussion open to both candidates. The interlocutor should encourage candidates to elaborate on, or react to, their partner's response by verbal invitation *(e.g. What do you think? Do you agree?)* or non-verbal gesture. Candidates should be given equal opportunities to speak but the interlocutor may wish to give a candidate who has been rather reticent in earlier parts of the test a chance to redress the balance. This part of the test lasts about **five minutes**.

We are going to talk together for about five minutes. I would like you to respond to my questions and to what your partner says. The topic we are discussing is 'Sports and leisure'; the same as in part two of the test.

Do you prefer to watch or play sport? Why?

How important is it to find time to relax?

Are there any traditional sports which people only play in your country?

Which sport or activity would you like to try?

Nowadays children spend more of their free time at home than outside. Do you think this is true?

What do you think is the most and least exciting sport?

Thank you.

That is the end of the test.

Good bye. *(Assessor and interlocutor)*

TOPIC 2 – Shopping. (Immediate post-test).

Part 1 – See questions in part 1 above.

Part 2 – Interactive Discussion.

> Candidates discuss a topic based on two prompts provided by the interlocutor. They exchange ideas and opinions and sustain a discussion for **four minutes**. The interlocutor does not take part in the discussion. If candidates start to address the interlocutor directly, hand or other gestures should be used to indicate that the candidates should speak to each other.

(Interlocutor) Now in this part of the test, I am going to give both of you two written questions based on the same topic. I would like you to talk together about the topic for four minutes using the questions to help you. You can add ideas of your own if you wish. I am just going to listen to you. You have only about four minutes so don't worry if I stop you and please speak so that we can both hear you.

To both Candidate A and B: **Here are your questions.** *(Place the prompts in the middle of the pair.)* **The topic is 'Shopping'.**

You may start when you are ready.

(After four minutes) **Thank you.**

(Retrieve prompt)

TOPIC 2 – Shopping.

Part 2 – Interactive Discussion prompts.

Candidate A and B:

Do you agree that the Internet is a safe place to shop?

Have you ever bought something which you did not need?

TOPIC 2 – Shopping.

Part 3 – Responding to Questions.

A three-way discussion between interlocutor and candidates based on the topic from Part 2 of the test. The interlocutor leads the discussion by selecting from the questions below. It is not necessary to use all the questions. The interlocutor may ask for a specific response from one candidate or throw the discussion open to both candidates. The interlocutor should encourage candidates to elaborate on, or react to, their partner's response by verbal invitation *(e.g. What do you think? Do you agree?)* or non-verbal gesture. Candidates should be given equal opportunities to speak but the interlocutor may wish to give a candidate who has been rather reticent in earlier parts of the test a chance to redress the balance. This part of the test lasts about **five minutes.**

We are going to talk together for about five minutes. I would like you to respond to my questions and to what your partner says. The topic we are discussing is 'Shopping'; the same as in part two of the test.

Who goes shopping the most in your family?

What kinds of things do you like to spend your money on?

Who gives you money to go shopping?

Have you, or someone in your family, ever complained in a shop? What happened?

Do you think men enjoy shopping?

Is the money tourists spend in your country important for the economy?

Thank you.

That is the end of the test.

Good bye. *(Assessor and interlocutor)*

TOPIC 3 – Fashion. (Delayed post-test).

Part 1 – See questions in part 1 above.

Part 2 – Interactive Discussion.

> Candidates discuss a topic based on two prompts provided by the interlocutor. They exchange ideas and opinions and sustain a discussion for **four minutes**. The interlocutor does not take part in the discussion. If candidates start to address the interlocutor directly, hand or other gestures should be used to indicate that the candidates should speak to each other.
>
> In the case of three candidates, three prompts are provided and the discussion is **six minutes** in length.

(Interlocutor) Now in this part of the test, I am going to give both of you two written questions based on the same topic. I would like you to talk together about the topic for four *(six)* minutes using the questions to help you. You can add ideas of your own if you wish. I am just going to listen to you. You have only about four minutes so don't worry if I stop you and please speak so that we can both hear you.

To both Candidate A and B: **Here are your questions.** *(Place the prompts in the middle of the pair.)* **The topic is 'Fashion'.**

You may start when you are ready.

(After four minutes) **Thank you.**

(Retrieve prompt)

TOPIC 3 – Fashion.

Part 2 – Interactive Discussion prompts.

Candidate A, B and C (if required):

Do you think men are more interested in fashion now?

To what extent do you think that wearing fashionable clothes makes you a popular person?

Do you think that fashion magazines have a bad influence on young people?

TOPIC 3 – Fashion. (Can be used for Three Candidates.) Delayed post-test

Part 3 – Discussion.

A three-way discussion between interlocutor and candidates based on the topic from Part 2 of the test. The interlocutor leads the discussion by selecting from the questions below. It is not necessary to use all the questions. The interlocutor may ask for a specific response from one candidate or throw the discussion open to both candidates. The interlocutor should encourage candidates to elaborate on, or react to, their partner's response by verbal invitation *(e.g. What do you think? Do you agree?)* or non-verbal gesture. Candidates should be given equal opportunities to speak but the interlocutor may wish to give a candidate who has been rather reticent in earlier parts of the test a chance to redress the balance. This part of the test lasts for **five minutes.** In the event of three candidates, the discussion should last **eight minutes**.

We are going to talk together for about five *(eight)* minutes. I would like you to respond to my questions and to what your partner says. The topic we are discussing is 'Fashion', the same as part two of the test.

Are you interested in fashion?

Do you dress differently if you go out with your parents or friends?

Is it important what you wear for school?

Do you have to buy expensive clothes to be fashionable?

How long does it take you to get dressed in the morning?

At what age should people stop wearing fashionable clothes?

Thank you.

That is the end of the test

Good bye. *(Assessor and interlocutor*

Appendix 3 Global and skill specific marking scales for B2 speaking test (pilot and main study)

Mark	Global Achievement Scale
5	Demonstrated levels of linguistic competence and interactive skills indicate that tasks have been completed thoroughly and the message fully conveyed to the listener.
4.5	More features of band 4 than band 5.
4	Some characteristics of band 5 and band 3 in equal proportion.
3.5	More features for band 4 than band 3.
3	Demonstrated levels of linguistic competence and interactive skills indicate that tasks have been completely adequately and the message has been satisfactorily conveyed to the listener.
2.5	More features of band 3 than band 2.
2	Some characteristics of band 3 and band 1 in equal proportion.
1.5	More features for band 2 than 1.
1	Demonstrated levels of linguistic competence and interactive skills were insufficient to complete the task and the message was confused and very difficult for the listener to grasp.

Mark	Grammar	Vocabulary	Pronunciation	Discourse Management	Interactive Ability
5	Structures mostly accurate for the level with only occasional minor slips.	Consistently demonstrates appropriate and extensive range of lexis for this level.	Use of stress and intonation puts very little strain on listener and individual sounds are articulated clearly. Utterances are consistently understandable.	Consistently makes extensive, coherent and relevant contributions to the achievement of the task.	Sustained interaction in both initiating and responding which facilitates fluent communication. Very sensitive to turn-taking.
4.5	More features of band 4 than band 5.				
4	Generally structurally accurate for the level but some non-impeding errors present.	Evidence of an extensive and appropriate range of lexis with occasional lapses.	Stress and intonation patterns may cause occasional strain on listener. Individual sounds are generally articulated clearly.	Contributions are generally relevant, coherent and of an appropriate length.	Meaningful communication is largely achieved through initiating and responding effectively. Hesitation is minimal and the norms of turn-taking are generally applied.
3.5	More features for band 4 than band 3.				
3	Reasonable level of structural accuracy but some impeding errors are acceptable.	Lexis is mostly effective and appropriate although range and accuracy are restricted at times.	Use of stress and intonation is sufficiently adequate for most utterances to be comprehensible. Some intrusive L1 sounds may cause difficulties for the listener.	Contributions are normally relevant, coherent and of an appropriate length but there may be occasional irrelevancies and lack of coherence.	Sufficient and appropriate initiation and response generally maintained throughout the discourse although there may be some undue hesitation. Turn-taking norms may not always be observed.
2.5	More features of band 3 than band 2.				

2	Frequent basic errors and a limited command of structure leading to misunderstandings.	Lexis is limited in terms of range and accuracy and may be inappropriate for the task.	Inadequacies in all areas of pronunciation put considerable strain on the listener.	Discourse is not developed adequately and may be incoherent and irrelevant at times.	Contributions limited and the patience of the listener may be strained by frequent hesitations. The norms of turn-taking are rarely observed.
1.5	More features of band 2 than band 1.				
1	Serious structural inaccuracy and lack of control which obscure intended meaning.	Insufficient or inappropriate lexis to deal with the task adequately.	Limited competence in all areas of pronunciation severely impedes comprehension.	Monosyllabic responses. Performance lacks relevance and coherence throughout.	Fails to initiate and/or respond. The interaction breaks down as a result of persistent hesitation. The norms of turn-taking are not observed.
0.5	More features for band 1 than 0.				
0	Too little speech to assess effectively.	Too little speech to assess effectively.	Too little speech to assess effectively.	Too little speech to assess effectively.	Too little speech to assess effectively.

Appendix 4 Learner diaries: guidance and samples (pilot and main study)

Guidance

At the end of each day please write your own personal reflection of the classes. You can write us much or as little as you like but you must write something every day!! Please consider the contents of the lesson (what we studied) and the method of the class (how we studied). Try to write in English if you can but you may also write in your own language if you get completely stuck! You are **not** being asked to make judgments about the teacher or the teaching so please does not include any comments of a personal nature.

Here is an example of a diary entry I wrote when studying Japanese. You do not have to copy this; it is included to give you an idea of what to do.

Today we studied the 'tabereru' form of verbs. In English, this is something close to 'can'. The teacher introduced the grammatical form and made sure I was clear about the rules for changing verb endings. We spent a long time repeating the pattern with a lot of verbs. This was ok but it becomes difficult to repeat after this. Then we did some exercises in the textbook. I find the textbook characters a bit silly, but we needed to do this practice. Finally, we played a guessing game using the pattern. I had to ask questions and guess the teacher's mystery job. This was enjoyable and useful. I had to think hard and use the 're ru' verb forms as well and it's quite fun trying to guess. This kind of activity helps the language to stay in my head, I think.

Samples of learner diaries

Pilot study

(Learner errors have not been corrected)

S 01 III group

The third session of the pilot study started as usual at 11 am like the other days.

We started with a light conversation with our partner about dangerous things that we have done. I think it was a good warm up to engage with the day's topic. I think this is a good method for speaking lessons to start with an ordinary theme. We focused on spoken language and we started with some new vocabulary which we needed to know before listening to the story, which happened to Chris many years ago. A certain order to tell a story is like a standard way in spoken language and in story either. You can find the order as follows:

starting signal

time/places

background details

problem

solution

evaluation

Furthermore we listened to a spoken story and discussed the language, which was so useful. Discussing every thing in detail is a good point for improvement especially in a foreign language. We distinguished the spoken story from the news paper version and understand the differences in: grammar, vocabulary and structure which were so clear. Finally, we changed a news article to a spoken story which was a good test and experience to feel the topic.

S 05 PPP group

(Learner errors have not been corrected)

Today we learned some discourse markers. They help telling storys. They have counterparts in my mother tongue so I can easily use them. We learnt also how to structure storys. There are some rules and hints. When I applied them I told concise and easy to understand story. They are obvious but probably I don't use them because my storys are usually chaotic. I think that practising English in pairs is inefficient. Better solution is when one person talks to teacher and rest of group listens to. Then we can see what mistakes are possible and have them corrected immediately.In pairs we often learn subconsciously other people's errors. Such dialogues if not controlled by the teacher are often inefficient. But it is my subjective impression

Main study: all student diaries

Only errors with spelling have been corrected to facilitate the analysis of keywords and common chunks. Each entry has been anonymised to allow for simpler analysis of frequent words, keywords and chunks.

III group diaries

Today we studied the discourse markers such as I mean, anyway, mind you, right etc. They are widely used by local people. The teacher let us listen to the radio and then write in the blank space of the handout which was sent down at first. I could not listen carefully since the local people speak so quickly. I think I would need a long time to get used to that.

Today we have oral class. During the class we have some conversation with classmates and the top is talking about weekend. And then we listened the native speaker's conversation. Next step is comparing ours conversation with native speakers conversation. Finally, we summarised what the difference between. We are and make some improvement. In this class, I have leaned some useful language I should work hard. I hope one day I can speak fluent English like native speaker.

Today we study how to ask question and answer them. We started with asking for plans. In English, there are many ways to ask that. There is no doubt that different people will answer in different ways. In class the introduced some ways which can help us communicate with local people easily. Then made sure that we are clear about that we practise in two ways. In contrast, Chinese is much different from English. Because of some of that are not available in Chinese for example, mind up.

As we know, oral English is different from academic writing English. In Chris' class, I found that discourse markers of oral English should be valued. For instance, when we want to signal I am going to start a new topic or conversation, we are supposed to use 'so'. In addition we should not translate Chinese into English when we speak English.

Today, I studied many discourse markers. In English, discourse markers are necessary because they are very useful. For example, 'anyway' can tell you that I want to change topic or close the conversation. In addition, if you want to signal I am going to start a new topic or conversation you can say 'so'. Certainly, we also learn many other discourse markers but they just use for oral. We can not use for writing. On the other hand, we will not use these discourse markers in Chinese because Chinese is director than English. We will change topic without discourse marker. Sometime, we will also use discourse marker but it is different with English. For instance, if we want to change topic, we also will use discourse marker but not like 'anyway'. We will use another discourse marker. The discourse markers' meaning will like 'Excuse me'. Therefore, Chinese culture is different with English.

Today, this is our first class of spoken English. In the class we studied and communicated with each others. We studied a local language from teacher which is help us improve the English skills. In addition, we studied some discourse markers by listening a dialogue. In English, some discourse markers are often spoken in dialogue. For example, I mean, in the dialogue it means I want to make what I am about to say a little clear. Well, it means I want to pause slightly before I speak. In contrast, in China, some discourse markers can not speak out; we just nod our head or say 'yes'. Therefore, there are a lot of culture difference between UK and China. Nevertheless, I think we can comprehend the style of communication by discussing the difference.

A number of authentic English often accompanied by a number of discourse markers or discourse fillers. If we can much master these words well, then it's very important for improve our English. Through the lesson I understand that these words don't have much significance by themselves, the role of the words is relive the tone, they provide the speaker for enough time to think the next topic, these words such as anyway, so, well, you know and so on. In short to understand much more the rule of English words can help us use the English language more flexibly in our daily life.

Today we learnt some words in English oral expressions. In the beginning of the class, the teacher asked us do you have any plan on the weekend. Then, he wrote some words on the blackboard and let us choose something that we do on the weekend. Through this topic, we learnt a lot of discourse markers. Through the listen practice we can clear about every discourse marker's meaning. Finally, we used these discourse marker to answer the question. This is very important to let us remember these discourse marker. All in all, I am very enjoy this class because I learnt some knowledge and enrich myself.

Today we're free talk about the weekend's plan and listening training. These training may be useful for us to talk about my friends, furthermore it can expand our topic because the teacher taught us how to discuss our plans. Next we listen the conversation additionally I identify them true or false. The conversation impressed me. Let's know how to discuss deeply.

Today we studied the methods that how to ask the holiday plan and how to answer it by colloquial way. The teacher introduced the methods instead of the direct answer. After the listening practice and the link of translation I found lots of difference between the first and second language. Even though it's hard to explain, but we know its culture difference. We're interested in different culture and we discuss the reason that produce these differences. It's not so easy. So, we found a little bit of the reasons. In my opinion, the discourse markers are useful than only speak English because I had to think and use the expressions with correct meaning. Finally, its benefit to my grammar and teaching me how to choose these words in colloquial sentence.

At Wednesday, we have a nice class from Chris. I learn some knowledge about the spoken language. I also got some information about how start the conversation about weekend plan. The time passed quickly and I also learn the thing I want.

Today we studied some spoken words such as: so, well, really etc. It's so useful for us to use it in daily talk. The teacher play record about two persons talk. Let us know it deeply. Then, he asked us to translate into Chinese and English. For compilation, let's remember and use them

easily. Finally, the teacher asked us to identify the meaning of these words. These ways that would be easy to accept those words for us.

Today Chris teach us some knowledge about the post office, the two kind stamp, the parcel, the jiffy bag and many things. And also the TV license can get in the post office, the post office are have many functions, from Chris's lesson, I know it better.

Today we studied some new words. After class, we knew meaning of these words and how to use them. For example, we learned the phrase 'Bureau de Change' and we knew that we can change our money from this place. It is useful for our Preston life. Then we also learner some short dialogs from teacher, we understand the difference between these English dialogs and Chinese dialogs. I think it will help us make less mistake possible when we talking with others.

In this class, I learned British common knowledge of living. The stamps are divided into two grades which refer to first class stamp and second class stamp. In addition, there are two ways to transmit the letter. If you send envelopes you should choose airmail. If you send parcel you are supposed to choose seamail. Furthermore, the spoke English differs from academic English, more regard must be paid to usage of English.

Today we studied some useful language which we might use in shops. Although these languages are not available in China but now we are in UK, we should know their culture buy things in a polite and comfortable way.

Today we studied the class 1 and 2 and different aspects between 'impersonal' and 'businesslike'. We listened to the three conversation is the friendliest than others... First class stamp is fast than 2nd class. It only one day and 39 pence. 2nd class stamp is quite slow that needs 3-8 days and 30 pence. In addition, we knew, the jiffy bag is for free. Furthermore, we studied the different meaning of 'right' in the spoken English that is a correct, b showing you are listen or understand c starting a topic conversation. In the same way we studied the different meaning of 'well' and 'you know'. Finally, I studied more knowledge in this class.

Today we are learning about conversation used by discourse markers and their different to Chinese. Moreover, I learn some new information about first class stamp, second class stamp. It's delivery product for different times. The most useful I learned is a French word used in British Bureau de Change it means foreign exchange.

Today we learned something about the post office. They are both commons and differences between the UK and China. In addition to stamp letters, fees for water electricity and gasoline can be paid at the post office. While in China, few people pay these fees at the post office. At the post office of UK, peoples can get a TV licence. It seems that the post office in UK is much more widely used than that in China. Also we listened to three spoken dialogues in class. Some spoken words like 'right' and 'well' have different meanings. People in UK speak so quickly that I still can not get used to that.

There are a lot of different between China and UK. Through this lesson, I understand a lot. In UK, the post office not only has like send mail, post parcel, this general service and also post office can change the money, apply for the TV license and so on. This is worth China to study, in this way, a lot of organisation can be cut. And in China, people watch TV. Just need one TV, don't need TV licence. This is very useful for more person can own one TV and learn from TV. It's a big world there are really lots of different between one country and other country so I hope can meet more information about UK it must be very interesting.

At the beginning of oral class our teacher gave some cookies and sugar to us. He is a very nice person and he wants us have enough energy to study. During this class I learned some technique words about post office. Firstly we identify what the meaning of the chart show is most of them were being identified but I can not guess what is use for. Next step we listen some listening exercise. After we finished the listening and our tutor gave us answers. We can compare why we did it wrong way. Finally, we have done some grammar exercise, it just delete some words and make it clearer.

Today we review the lesson we learn in the last class. It is good for us to remember the knowledge more clearly. Next we did some listen exercise. This exercise is good for us improve our listening. There are many words in the listen exercise and so many words has different meaning. So, according to these words we learn a lot of new knowledge that we never learnt. All in all, this class is interesting for me because I learn many new knowledge.

Today we studied how to compare the spoken English and written English. Firstly, the teacher tells us to write down something that he say in the story. Secondly he gives us a story's copy from the newspaper and tell us the different from the spoken English and written English. Finally, we summary some words and express from the spoken English and written English. All in all, today I also learn some new words and express that I never know.

Today we learned about writing skills and the difference between listening and writing. However, before the new class beginning, we have reviewed the knowledge what we learned yesterday. The new class begin with a story about 3 people. During the listening I know how to write a story. Our teacher show us the difference between story and news. We compared them from differences in overall structure, differences in grammar and differences in vocabulary. At last he told us the news in the newspaper is real and about himself.

Today we know a truth story. Chris and his friend are brave to save their friend from a small beach cave, who cut off by the tide at Sidmouth. In this class, the typical order on things happen then we did some exercises for compared with the spoken story and written newspaper story. The kinds of different structure, grammar, vocabulary. Such as the sequencing and structure words in the spoken story but they did not to arise in the written newspaper story. Finally, we also practice our listening skill in this class. We're enjoyable and the knowledge are useful to our future lessons.

It's a colourful and rich in this lesson today. First of all, we talk about the sharp sports each other but it's not the key point for the lesson and then we learn a lot of the difference between colloquial language and written language. Through a story of Chris we understand that how to

tell others and let them understand clearly. It needs put in a lot of fit together words to be the listeners like you go on. And the written language is very different especially the newspaper it needs succinct.

At last lesson Chris teach us some knowledge about to tell a story. And then, we compared the different style of story, the story written on newspaper are more simple and use more verbs. From this lesson, I know how to tell a story in spoken language.

Today we mainly talked about that how to tell a story and a spoken story and written newspaper story. In a spoken story it always has sequencing e.g. starting signal, time/place, other background details, problem, solution and evaluation. And the most of sentences are simple. In contrast, written newspaper story always has complex sentences, only summary the details. Otherwise, both of the two forms have a common characteristics which is that they use the past tense to tell it.

We have learned a true story that describes two teenagers brave icy sea to save friend. Compare with the spoken English is much more simple than written English. Written English should write complete sentences. Most of stories written by present perfect tense. Spoken English always use simple vocabulary and discourse markers. It's a good way to understanding and communication.

Today's oral class was very interesting. Our teacher told us one story about hero and it really Chris. The story main tell about there are three teenage decide to walk to end of beach and turn around the corner to other beach because the weather is good with sunshine. But the next thing is unpredictable. The tide was coming in the beach and these teenager was be cut off. However, one friend of them is non-swimmer. So our hero was swimmer back to main beach ask for help. In addition there was very cold and the water almost frozen. Finally, all of them was safe.

Today I learned some words by exercises. The teacher spoke the story at first then we took notes. After the teacher ask us to read the newspaper to compare newspaper's story with

spoken story. We knew the newspaper paragraph is different spoken story firstly tell the time and place. In addition to the newspaper didn't use so well, anyway etc. the newspaper often use verb, adjective and noun to express the story. These are our study.

Today we learned how to tell a spoken story and how to give a written newspaper story. When telling a story, we usually put events in a certain order: 1 starting signal, 2 time/place, 3 other background details. 4 problem, 5 solution, 6 evaluation. In a spoken story words and sentences are much easier than that in a written story. And 'anyway', 'where was I?', 'as I was saying' 'so' and some other words would be used in a spoken story. While words and sentences in a written newspaper story are more complex. Usually, the author gives a summary in the first paragraph and then the details in the next paragraphs. Maybe next time I will tell others a story in the way I learned today.

Today we studied the difference between spoken English and written English with cook book and video. We watched the cooking video from Jamie Oliver. We studied the order that to cook fish beans. There has lots of verbs about cooking. In video, people use the short sentences and like a conversation and chatting. It's more friendly with audience. However, in the book, written language is more complex peoples use the long sentences. It's easy to understand with readers.

Today's class was very interesting because we learnt something about cooking. I'm interested in cooking but I cannot cook well because I do not know what to do in each stage. From today's class, I not only learn about cooking but also have some knowledge about cooking, for example, some professional words in cooking (squeeze sprinkle, drain…). At the end of the class we still did a comparison between both language. Sometimes it is much easier to understand and speak in spoken English I think.

We learned a great many cooking vocabulary and watched an interesting cooking show programme. Jamie Oliver, who is celebrity chef in UK, has shown the process of cooking. Slice and tomatoes. He uses simple spoken English let us easy to understand. Additionally, we

should pay attention to use discourse markers which help you effective communicate with people.

Today's oral class we have watch a video. The video is teaching people how to cook. The amazing thing which the chef is very young. It is almost same with us. But I couldn't cook a delicious food and he can, moreover he teach other people through the TV so I decide to learned how to cook. Finally we have do some exercise, according the video we just put the sentence in the right order. I have done a bad exercise, most of them are not right.

Today we learnt take note skill when listening. In the class, the teacher broadcast some listening exercise and let us take note what we listening. This class is very useful for us because we need to practice the listening exercise constantly. This is good for our future study. Besides, we also learnt some new words and sentence express form this class. In short we are enjoy this class and find some useful knowledge from our study.

Today I learn a lot of word about cool English cool Chinese cool. It's a new place I have never met. First we have see a lot of video about cool. It looks easy, it really it not looks like that. So maybe we need more try do more test then we can feel it.

This class we learn some knowledge about cooking from the DVD we have see a famous person who cook well in UK. During the cooking we learn many things, such like sprinkle, chop, stir, fry and many word about cooking. When next time someone want me to teach them cooking skills, I already know how to tell in English.

Today we studied the features of general speak and review the technologies. For example: the difference between 'you see' and 'you know', the different meaning of well etc. The diagram give us some ideas and general spoken grammar. It's useful to our UK life in the future idea means that how to discuss the travel plan in generally. And we also practise our listening skill.

How to speak nature English is considered as a vital question to international students. For instance, we say 'it's very expensive', however; the British people say 'it's dead expensive'. Therefore, when we communicate with local people we should pay more attention to these nature English. Thank you Chris who help us recognise the nature spoken English.

At last lesson, I learn some spoken language about travel. And from this lesson, I'm already know how to talk with friends when we make a travel plan I learnt many things from this lesson. It's great.

Today I study many things in the class. But the thing I most interested in is the travel. In the class, teacher give us many publicity cards. They tell me many places what I can go to play. And then teacher let us discuss where we will go. In addition, after discussing, we should tell him we will go and why we will go. In our group, we decide we will go to where but I forget what is the name. In that place, there are many game we can play and we can also eat lunch and dinner in the restaurant. Moreover we can see many animals in that place. I think it will be interesting.

Currently, travelling became a vital part in people's life. Because of they need relax themselves after a busy day and travelling is the best choice. Therefore, they always search the path at first, then learn some information about the place which they want to go. The preparation is dead complex so the people should discuss it together and have a good journey.

PPP group

At the beginning, we discussed the topic 'any plan for this weekend' we designed a lots of kinds of answers, and then we had a dialogue with our classmates. On the spot practice was a very good methods. I think, of course, we changed our partner in the middle class time in order to make more conversation with different people. Chris introduced some useful expressions, when we had a conversation with other people, such as, I mean, anyway, you know, and so on, these expressions looked like so easy but it's very important for us to improve our oral English,

because you want to continue to have a talk with others or change a new topic we can use these expressions, which can help us to communicate with other peoples more easily I think.

Last Thursday I went to Chris' class for oral English. Actually, I've been to several classes concerning about teaching student speaking English but most of them are result less. However, I found this class quite a bit different. First of all, the tutor himself is a native speaker. He knows how to use vocabulary in a certain conversation. He knows how native speakers talk, act and think better than other non-native teachers. Therefore, I can learn and imitate the way Chris speak to improve my oral English. Besides, Chris is an interesting person. And it would be nice of him if he agrees to take us to the beach this weekend. Maybe in the future, Chris could add more situational conversation practice into the class, looking forward to the next class.

Today, we studied the discourse markers when having a dialogue we listened to a record of two local British and their conversations are the materials for us to study the discourse markers. This is a good way I think since it's related to our life and can be useful. We also made dialogues with our partners to practice using discourse markers, which will make the daily conversation sounds comfortable and close to the local one. We mainly discussed the plans of our weekend; this is also a good topic to start a conversation which is very useful. I've never had an English class like this and I think it will benefit me a lot.

In that day, I take part in Chris class. I think that the class is very interesting and useful. This is because that Chris is local people who speak English is very correctly and professional. So I think that it is very useful for us what's more we can learn the culture of the UK. Therefore I got a lot of useful knowledge.

On last Thursday, we had a spoken class, which based on daily spoken language. At the beginning of the class, the teacher gave us a brief outline about the content of the class. This class was about several way of asking people about their weekend. It was interesting to learn some of the spoken language and pronunciation. I found it useful to learn these kinds of spoken

language. After the conversation, we had asked to listen to a conversation which were spoken by the native speakers. It was found that they had got more things to talk about more interact to each others. After listen to their conversation, we had learned more spoken language, so that were able to extent our conversation content.

Today I have learnt some phrases. I think they are useful I can use them in conversation. Then my conversation will be more optional. Through the class I also know how can we use these phrases in the conversation...And the class I can talk anybody.I think is good for practise English. And the class style is very casual. I like this style.

Today I had the first lesson of my speaking English .It was a very interesting course and our tutor Chris had a sense of humour. In the first part, we did some conversations about weekend. Chinese students like use very formal question to ask. Chris told us a informal question which was used more often. Then we discussed the answers. He told us that he would take his children to Blackpool beach, so many students said they wanted to go with him. In the second part, we listened two native speakers' dialogue and found the differences from ours' dialogue. One of the important points was the discourse marker. They always use discourse markers such as so, I mean, anyway in the conversation. Chris also mentioned the pronunciation about I'll. That was a very useful point. In class, we had many opportunities to communicate with the other students who were maybe not Chinese. The whole class was carried out in a very relaxed atmosphere.

Today in the class we learned how to talk about the weekend, we learned something to make the sentences be shorter, before this class, when we say that sentences we always say the full sentences, after this class we know a lot of short sentences to say the something. That's helpful and useful in our daily life, that's sentences will more clear to UK local life.

Today we studied the 'discourse markers' phrases use. Sometimes the phrases doesn't mean anything, but accurately they mean something in daily life. For example, if I'm going to say contrasts with what I have just said, 'mind you' can be used at this time. For instance, 'English

food is not quite good, mind you, sometimes it is delicious'. First, we spend a long time to do some listening and role play to practice the use of 'discourse markers'. It was seems boring at beginning, but it because interesting to do new dialogue after this. Then we did some practices with classmates. I found the pronunciation a little difficult so we need to practice more. Finally, we did a game with our deskmates. Due to enough practice of this game, I can understand it well and use it much smoothly. This kind of activity helps us to stay these phrases in our head.

Today we studied the spoken discourse marker. At the beginning of the class, we made a conversation about the plans for the weekend. After then, we listened to the dialogue concerned the same topic from the native speaker. When listening the dialogue we made some notes and found the differences between the conversation we made before. Through the comparison, I discovered that the native speaker were more active than us. Then we did listening again and completed the dialogue. The teacher introduced the spoken discourse to us and taught us how to use it. Moreover, we did some exercises about matching the correct meaning to each discourse markers. Finally, we used these words to make a conversation and played a game about the probable word in the conversation. This was enjoyable and useful. This kind of activity helps the oral language to improve I think.

Today we learned some extracts that relating to the services in post office. I had the knowledge of first class stamps and second class stamps. And know how to ask for services in the post office. We also explained some of the discourse markers like 'right' and 'well' as well, which is very useful, since everyone of us may be will go to post office and ask for the mail service. At last, we had conversations in pairs to practice using the sentences in that situation. And I hope to learn more about the useful sentences.

Chris is a native speaker of Britain and he speak a fluent English. All of us very like him, not only has he profession knowledge. But also he is very interesting, I mean the way of his talking. He is always able to stimulate our interest about English and he corrects many mistakes of our spoken English. Our spoken English improve a lot, we study a lot of

knowledge from his course, for instance, he taught us that recognize the stamps and post office. What's more taught us how to write a good stories. I am really like his course.

On Tuesday, we had our second spoken class. We started with listening to the dialogue about things that may happen in the post office. It was interesting to learn some useful language which can be use to go to the post office. After that we learned to use those language to communicate with classmate. It was useful to learn some language about pay attention and additional language.

Today I had my second speaking English lesson. First we learned some vocabularies about post office such as first class stamps, parcels and jiffy bags. The n we listened three conversations which happened in the post office. I felt that I knew the dialogue roughly but I couldn't hear clearly and catch the details. I still need to do some listening practise. Native speakers like to use the discourse markers very well, when a people told us something, we can say 'right' to show that we are listening or agreeing. However, sometimes if you want to start a new topic, you also can use it. 'Well' and 'you know' have the meaning of pause. If you don't like something but other people ask you, then you can use well to move to another topic. That's very useful. The last point was how to say the money the most convenient way is just to say the number. I learned lots of from this lesson actually.

Today we studied the another meaning of 'right', 'well' and 'you know'. At the beginning of the class, we learned to read with the aid of pictures. After then, I found that these pictures are connected with the topic of post office. The teacher introduced us the function of the post office in the UK. Then, we listened to the conversation about the same topic and answered the questions. From this native speaker's conversation, we discovered that 'right' , 'well' and 'you know', these three spoken discourse markers have another meaning. And then, we practised using these words when we communicated with our partners. Finally, we make a conversation with our partners. One acted as the staff from the post office and the other acted the customer. This was enjoyable and useful. I had to think hard and use the spoken discourse markers in our conversation.

Today, we spend a lot of time on listening. We listened the materials and answered some following questions, and then Chris helped us pick out several important words and expressions such as well, right, you know. Moreover he explained each expressions for us, of course. We did practice with our classmates. I think that's enjoyable and useful, because I learned new knowledge, and then, it became mine after practice but I forgot many point I had studied in the first class, so, I should do more after class.

Today we studied some dialogues taken in the post office and caught a glimpse of three discourse markers. Firstly, Chris showed us some pictures of difference things could be seen in post office and made sure we were clear about the functions of these. Then we did a listening quiz to review it. After listening the tape and checked, we received the written dialogues we listened before. I think it is very useful to review the knowledge we learned. According to the written dialogues we learned three more discourse markers: right, well and you know. What's more, we learned one useful words: lovely. For example, lovely thank you. Finally, we also did a dialogue practice to review the knowledge we learned. We practised in groups of two. I supposed worked in a post office and served the customer. This was interesting and useful, I had to calculate the numbers and answered her more professional like a native people by using the words we learned. In a words, the practices and useful for me to memorise what I have learned.

It's an interesting class today. Firstly Chris taught us some expressions of the scariest things, which is useful. And then, Chris told us a real scary story about him and we made some notes while listening, that's also a way to train our listening and note-taking skills. After that, we learned the language of spoken stories, that's also very useful when you tell something to someone. And finally we told our own stories by using what we learned to each other to practice. This is a good way that practice directly after learned we can remember that easily.

The feeling about the class is very good because I learned more sentences about meeting language. And there are many chance of speaking provided for us. It's also very interesting.

Last lesson Chris taught us how to tell a story. Telling a story has been a indivertible part from our diary life since a long time ago. The older tell stories to later generation to impart knowledge. Friends tell story to each other to share their happiness or sadness. A good story teller takes the listened to the situation where the story happened and makes them feel the same. Last lesson, Chris told us how a native speaker usually start a story like 'have I told you.. .' or 'did I ever tell you about the time…' This sentence is like a signal showing the audience the storyteller is going to begin a story. Chris also showed us how to inform the audience about the background information. The backgrounds are essential; these help the listeners to understand the story better. At last, the storyteller usually gives the evaluation about this story to show his feeling about the story now. I think I should practise this story telling skills again for many times to make myself a better storyteller. Anyway, a good storyteller could be very attractive.

Attending Chris's class, I got a lot of benefit from it. Today Chris teach us how to tell a story for others. Firstly, when we tell a story, we should give a starting signal for audiences. Secondly you should tell the time and place about the story. Thirdly, you should give the background details for audiences so that audiences can understand the stories better. What's more, you must speak and your problems and solutions. Finally, you should tell audiences your feeling about this stories. Therefore, I think those skills are very useful for us, we can use these skills for telling stories logically. I very like this course.

Today we learned how to tell a story. First, we learned some vocabularies about x sports such as bungee jumping skydiving and so on. I like exciting sports very much but I haven't experienced those things. Then we learned the phrases. They were very useful. We listened Chris's scary experience and showed our scary experiences with each other. If you want to tell a story, you need tell the time place and event clearly. The person who listened the story need say 'right' or something to show that he was listening. Maybe sometimes asking questions would be a good choose. You know when your friends shared them stories with you that's a very interesting thing. And you only need to be a good listener. However, when Chris let us to

do the practise I found that I still couldn't express fluently I had few vocabularies. It's my biggest weak point.

Today we studied how to tell a story clearly and vividly. At the beginning of class, the teacher told us a story of him. Before he told the story we did a word match in order to understand the story easier. And then we took some notes when he was speaking. After that, we did an order quiz of his story organization, and picked out the sequencing words he used. It was ok but then became difficult when he asked us to tell our stories to other classmates. Before we told the stories, we organized the stories by some key words. Though it was a little but hard for us to tell stories so clear, we did it not bad. When we told the stories, we used the words we learned. So it was helpful for us to improve our spoken English. In the end Chris gave everyone a paper of his story, the interesting but scaring story. I think I should practice more after class in order to keep those words in mind and use them in daily life.

Today we studied the language structure for telling stories. At the beginning of the class, we make a conversation with our partner about the scariest thing we have done. After then, we learned the vocabulary for listening. Then we listened a scary experience from the teacher. Through this listening we made some notes and retell the story to our partners. And then, we listened it again and wrote down the language and the structure of spoken stories. Finally , we did some practice. I used this language and this structure to tell the story again to my partner. This kind of learning style improves my spoken language. This was enjoyable and useful.

Today our key content was to understand the events. When we listened a story we should pay close attention to the main plot, moreover, if we told a story to somebody, we should have a clear order. So no matter how we should know how to describe a story and listen a story. There are six parts. Starting signal, time/place, other background details, problem, solution, evaluation, firstly Chris described a scary experience story and then we analysis it. I found that it's easy when I used these points at the end of the class. We had a interaction, we listened the story form others and shared the story with our classmates. That's very funny. This lesson is about the language of spoken stories. Firstly, tutor ask us told scared story or experience to

each other. We shared the stories and enjoy it. Secondly, we learned how to tell a story. It consist of starting signal, time/place, other background details, problem, solution, evaluation (how I feel about this story now). Finally, tutor told a story about himself and friends. It is very useful for me.

Today the class was very interesting because we discussed the food. We couldn't resist the temptation of the delicious food. I don't know the other classmates' culinary skill, but I am not good at cooking. Especially, in Preston, my friend always needs to cook for me and I am only the assistant in the kitchen. Generally, I also need to wash the dish after we had our meal. In today's lesson, I learned many verbs about cooking and I watched a video about how to cook the salmon. It's too difficult. If I have a chance, maybe I can try it. After all, cooking is a very interesting thing. At last to tell the truth, I think Chinese foods are more delicious than local foods. Maybe I am unaccustomed and don't know the culture well.

Today I take part in Chris course. I learn a lot of knowledge about cooking, such as some verbs and some nouns for instance drain chop and blanch. I found that it is very useful. Cause we must use these words in every day. It will improve our spoken English a lot. What's more we saw the video and learn some spoken English in cooking.

I learned some words about cooking. First, we watched the video very famous in UK. The video taught you cook. And then, the tutor ask us talk about a dish we can. At last we shared the experience about cooking.

Today we learned something that really helpful. It was about foods. That's the things we eat every day. Something that related to cooking is important too. Words like: sprinkle, blanch, drizzle and take out which will be frequently used while cooking. Then we watched a video about a star chef who is very young. He cooked a dish in the video and used the words we learned. And then we put the recipe in order. Finally, we compared between sample commentary from Jamie Oliver and written recipes and then to tell our partner about a dish I can cook to practice.

This week we have learning a lot of new words about the cooking, for example: sprinkle, squeeze and so on, that's words very useful for use, before I come to UK. I haven't cooking by myself, thus I didn't know much about it, but when I come to Preston, I had to cooking for myself, hence, that's words very useful for me. Otherside, when I eating out, I can told them which kind of foods I want, which way I want them to cook for me.

Today I learned some knowledge about cooking and also some noun/verb words about cooking such as drain, sprinkle, chop etc. Today's class is very useful for me.

Today we studied the language of recipe. At the beginning of the class, we made a conversation with our partner. We talked about the favourite food. After then, we learned some vocabulary which we can use in describing something how to cook. And then, we did some listening and made some notes. We listened to commentary from Jamie Oliver who is the celebrity chef and did a practice about putting recipe in order. Moreover, we had to care about the language he used in the commentary. And then, we found out the differences between the written description and spoken description from Jamie's salmon. Next we changed the spoken description to the written description. Finally, we made a conversation with our partner to talk about a recipe for something I can cook. The language I learned today is very useful in my daily life.

Today we listened some video and learned many spoken language. For instance, well, you know, you see etc What's more, I also knew that the difference between 'you see' and 'you know'. 'You see' means that you don't expect people know it. 'You know' means that you expect people know it. Besides, I made a conversation with my partner as well. In a word, it's very interesting and very useful.

Today we learned some vocabularies about diet the word recipe can conclude all of the information I think when you are cooking something. You must use the condiments but that's not enough, of course, you should share your experience with your friends or other people. So,

how to describe is very important, in class. We learned vocabularies, listening and practice, I think it's a procession from this. I know what's the key points when you tell somebody something, moreover, we should understand the differences between speaking recipes and written recipes.

Today we learned some useful phrases used in the kitchen. First, the teacher taught us some verbs which were used to describe the steps of cooking meals. Then he showed us a video of Jamie Oliver, who is a famous chef. Though it was a little difficult to understand what James talked, we did the right order by the help of Chris finally. After the listening quiz, Chris gave us everyone a paper of recipe. So, we found some different between the spoken language and written recipe. In the written one the words are quite formal and completed. But in the spoken one, there is no verbs sometimes. James also use 'it' to stand for subjects. To sum up, the words used more informal and friendly in spoken language but completed sentences should be used in written recipe in order to help your audiences understand you easily and clearly.

Last section, Chris taught us the words and phrases we usually use when cooking a dish, and the difference between a written recipe and a spoken one. As Chris said, everyone can cook something. That is 100% real. In China, a traditional Chinese girl should be able to cook delicious dishes. Before we came to UK a teacher told us 'if you can cook, you could be very popular'. Maybe this motivates me to practise cooking during my summer holiday. After uncountable times of failure, now, I am able to cook some chins dishes and bake cookies and cakes. The video programme Chris showed us was very interesting. The cook is so young and is able to make so many delicious dishes. What a genius he is! I often have a think for these fantastic chef. They are kind of magicians or something. Besides just watching his brilliant cooking skills, I also learned something about the difference between a speaking recipe and a written one. We do not need complete structured sentences for a TV programme otherwise audience could fall asleep if they talk like books. And when you are talking in a TV programme, you do not need I explain everything you are doing 'cause the audience are watching, they could understand. Tomorrow is going to be the last class with Chris. Thank you, Chris, for giving so many good lessons. Hope to see you again in the future.

Today Chris showed how to ask about one's holiday and divided us into small groups to choose a proper since we had place for a short visit. There were three options: one is a car museum, one is a theme park and one is a zoo. Since we had fifty pounds per person, we could choose more than one place based on common agreement. After a discussion, we decided to visit the car park first and then go to the theme. We also found out that this theme park was just twenty minutes train from Preston. And if I have time, I would definitely go and visit. Actually, I have been to several places in UK like Lake District, Manchester and Liverpool. This weekend, I am going to Haworth with my friends and someone form Kingschurch. Among all these places, I like Lake District most. The natural scenery there is beyond words and I would like to go there again in the future. This class is the last class with Chris and I cherished it very much. Thank you very much for your excellent teaching and delicious cookies.

Today was the last day we studies this program, tomorrow we would have a text about feedback. Chris written all the information on whiteboard as usual. Our topic was about the trip. So we talk about the trip and made conversation with our partner of course. We listened a long dialog and then we answered some questions. At the end Chris picked up some emphases for us.

Today is the last day we had the class of Chris. So we did some review in the end of the class. The topic of the class is about tourism. First, we had a conversation to talk about 'where did you prefer to go?' and then we listened a tape. I didn't understand the dialogue very much because the accent of the people. Also, the speed of them is too fast to follow. But I made sense finally with the help of transcript. After the practice of listening quiz, we reviewed all the discourse markers we have learned. We reviewed these words through a game with deskmates. It seemed difficult than anyone we did before. And actually, it was a little tough. In summary, on the one hand, the classes of Chris really help me to solve some problems in my daily communication. On the other hand, the class taught me some useful information to live in the UK better. So thanks a lot.

We have talking something about the holiday, the best one, the worst holiday. We have some discuss in the class. From the tape of the conversation, I have learned something useful, just like the incomplete sentences and so on, we also learned something about the differences between general writing and speaking. This is the finally class, I think according this course, I got a lot of useful information and skills of speaking. That's helpful.

Today we studied the topic of planning a trip. At the beginning of class, we made a conversation with our partner about this topic. After then, we did a listening form the native speaker about the same topic. And we must care about the language they used in the conversation and made some notes. Then we compared our conversation to this in terms of the general grammar and vocabulary. We found out the differences between them. Next, we looked at the differences between 'you know' and 'you see' when we used in conversation. And then we learned the other meaning of 'well', 'cos' and 'like'. Finally, we used these language to practise the conversation again with our partner about the best or worst holiday you have ever had. This kind of practice can help me improve my spoken language. This was enjoyable and useful.

Appendix 5 Guided interview prompts and transcripts (pilot study)

Interview question prompts – pilot study

It's now two weeks since you took part in the pilot study. Could you explain your general thoughts about it?

Do you think the language we focused on is useful to you?

Why is/isn't it useful?

Do you think the language we focused on is difficult to learn?

(If yes) Can you explain why you think this?

(If no) Can you explain why you think this?

Do you think the way we studied in the classes was useful to you?

Why/why not?

(If yes) Can you give an example of one method or activity which was particularly useful to you?

(If no) Can you give an example of one method or activity which you wanted to use in the class?

Do you think the lessons helped you to use the language we studied or do you think you would have 'picked it up' anyway?

(If yes) How did the lessons help you to use the language?

(If no or unsure) Can you explain why you think this?

Do you think the lessons helped you to understand the language we studied better or do you think you would have 'picked this up' anyway?

(If yes) How did the lessons help you to understand the language better?

(If no) Can you explain why you think this?

7. We didn't do (III group) any practice of the language in class (give examples). Do you have any comments about this? We did some (PPP group) practice of the language in class (give examples). Do you have any comments about this?

8. Do you wish to make any final comments about the lessons?

Transcripts of pilot study interviews

(Learner errors have not been corrected)

S 01 III group

Interviewer = **bold**

It's now two weeks since you took part in the pilot study. Could you explain your general thoughts about it?

Err first of all let me introduce myself. My name is _____ you know me err and talk about pilot study generally. Err, you know my experience in err (inaudible) I think , if I want to look generally, you know, first of all it was a good and new experience for me to attend, attended in a pilot study or something like this, err, because, you know, something like this situations, you know err, go everyday to a class or to a laboratory or something like this for a pilot study err working on a project err is something like another matter to attend a specific class, you know a teacher you know schedule and everything prepared yeah. This was a good and new experience for me and I'm really happy to attended in this class and I think it was good for my spoken language honestly. And I've learnt loads of things err, you know, vocabulary, the new style, the new method, the new structures, yeah. Generally, if I want to mark myself, you know, from err twenty or something, from hundred, hundred is better, from hundred, I will give you as a student, this kind of project or how can I say, this kind of studies, this kind of pilot study, I will give you a hundred percent because it was useful for me.

So, do you think the language we focused on is useful to you?

Why?

Err, you know, maybe it's hard to talk about why (ok). Because, honestly I'm here to learn this language (**sure)** and I want to continue my education in master's studies and I need err as as err you know how can I say, you know, loads of information, loads of slangs, loads of vocabulary err, about the language, you know, to prepare myself for my master's study and for my future life. Err, sorry I forgot your question.

My question was, you said the language we focussed on was useful to you; why?

Err, because, maybe, it was a routine language or something else. You know, something like your, how can I say, you're involved in your daily language, your daily spoken language and maybe you can hear such as these kind of language err, I don't know, at train, at bus station, at bus, these kind of situations, you know. It's a bit, I think err, hard to learn these kind of err how can I say err, these kind of materials, these kind of knowledge in university or such like a foundation course or speaking course. These things are more pop not popular sociable or something like that.

What do you mean by sociable? Not sure what you mean by that, sorry.

No problem. You know, social life has its own languages **(yes, OK)** If I'm right, **(yes)** I don't know you know I'm just translating from my language **(no no, that's OK)**. Social life has its own vocabulary, own slangs, all the things and obviously structure because when you listen to an educated person you know, it's completely different with a err, I don't know a technician, yeah. And maybe when you're talking in class or in a lecture, a lecturer talk in educated way (right ok). And these kind of, like for example, spoken language, for example, err I can't remember err, you talked about a story in past about yourself .These things are are a bit hard to find in, how can I say, in err official courses **(right, OK, do you mean in things like textbooks and things like that?)** yeah exactly textbook, something like this.

Do you think the language we focused on is difficult to learn?

Obviously not.

Can you explain why you think this?

Yeah first of all, I think, these spoken language is something, you know, you can find it everywhere. Yeah, I told you about station, train, bus these places, these or, I don't know gathering , party, you can you know get familiar with these kind of vocabulary or structures err and I think err, no, it was not hard to learn these things because these are the routine and normal slangs. And if a foreign student comes here to learn language yeah, it's better to learn these kind of language in university instead of outside in social life. For example, I want to say an example. One of these foreign students, that, err we are you know, classmates, he's living with a British boy, I don't know or British family and he always uses some slangs that 'what's

that, what does it mean?'. And maybe he doesn't know about these slangs are they, you know, impolite, polite, formal, informal. And it's better to learn such these kind of vocabulary, structures in university instead of outside. I'm talking too much sorry.

Do you think the way we studied in the classes was useful to you?

Err, as I mentioned in my diary, you know, this method is maybe good for a long long term, you know I mean, just for one week, same schedule, same err, just the topic completely different but same schedule, same progress, process, maybe is a bit boring for students and also teacher. Because same material, same err, stuff and the things that the students each day everyday involved with those information. Err; I'm looking for you know a specific word you know not involved, what's the word exactly? When people you know see a thing everyday **(becomes a bit bored by it maybe?)** Not bored **(bit routine?)** Something likes routine. Be comfortable? **(If they're comfortable it means they are happy with that)**. No, not comfortable. Yeah, forget about it. **(Predictable maybe?)** No, not predictable. **(Easy to see what's coming?)** Maybe something like predictable. But in a long term for example in a term in a module something like four months it would be better to follow this structure, follow this schedule and I think it would be useful for students.

So you mean the way we studied would be good for a short time?

No, it's not good for a short time, for one week it's not good but for a long term, yeah, maybe it's good.

Can you say a bit more about this?

Err, I think I told you. These charts, this schedule you know maybe make makes the students bored. Because everyday you have same topic, same process, yeah. OK we start with diary, we for this we go for this, just the different topics. But if the class is once a week, it would be better in the long term.

I understand what you mean. So better if it was say, once a week for four months, rather than every day for a week. (exactly). **OK, I understand what you mean. Erm if you think then about some of the things that we did in the class. Can you think of, can you give an**

example of one method or maybe one activity which was particularly useful to you? I'm not talking about that actual language here but I'm thinking about the way we did something.

Err, I think I answered, I've answered this question in my diary, if you can remember that. Err, I err you know, I think a good part and good method in this pilot study was err, the translation, the translation. Translation to our mother tongue and after that translation from our mother tongue to English **(yes)**, you know is a good method to err, you know, is a good method to get familiar with language, with vocabularies, try to remember all vocabularies try to err how can I say, you know what I mean, **(yes, I do know what you mean)** try to remember all the stuff and when you write it when you translate it you will find the difference and next time it will be better for you to remember the English words not your mother tongue words. This is one of the good methods that I mentioned before in my diary. But other things, err, the best things, you know, I really appreciate in the educational system of this country or maybe this university, I'm not familiar with other universities, you know, this kind of groupwork or teamworking you know when you work with another students. The teacher's position is something like a conductor give idea, give idea to students and the students have to control the topics, talk about it, write about it and these kind of things. This is a good method in this country, I think. Because in my country the for example the bachelor degree or I don't know, the college or the master degree the PhD, you know, the teacher, the teacher, usually, I can't say it's a common, a routine work, but usually, you know, the teacher comes to class start to write on the board and talk about it and after one hour, after one hour and a half the class completely finish. And the students yeah just take notes you know, till next class. But here, honestly, I got this experience in the foundation course, you have to involve yourself in class activities and this is really, really good work, you know, for foreign students. But maybe it's boring for native speakers, I don't know, maybe, or for example, I'm not familiar, I told you I'm not familiar with the educational system here but maybe it's boring, it's not right, to work in this method in this way you know for a bachelor's degree, for a three years' degree, a master degree, maybe. I'm not so sure about this.

Right, yeah OK. Erm, fine. Do you think the lessons helped you to use the language we studied or do you think you would have 'picked it up' anyway?

From outside? From environment? **(Yeah)**.

I'm asking the question because we're living in the UK (yeah exactly, I know) **so do you think they helped you to use the language we studied , you know discourse markers we looked at etc. or do you think you would have picked it up anyway?**

Well, **(difficult question I know)** no, no, no it's not difficult. I know the answer I have to just process in my mind to get a long, long sentence for it. I think it's possible you know to get these, for example discourse markers or other things, other vocabulary and these kind of stuff in environment or outside the university, in normal life. But when you completely focus these items in a class you can find it all 'oh I've heard it before' for example, at train, at bus station, yeah. Err, yeah, it's easily to, if you just listen to a conversation between two native speakers, two English bloke, you can easily find loads of discourse markers – 'well', 'I mean', 'you know', 'you see' – these kind of information. But maybe for a foreigner, for a foreign student, err, at first time, at the first time, you know, exactly I'm looking for that word, I forget it, then you, you know connect with these kind of situation maybe it's hard to understand. Why they use loads of discourse markers – 'well', 'so', 'you know',' I mean' – these kind of things but when you focus in a class you say 'no' you'll see 'no', it's a good part of language you know to not communicate, to continue your sentences, to join your sentences and let yourself to think about the question or answer or your sentences, these are the good things because, for example, maybe I, it was so interesting for me I've seen this kind of discourse markers I mean in a television, you know. The reporter was talking and err, and she used lots of discourse markers in front of TV. This is the thing was interesting for me because in my experience, in front of TV they don't let you to think about the topic. You have to talk as fast as you can without thinking because you must be prepared for that topic before. But here the reporter use lots of discourse markers – 'you know The Royal Family, you know the government, you know, you see, so, well' yeah. These are the things that was interesting. And these discourse markers, I think, you know, make a situation for you to think more during your speaking.

Right, OK. This is a similar question, slightly different. Do you think the lessons helped you to understand the language we studied better or do you think you would have 'picked this up' anyway?

Yeah. It's completely the same I think.

But the first was question was, do you think the lessons helped you to use the language better and the second question is do you think they helped you to understand it better?

I think I answered this question in your last question. Err, because , err when you get familiar with these err, for example, I will to focus on discourse markers, when you know how to use discourse markers, you know, you, your sentences will be, how can I say, more clear or something like this, err, and err if you just pick these words from conversation between native speaker or British flow, these, yeah maybe it would be hard for you to use or maybe you would use these discourse markers or word in the wrong position because it was so interesting for me, the difference between 'you see' and 'you know'. Always thought yeah maybe it's slight different but when you use 'you know' you are sure about the knowledge of the person you are talking to but we 'you see' you are not sure about the knowledge he or she has or hasn't. These are the things; I could pick it from the environment but different style of using, if I answered your question.

So, you think you might have picked it up?

Yeah you might but maybe err, wrong use, can I say 'wrong use'?

So, just to follow up a little bit, if you compare the two, understanding the language that we focused on or using the language we focused on, which do you think is stronger for you now, after the lessons? Understanding or using? Being able to use, is it equal or is one do you think stronger than the other?

I think, first step, not in this pilot study, not just in English but all fields, you know, first step is understanding and second step is using. I think it's the same in you pilot study too because if you don't understand the main aim or the main target of the study or lesson or topic, you can't use it. This is my idea maybe, maybe it's wrong.

If we think about the lessons again and if we think about the, err, shall we take discourse markers. Having studied them OK we only studied them for a week, which is a very short time of course but we focused on them for a week erm, and we did lots of other things as

well but erm do you think now after that week your understanding is better or your use of them is better? Or both?

Err, the easiest answer, I think, is both, yeah because err, ok let me talk about each one about each one, about understanding and about using, maybe it will be better to clear this question. Err, you know, understanding, when I understand, err fist time when I err, you know, contact, when I see something discourse markers, something like this discourse markers for first time in my country many years ago, yeah maybe I never think about it would be useful in an English country yeah, you know, I mean the language of that country is English for example the United States or England or Australia. But when I came here seven months ago I found you have to use these discourse markers you know, to, how can I say, to give time to yourself to think and to continue your speech. This is a part of understanding but using err, is the same answer, when you want to talk, err, about the topic, you need a time to think about it and these discourse markers, markerts, markers for example err, you know, give you time to think err, maybe you just say 'you know' and you pause for a second or two seconds and after that when you continue, you know what to say after that, after that 'you know' yeah. It's a bit hard, yeah I think 'both' is a good answer, understanding and using. But, sorry, I think I mentioned in the last part of my diary about exam about using these discourse markers. Maybe it's really useful, you know, to use these kind of discourse markers but maybe if you use as a foreign student, maybe it's ok and it's right for you I don't know, your son or your native students. But if I use, as a foreign student, if I use lots of time 'you know', 'you mean', 'well', 'so' maybe it's a bit inconvenient of yourself and it shows your self-confidence is not high enough and you're looking stressly for words. Am I right or not?

That's interesting, interesting comments.

But for a native speaker yeah I'm 100% sure about his or her knowledge, that he or she knows about the topic and about his or her speech but when I use discourse markers, you know, as much as I can, 'you know, you know, you know', it's not sounds good. If I'm right or wrong, I don't know err.

OK, we can talk about that after. The last thing I wanted to ask about the way we studied was about practice. We didn't, in the class when I taught you, we didn't really do any

practice with the language. I didn't get you, for example, to repeat the discourse markers, I didn't get you to do a, for example a role-play, where I said 'you've got to use this', you know, I didn't make you do that. I made you talk about the language but I didn't make you actually practise it. Have you got any comments about that?

Yes, I think I know your answer. Because, you know, maybe you didn't told us to practise but writing a diary each day err, I want to say generally makes us, makes students to repeat a day completely yeah, you know I want to say some example about our pilot study. You know maybe you didn't tell us about practising, practise this, you have to, you know, write essay about this or something like a diary is something like essay. But you know, work on these sentences, you have to fill the gaps these are the sometimes the practice. But writing a diary made me to, I'm talking about this pilot study, you know, writing a diary made me to revise all information form first, you know, I did note-taking in the class, and it made me to revise and to read form the first sentences to end to able to write a diary. But this is the meaning of practice, I think because you revise, you review all information that you got at morning err, you know, you revise it at night and these things are, I think a good method to practise without saying you have to practise this, you have to practise this, that yeah, writing just a simple diary each day, you know, makes the student write to judge about him or herself. This was a good method, I think.

What about the fact that we didn't practise in class, have you got any comments about that?

We didn't practise, what do you mean?

Well, for example, we didn't, I didn't make you repeat the language, for example, I didn't stand at the board and say 'right everybody repeat ''you know'''.

Honestly, I don't like this.

And I didn't, for example, give you a little role-play and say you've got to use 'you know', you've got to use 'you see'. I didn't force you to use the language in the class, also after class I did the same, I didn't say to you. Have you got any comments about that?

I think it depends on the age of students, you know. For example, for children between, I don't know, eleven to seventeen, eighteen, nineteen, twenty yeah err, repeating or give them some practice in the class is useful because I had an experience on teaching too. But for student in the age of me, twenty seven, it's a bit, I would repeat if a teacher says you have to repeat it yeah it's not important for me because I'm not shy. But for some student you know, in my age, 'what's that, what does it mean to repeat in a class' yeah. But I think it depend on age.

OK.

If you have a class and all the students are above twenty five, yeah you can leave the practice to them .They will practise, maybe, maybe not but most of them I think, practise after the class or during the week till next class. But to a seven years old girl or boy, if you don't force him or her to practise, maybe he or she doesn't practise anymore till the next class. But it was ok for me to practise by myself during that week and I practise because I repeat and revise all the information to make myself to write as better as I can for the diary because I thought it would be useful for you and mutual relationship and it was useful for me. And when I attend in a pilot study, I have to do as best as I can, as best I can. I have to involve myself in the study. It could be study for, I don't know, health centre, or it could be for a language department, I have to adopt myself to that situation and involve and engage myself to that.

Thank you. Last question then. Do you wish to make any final comments about the lessons?

Thank you very much.

Thank you very much.

S 05 PPP group

It's now two weeks since you took part in the pilot study. Could you explain your general thoughts about it?

First of all I, now I remember how these discussion, discourse markers are important and I can hear them almost everywhere and many people use them, even foreigners, so….they are important. I don't know if I use them but I catch myself using them from time to time err, I wrote something in my diary that we have, we haven't such discussion markers but probably I was wrong because I use them because some of them we have, almost the same. But some of them for me were so unnatural and I cannot, I don't think I will use them anytime for example, 'mind you' it is for me something very difficult but I remember that the word 'mind' was for me very difficult to pick out and now I use it from time to time so if I can use 'mind' maybe 'mind you' I use also.

Do you think the language we focused on is useful to you?

You mean subjects?

The subjects yeah but I mean really the language we looked at in the classes

If we think about subject then about seventy five percent was for me not very common I don't use it so it was rather something, maybe not difficult but I don't use it or even I don't speak about it in Polish too much. But if we think about this discussion markers, I didn't realise that they are so important and probably I will use them more often and probably they are useful because I can see them everywhere now, as I mentioned. If I think it's important probably it's because somehow I am not recognised as English person if I, even if I speak well sometimes, English people cannot understand me so this is first. Second, I don't understand English people very often even if they speak very well, I mean, legibly, they are, how to say. so maybe I made some mistake.

Do you think the language we focused on is difficult to learn?

Partly yes. I think about ten percent was very difficult for me because I have no counterparts in Polish and I cannot easily get used to this word but some of them were easy just to some of them, some of this words I simply knew before.

Can you explain a little bit more about why certain things were difficult and why certain things were easier?

Oh, probably I said it before that I, the most important were that we use them in Polish for example, 'you know' it's err it's obvious, it's used very often but 'mind you' is for me up to now I have to translate it to 'however' and then I understand how to use it. I don't know if I will use it and more? These are the most important examples, the rest are simply very similar but I cannot know I should (inaudible) these words, it's difficult at the moment.

Do you think the way we studied in the classes was useful to you?

I thought about it because another group was taught a different way, I mean only theoretically but we were trying this so I think that what I do usually is what is successful for me because I was very well protected against English. And I can communicate now so it means that I learnt something. So first I learnt theoretically this is my way of learning English and then I start training. Usually I know theoretically much more than I can use but things that I don't train is not persistent, I cannot use permanent things, I mean if I learn something theoretically, it is only for a few days/weeks/months and then I forget it. But if I train then it is for much longer. Sometimes I have, this is my negative feeling about simple training is that sometimes I learn too simple rules and then I use some words just because they fit to some place in sentence but they are misused.

Talking about that a bit more then, can you give an example of one method or activity which was particularly useful to you?

For me, probably the most was this exercise with erasing words at the blackboard (*progressive deletion task)* I used such similar things a very long time ago and I remember that it is useful. If we think about training, just speaking and practising then probably because of problems with understanding, because we use different pronunciation and it was sometimes difficult for me so probably I cannot say exactly but I think it was a good way of learning, this way of training.

Because I couldn't find a better way of training than speaking, it is difficult to find another person to train. Very often I do strange things at home. At first I translate English texts to Polish then I translate it to English again, then compare and after comparison I learn by heart but it is the most successful way for me but it is very time-consuming and I don't know if it's efficient.

OK, can you give an example then of one method or activity which you wanted to use in the class?

Probably, I think that for me maybe it's personal, it was a bit too fast. I think about the gap between learning something and using .Sometimes, because we have to do three things simultaneously, first was to learn some structures, second to learn something, for example , this cook, recipe and then to say it in English and to try it immediately. For me, it was too much. If I had, for example this recipe, on the paper I think about points or some schemes and this phrases it would be also, for me difficult to use, even if I could see them so, first approach would be to use it without remembering and learning them by heart and then I could try after a few times, But probably for me what was less useful or what I could find difficult was that we tried to experiment too fast and too short. Sometimes I would like to use the same structure and the same text twice three times that would be better.

OK, good. Do you think the lessons helped you to use the language we studied or do you think you would have 'picked it up' anyway?

Picked it up… I don't understand this, what do you mean?

Do you think the lessons helped you to use the language we studied or do you think because we're in England and living in England and you're hearing lots of English , you would have just learnt it by listening to the English around you anyway?

Well, I think that err, it's not necessarily like this. I hope that if I come here then I will learn a lot of English but it is not the truth. I am among native speakers, sometimes they speak so illegibly that I cannot understand them and that also I cannot learn anything but if I among different nations I learn their mistakes. But err, I've forgotten the first part of the question.

Yeah, do you think the lessons helped you to use the language or would you have learnt it just by being in England anyway?

No, I think that lessons helped. First of all, I didn't realise that this structures are so important. If I could exercise more, if it was longer it would be much more useful but it was useful.

OK, similar question, slightly different. Do you think the lessons helped you to understand the language we studied better or do you think you would have 'learnt that anyway by being in England?

Probably the answer is the same. I think that it helped me to understand and I don't think that I could catch all this rules without lessons. And I have some experience. I have friend, he has spent a long time in England and in Sweden and so on. And he has a very wide vocabulary and he very often speaks on the phone and so on. I think about my Polish friend. But he doesn't use English grammar, Polish grammar, I don't know, he sometimes speaks his own language and he picked it himself. He didn't make any classes or… And sometimes it is incorrect, sometimes it is difficult to understand him, he uses only the right words. It was like this when I came here and I asked my flatmates for the first time what is she thinking about my English. She told me that I use the right words which means that only words were right and so it was pessimistic for me. And I don't think we can pick everything just, I'm thinking about understanding and speaking, I am very bad at understanding languages so probably I'm a very bad example , my friend can learn easier so maybe I am not a good example at this moment.

OK, we did some practise of the language in class (give examples). Do you have any comments about this?

My comment is I repeat something that I said before. If it lasted for longer it would be enough for me because at the moment, everything was, if we think about exercising, everything was good for me. Err, obviously I have problems with understanding my friends and so on but I think that if we try for longer it would be better, good. But it was (inaudible) it would be good to last for longer not so fast. I don't know. Sometimes are dialogues were inefficient, we couldn't communicate but it is, maybe it was not a problem with method but problems with two people with different pronunciations. Because sometimes I tried to concentrate as much as

possible but I couldn't because different languages, I think about mother tongues, different pronunciation, I had to look at which letter fit because use consonant and they use different consonant.

Do you wish to make any final comments about the lessons?

Yes, probably, I would like to take part in both lessons and I think it would be for me the best because I think that I don't believe that learning English structure without theory is a good idea. We learn our mother tongue but it last for a very long time and we start when we are very young and our brain is in different stage probably. So I think that we have to learn theory then training. Theory is important but without training we forget it I think. I don't, complicated grammar is not something we can remember for a very long time and even if I know grammar it is useless for me, I cannot think always about grammar. But also what I said before, learning English without grammar, some lessons, also looks ridiculous I think because of my friend. Obviously he knows, he has a very wide vocabulary, he speaks, he can communicate but sometimes his language looks like, sometimes he, it sounds like a comedian.

Appendix 6 Most frequent (51-100) words in learner diaries (main study)

III group

RANK/	COVERAGE		
FREQUENCY	INDIVIDUAL	CUMULATIVE	WORD
51. 14	0.39%	50.89%	KNOWLEDGE
52. 14	0.39%	51.28%	LISTENING
53. 14	0.39%	51.67%	NEWSPAPER
54. 14	0.39%	52.06%	TELL
55. 14	0.39%	52.45%	THEN
56. 14	0.39%	52.84%	VERY
57. 14	0.39%	53.23%	WILL
58. 13	0.36%	53.59%	AT
59. 13	0.36%	53.95%	LANGUAGE
60. 13	0.36%	54.31%	LEARNED
61. 13	0.36%	54.67%	USEFUL
62. 13	0.36%	55.03%	YOU
63. 12	0.33%	55.36%	BECAUSE
64. 12	0.33%	55.69%	POST
65. 12	0.33%	56.02%	UK
66. 11	0.30%	56.32%	BE
67. 11	0.30%	56.62%	DIFFERENCE
68. 11	0.30%	56.92%	FIRST
69. 11	0.30%	57.22%	LESSON
70. 11	0.30%	57.52%	NEW
71. 11	0.30%	57.82%	OFFICE
72. 11	0.30%	58.12%	SPEAK
73. 11	0.30%	58.42%	THEM
74. 11	0.30%	58.72%	THERE
75. 11	0.30%	59.02%	THEY
76. 10	0.28%	59.30%	BY
77. 10	0.28%	59.58%	CHINESE
78. 10	0.28%	59.86%	FINALLY
79. 10	0.28%	60.14%	HE
80. 10	0.28%	60.42%	LOT
81. 10	0.28%	60.70%	MEANING
82. 10	0.28%	60.98%	SHOULD
83. 10	0.28%	61.26%	UNDERSTAND
84. 10	0.28%	61.54%	WAS
85. 9	0.25%	61.79%	ADDITION
86. 9	0.25%	62.04%	CHINA
87. 9	0.25%	62.29%	EXERCISE
88. 9	0.25%	62.54%	LIKE
89. 9	0.25%	62.79%	LISTEN
90. 9	0.25%	63.04%	NEXT
91. 9	0.25%	63.29%	ON
92. 9	0.25%	63.54%	OTHER
93. 9	0.25%	63.79%	TOPIC
94. 9	0.25%	64.04%	TV
95. 9	0.25%	64.29%	WANT
96. 9	0.25%	64.54%	WHAT
97. 9	0.25%	64.79%	WHICH
98. 8	0.22%	65.01%	ALL
99. 8	0.22%	65.23%	LEARNT
100. 8	0.22%	65.45%	LET

PPP group

RANK/ FREQUENCY	COVERAGE INDIVIDUAL	CUMULATIVE	WORD
51. 19	0.39%	52.39%	SOMETHING
52. 18	0.37%	52.76%	AT
53. 18	0.37%	53.13%	BUT
54. 18	0.37%	53.50%	LISTENED
55. 18	0.37%	53.87%	THESE
56. 17	0.35%	54.22%	INTERESTING
57. 17	0.35%	54.57%	OTHER
58. 17	0.35%	54.92%	STORIES
59. 17	0.35%	55.27%	USED
60. 16	0.33%	55.60%	ARE
61. 16	0.33%	55.93%	BE
62. 16	0.33%	56.26%	TOLD
63. 15	0.31%	56.57%	DISCOURSE
64. 15	0.31%	56.88%	ENGLISH
65. 15	0.31%	57.19%	FROM
66. 15	0.31%	57.50%	KNOW
67. 15	0.31%	57.81%	MADE
68. 15	0.31%	58.12%	WHICH
69. 14	0.29%	58.41%	FOUND
70. 14	0.29%	58.70%	GOOD
71. 14	0.29%	58.99%	LAST
72. 14	0.29%	59.28%	MY
73. 14	0.29%	59.57%	OFFICE
74. 14	0.29%	59.86%	ONE
75. 14	0.29%	60.15%	POST
76. 14	0.29%	60.44%	SHOULD
77. 13	0.27%	60.71%	FINALLY
78. 13	0.27%	60.98%	FIRST
79. 13	0.27%	61.25%	ON
80. 13	0.27%	61.52%	THAT'S
81. 13	0.27%	61.79%	TOPIC
82. 12	0.25%	62.04%	AS
83. 12	0.25%	62.29%	COOK
84. 12	0.25%	62.54%	DIALOGUE
85. 12	0.25%	62.79%	LOT
86. 12	0.25%	63.04%	MARKERS
87. 12	0.25%	63.29%	NATIVE
88. 12	0.25%	63.54%	WRITTEN
89. 11	0.23%	63.77%	BETWEEN
90. 11	0.23%	64.00%	ME
91. 11	0.23%	64.23%	PEOPLE
92. 11	0.23%	64.46%	SENTENCES
93. 10	0.21%	64.67%	COURSE
94. 10	0.21%	64.88%	KNOWLEDGE
95. 10	0.21%	65.09%	MANY
96. 10	0.21%	65.30%	PARTNER
97. 10	0.21%	65.51%	RECIPE
98. 10	0.21%	65.72%	STUDIED
99. 10	0.21%	65.93%	TALK
100. 10	0.21%	66.14%	THEY

Appendix 7 All keywords from diaries (main study)

Explanation below taken from Compleat Lexical Tutor (2011).

POTENTIAL KEYWORDS IN group diaries 2010 plain text.txt (3652 words)

Keywords are the words in your text that are far more frequent, proportionally, than they are in a general reference corpus (here, the Brown Corpus, whose 1 million words comprise 500 texts of 2000 words on a broad range of topics – see Brown freqs).

The number accompanying each word represents the number of times more frequent the word is in your text than it is in the Brown Corpus. For example, the first item in the output **958.50 video** is calculated on the basic that **video** has **2** natural occurrences in the Brown's 1 million words, but **7** occurrences in your 3652-word text. These 7 occurrences are proportionally a lot more than the 2 occurrences in the Brown. Taken as a proportion of 1,000,000 words, these 7 occurrences represent 7/3652 x 1,000,000 = **1917** virtual occurrences. These 1917 occurrences are 958.50 times more numerous than the 2 occurrences in Brown. The keyword list below contains all the words in your text that are at least **10 times** more numerous in your text than in the Brown reference corpus (the "keyness factor"). The greater the keyness factor, the more *'key'* a word is likely to be to your input text.

Words eliminated from analysis by user: none.

Notes: 1. Small texts may provide unreliable comparisons. 2. Words less than 2 occurrences are ignored. 3. Routine does not currently handle either word families or multiword units, nor calculate statistics of keyness (Nation argues that a keyness factor less than 50 is uninteresting).

III group

(1) 958.50 video	(58) 27.37 listened
(2) 657.20 discourse	(59) 26.71 teach
(3) 410.50 colloquial	(60) 26.63 knowledge
(4) 383.40 marker	(61) 26.07 express
(5) 342.25 grammar	(62) 24.88 sentence
(6) 274.00 jiffy	(63) 23.83 exercises
(7) 273.88 stamp	(64) 23.60 culture
(8) 273.78 topic	(65) 22.83 brave
(9) 207.22 spoken	(66) 22.82 beach
(10) 205.33 chris	(67) 22.81 skills
(11) 147.46 sentences	(68) 21.90 choose
(12) 137.00 travelling	(69) 21.73 meaning
(13) 119.81 cooking	(70) 21.61 furthermore
(14) 109.60 additionally	(71) 21.05 improve
(15) 103.86 lesson	(72) 20.52 decide
(16) 98.31 listening	(73) 20.35 difference
(17) 84.23 vocabulary	(74) 20.28 understand
(18) 81.15 oral	(75) 20.28 interesting
(19) 78.29 verbs	(76) 19.55 lots
(20) 78.29 sprinkle	(77) 19.55 details
(21) 76.68 conversation	(78) 19.55 skill
(22) 68.50 chef	(79) 19.37 different
(23) 68.42 dialogue	(80) 18.90 fees
(24) 65.28 story	(81) 17.95 cool
(25) 64.93 english	(82) 17.95 travel
(26) 63.18 newspaper	(83) 17.85 native
(27) 63.15 communicate	(84) 17.68 evaluation
(28) 62.46 useful	(85) 17.66 signal
(29) 58.92 studied	(86) 17.35 addition
(30) 58.68 discuss	(87) 17.33 differences
(31) 56.77 teacher	(88) 15.49 speaker
(32) 56.10 class	(89) 15.22 license
(33) 54.80 oliver	(90) 14.81 peoples
(34) 52.15 learn	(91) 14.34 finally
(35) 50.70 weekend	(92) 14.31 tell
(36) 49.82 tide	(93) 14.05 deeply
(37) 49.78 chinese	(94) 13.05 bureau
(38) 48.31 listen	(95) 13.04 ways
(39) 45.67 paragraph	(96) 12.74 expensive
(40) 42.48 exercise	(97) 12.45 enjoy
(41) 39.94 cook	(98) 12.30 quickly
(42) 39.11 compare	(99) 12.25 starting
(43) 39.10 summary	(100) 12.17 complex
(44) 38.66 post	(101) 11.81 office
(45) 36.53 tense	(102) 11.65 practice
(46) 36.53 expressions	(103) 11.56 compared
(47) 36.51 anyway	(104) 11.13 easy
(48) 34.70 china	(105) 11.09 contrast
(49) 34.25 discussing	(106) 11.09 send
(50) 34.25 translate	(107) 10.75 easier
(51) 32.66 language	(108) 10.75 correct
(52) 32.01 written	(109) 10.67 talk
(53) 31.58 identify	(110) 10.54 introduced
(54) 30.43 learned	(111) 10.54 widely
(55) 29.52 words	(112) 10.33 write
(56) 29.00 today	(113) 10.26 instance
(57) 27.38 speak	

PPP group

(1)	921.00	video	(58)	41.36	practice
(2)	665.00	chris	(59)	36.84	taught
(3)	511.50	scary	(60)	36.72	improve
(4)	511.50	vocabularies	(61)	34.11	skills
(5)	511.50	enjoyable	(62)	33.71	post
(6)	409.00	quiz	(63)	31.46	reviewed
(7)	409.00	dialogues	(64)	30.70	speaking
(8)	347.90	discourse	(65)	30.30	oral
(9)	307.00	classmates	(66)	29.24	dishes
(10)	307.00	preston	(67)	28.21	helpful
(11)	307.00	delicious	(68)	27.02	speaker
(12)	295.56	topic	(69)	25.90	studied
(13)	255.75	recipe	(70)	22.72	acted
(14)	255.75	tutor	(71)	22.72	informal
(15)	204.58	dialogue	(72)	22.72	drain
(16)	204.50	practised	(73)	21.93	learn
(17)	204.50	stamps	(74)	21.93	notes
(18)	173.15	sentences	(75)	20.45	shared
(19)	163.60	storyteller	(76)	20.40	today
(20)	154.84	spoken	(77)	19.81	evaluation
(21)	140.00	useful	(78)	18.13	differences
(22)	139.14	conversation	(79)	17.93	english
(23)	136.33	chop	(80)	17.54	tape
(24)	136.33	salmon	(81)	17.49	words
(25)	122.77	listened	(82)	17.46	teacher
(26)	121.50	cooking	(83)	17.06	thank
(27)	116.86	verbs	(84)	16.04	foods
(28)	102.25	chef	(85)	15.94	written
(29)	99.69	listening	(86)	15.73	telling
(30)	90.94	phrases	(87)	15.50	background
(31)	87.71	sprinkle	(88)	15.27	tell
(32)	81.87	expressions	(89)	15.16	understand
(33)	81.80	marker	(90)	15.15	description
(34)	81.80	conversations	(91)	15.00	finally
(35)	81.80	secondly	(92)	14.98	describe
(36)	76.75	commentary	(93)	14.87	chinese
(37)	71.71	learned	(94)	14.61	review
(38)	68.20	audiences	(95)	14.61	details
(39)	68.17	cookies	(96)	14.61	customer
(40)	63.94	dish	(97)	14.21	knowledge
(41)	63.94	partner	(98)	13.64	anyway
(42)	62.92	vocabulary	(99)	13.29	talk
(43)	61.40	oliver	(100)	13.19	helps
(44)	60.63	weekend	(101)	13.19	signal
(45)	60.18	holiday	(102)	12.58	discussed
(46)	58.97	stories	(103)	12.28	choose
(47)	58.43	inform	(104)	12.21	answered
(48)	58.43	speakers	(105)	12.04	listen
(49)	57.83	native	(106)	12.04	theme
(50)	51.50	story	(107)	12.03	thursday
(51)	51.15	cook	(108)	12.03	worst
(52)	51.13	partners	(109)	11.83	daily
(53)	49.38	lesson	(110)	11.81	introduced
(54)	48.91	class	(111)	11.81	content
(55)	47.23	communicate	(112)	11.63	moreover
(56)	46.94	language	(113)	11.57	very
(57)	42.95	interesting	(114)	11.36	kinds

(115) 11.24 office (116) 11.23 beginning (117) 10.40 think (118) 10.23 instance (119) 10.16 showed	

Appendix 8 Most frequent chunks (1-100) from diaries (main study)

III group

5-wd strings: 3,637 Repeated: 30 (0.82%)	4-wd strings: 3,638 Repeated: 72 (1.98%)	3-wd strings: 3,639 Repeated: 184 (5.06%)	2-wd strings: 3,640 Repeated: 457 (12.55%)
TTR: 30:63 (1:2.1) Words: 150 (4.11% of tot)	TTR: 72:159 (1:2.20) Words: 288 (7.90% of tot)	TTR: 184:462 (1:2.51) Words: 552 (15.16% of tot)	TR: 457:1502 (1:3.28) Words: 914 (25.10% of tot)
001. **[4]** SPOKEN ENGLISH AND WRITTEN ENGLISH	001. **[5]** TODAY WE STUDIED THE	001. **[9]** A LOT OF	001. **[24]** IN THE
002. **[3]** THE SPOKEN ENGLISH AND WRITTEN	002. **[4]** ENGLISH AND WRITTEN ENGLISH	002. **[9]** TODAY WE STUDIED	002. **[20]** HOW TO
003. **[2]** TO SIGNAL I AM GOING	003. **[4]** SPOKEN ENGLISH AND WRITTEN	003. **[9]** THE POST OFFICE	003. **[20]** TODAY WE
004. **[2]** FROM THE SPOKEN ENGLISH AND	004. **[3]** IN A SPOKEN STORY	004. **[8]** WE STUDIED THE	004. **[15]** DISCOURSE MARKERS
005. **[2]** WE LEARN A LOT OF	005. **[3]** HOW TO TELL A	005. **[7]** THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN	005. **[15]** WE STUDIED
006. **[2]** CHRIS TEACH US SOME KNOWLEDGE	006. **[3]** TO TELL A STORY	006. **[6]** WRITTEN NEWSPAPER STORY	006. **[12]** THIS CLASS
007. **[2]** IT MEANS I WANT TO	007. **[3]** TODAY WE STUDIED SOME	007. **[5]** IN THIS CLASS	007. **[11]** POST OFFICE
008. **[2]** CAREFULLY SINCE THE LOCAL PEOPLE	008. **[3]** THE DIFFERENT MEANING OF	008. **[5]** A SPOKEN STORY	008. **[11]** SPOKEN ENGLISH
009. **[2]** WANT TO SIGNAL I AM	009. **[3]** AT THE POST OFFICE	009. **[5]** THE SPOKEN ENGLISH	009. **[10]** THE TEACHER
010. **[2]** LISTEN CAREFULLY SINCE THE LOCAL	010. **[3]** THE SPOKEN ENGLISH AND	010. **[5]** KNOW HOW TO	010. **[10]** A LOT
011. **[2]** COULD NOT LISTEN CAREFULLY SINCE	011. **[3]** LEARN A LOT OF	011. **[5]** SOME KNOWLEDGE ABOUT	011. **[10]** WE HAVE
012. **[2]** TEACH US SOME KNOWLEDGE ABOUT	012. **[2]** THAT HOW TO TELL	012. **[5]** HOW TO TELL	012. **[10]** WE CAN
013. **[2]** SIGNAL I AM GOING TO	013. **[2]** AM GOING TO START	013. **[4]** WE STUDIED SOME	013. **[9]** SPOKEN STORY
014. **[2]** THERE ARE A LOT OF	014. **[2]** KNOW HOW TO TELL	014. **[4]** ENGLISH AND WRITTEN	014. **[9]** LOT OF

015. **[2]** THE LOCAL PEOPLE SPEAK SO	015. **[2]** THE POST OFFICE, THE	015. **[4]** THAT HOW TO	015. **[9]** THE POST
016. **[2]** NOT LISTEN CAREFULLY SINCE THE	016. **[2]** SOME KNOWLEDGE ABOUT COOKING	016. **[4]** TO TELL A	016. **[9]** DIFFERENCE BETWEEN
017. **[2]** SINCE THE LOCAL PEOPLE SPEAK	017. **[2]** TEACH US SOME KNOWLEDGE	017. **[4]** WE WILL GO	017. **[9]** OF THE
018. **[2]** SPOKEN STORY AND WRITTEN NEWSPAPER	018. **[2]** IS DIFFERENT WITH ENGLISH	018. **[4]** IN THE CLASS	018. **[9]** IN ADDITION
019. **[2]** STORY AND WRITTEN NEWSPAPER STORY	019. **[2]** TO SIGNAL I AM	019. **[4]** AND WRITTEN ENGLISH	019. **[8]** THE DIFFERENCE
020. **[2]** TO START A NEW TOPIC	020. **[2]** ABOUT THE POST OFFICE	020. **[4]** SPOKEN ENGLISH AND	020. **[8]** THERE ARE
021. **[2]** A NEW TOPIC OR CONVERSATION	021. **[2]** PEOPLE SPEAK SO QUICKLY	021. **[3]** IN A SPOKEN	021. **[8]** THE CLASS
022. **[2]** I AM GOING TO START	022. **[2]** GET USED TO THAT	022. **[3]** THERE ARE MANY	022. **[8]** THE SPOKEN
023. **[2]** START A NEW TOPIC OR	023. **[2]** FROM THE SPOKEN ENGLISH	023. **[3]** SPEAK SO QUICKLY	023. **[8]** A STORY
024. **[2]** GOING TO START A NEW	024. **[2]** IN THIS CLASS, I	024. **[3]** TELL A STORY	024. **[8]** WE WILL
025. **[2]** STUDIED THE DIFFERENT MEANING OF	025. **[2]** SOME KNOWLEDGE ABOUT THE	025. **[3]** FOR US TO	025. **[8]** IN A
026. **[2]** AM GOING TO START A	026. **[2]** CAREFULLY SINCE THE LOCAL	026. **[3]** THE DIFFERENT MEANING	026. **[8]** STUDIED THE
027. **[2]** WE STUDIED THE DIFFERENT MEANING	027. **[2]** A NEW TOPIC OR	027. **[3]** AT THE POST	027. **[7]** AND THE
028. **[2]** LOCAL PEOPLE SPEAK SO QUICKLY	028. **[2]** A WRITTEN NEWSPAPER STORY	028. **[3]** DIFFERENT MEANING OF	028. **[7]** WANT TO
029. **[2]** HOW TO TELL A STORY	029. **[2]** I THINK IT WILL	029. **[3]** IS GOOD FOR	029. **[7]** AND WRITTEN
030. **[2]** I COULD NOT LISTEN CAREFULLY	030. **[2]** NEW TOPIC OR CONVERSATION	030. **[3]** HOW TO DISCUSS	030. **[7]** THESE WORDS
	031. **[2]** USEFUL FOR US TO	031. **[3]** SPOKEN STORY AND	031. **[7]** IN THIS
	032. **[2]** THE CLASS, THE TEACHER	032. **[3]** SOME DISCOURSE MARKERS	032. **[7]** US TO
	033. **[2]** WE HAVE SEE A	033. **[3]** AND HOW TO	033. **[7]** WORDS AND

034. **[2]** IT MEANS I WANT	034. **[3]** LEARN A LOT	034. **[7]** LET US
035. **[2]** TO START A NEW	035. **[3]** THE CLASS WE	035. **[7]** TO TELL
036. **[2]** SINCE THE LOCAL PEOPLE	036. **[3]** DISCOURSE MARKERS ARE	036. **[7]** THE NEWSPAPER
037. **[2]** NOT LISTEN CAREFULLY SINCE	037. **[3]** FROM THIS LESSON	037. **[6]** WE ALSO
038. **[2]** IS GOOD FOR US	038. **[3]** I WANT TO	038. **[6]** ABOUT COOKING
039. **[2]** SOME NEW WORDS AND	039. **[3]** ALL IN ALL	039. **[6]** FOR US
040. **[2]** COULD NOT LISTEN CAREFULLY	040. **[3]** I LEARN SOME	040. **[6]** THEN WE
041. **[2]** THE TEACHER ASKED US	041. **[3]** SOME NEW WORDS	041. **[6]** WRITTEN ENGLISH
042. **[2]** WANT TO SIGNAL I	042. **[3]** FIRST CLASS STAMP	042. **[6]** WRITTEN NEWSPAPER
043. **[2]** START A NEW TOPIC	043. **[3]** TODAY WE LEARNED	043. **[6]** LEARN SOME
044. **[2]** MEANING OF THESE WORDS	044. **[3]** USEFUL FOR US	044. **[6]** WE ARE
045. **[2]** LISTEN CAREFULLY SINCE THE	045. **[2]** WE HAVE SEE	045. **[6]** DISCOURSE MARKER
046. **[2]** I AM GOING TO	046. **[2]** WORDS AND SENTENCES	046. **[6]** MEANING OF
047. **[2]** WANT TO CHANGE TOPIC	047. **[2]** TO START A	047. **[6]** SOME KNOWLEDGE
048. **[2]** AND WRITTEN NEWSPAPER STORY	048. **[2]** MEANS I WANT	048. **[6]** IN UK
049. **[2]** US SOME KNOWLEDGE ABOUT	049. **[2]** LEARNED HOW TO	049. **[6]** AND THEN
050. **[2]** I COULD NOT LISTEN	050. **[2]** OF THESE WORDS	050. **[6]** NEWSPAPER STORY
051. **[2]** SPOKEN STORY AND WRITTEN	051. **[2]** WORDS SUCH AS	051. **[6]** CLASS STAMP
052. **[2]** I KNOW HOW TO	052. **[2]** IS DIFFERENT WITH	052. **[6]** WE LEARNED
053. **[2]** ALREADY KNOW HOW TO	053. **[2]** LEARN SOME NEW	053. **[6]** FOR EXAMPLE
054. **[2]** GOING TO START A	054. **[2]** KNOWLEDGE ABOUT COOKING	054. **[6]** ABOUT THE
055. **[2]** SIGNAL I AM GOING	055. **[2]** TEACHER ASKED US	055. **[5]** KNOWLEDGE ABOUT
056. **[2]** WE LEARN A LOT	056. **[2]** TODAY WE LEARNT	056. **[5]** KNOW HOW

	057. **[2]** WE STUDIED THE DIFFERENT	057. **[2]** NOT AVAILABLE IN	057. **[5]** THIS IS
	058. **[2]** MEANS I WANT TO	058. **[2]** AM GOING TO	058. **[5]** FINALLY, WE
	059. **[2]** CLASS WAS VERY INTERESTING	059. **[2]** COULD NOT LISTEN	059. **[5]** WE LEARN
	060. **[2]** LEARN SOME KNOWLEDGE ABOUT	060. **[2]** HOW TO COOK	060. **[5]** I LEARNED
	061. **[2]** THERE ARE A LOT	061. **[2]** LOCAL PEOPLE SPEAK	061. **[5]** WE SHOULD
	062. **[2]** CHRIS TEACH US SOME	062. **[2]** THE TEACHER ASKED	062. **[5]** IN CHINA
	063. **[2]** STORY AND WRITTEN NEWSPAPER	063. **[2]** HAVE SEE A	063. **[5]** SOME WORDS
	064. **[2]** USE DISCOURSE MARKER BUT	064. **[2]** THINK IT WILL	064. **[5]** WORDS IN
	065. **[2]** STUDIED THE DIFFERENT MEANING	065. **[2]** CLASS STAMP IS	065. **[5]** USE THE
	066. **[2]** IS VERY USEFUL FOR	066. **[2]** THIS LESSON, I	066. **[5]** HELP US
	067. **[2]** THE LOCAL PEOPLE SPEAK	067. **[2]** WE LEARN A	067. **[5]** THIS LESSON
	068. **[2]** ARE A LOT OF	068. **[2]** IN THE SPOKEN	068. **[5]** USEFUL FOR
	069. **[2]** A SPOKEN STORY AND	069. **[2]** PEOPLE SPEAK SO	069. **[5]** LOCAL PEOPLE
	070. **[2]** COMMUNICATE WITH LOCAL PEOPLE	070. **[2]** THIS IS VERY	070. **[5]** THE DIFFERENT
	071. **[2]** LOCAL PEOPLE SPEAK SO	071. **[2]** SOME INFORMATION ABOUT	071. **[5]** I THINK
	072. **[2]** ARE NOT AVAILABLE IN	072. **[2]** SIGNAL I AM	072. **[5]** IN ENGLISH
		073. **[2]** WRITTEN LANGUAGE IS	073. **[5]** IS VERY
		074. **[2]** THE LOCAL PEOPLE	074. **[5]** THE STORY
		075. **[2]** USEFUL TO OUR	075. **[5]** IT IS
		076. **[2]** TOPIC OR CONVERSATION	076. **[5]** STORY AND
		077. **[2]** THE NEW CLASS	077. **[5]** WHEN WE
		078. **[2]** CLASS WE HAVE	078. **[5]** AT THE
		079. **[2]** CHRIS TEACH US	079. **[5]** I LEARN
		080. **[2]** HOW TO ASK	080. **[5]** THAT WE

		081. **[2]** SECOND CLASS STAMP	081. **[5]** CLASS WE
		082. **[2]** TO SIGNAL I	082. **[5]** A SPOKEN
		083. **[2]** TEACHER LET US	083. **[4]** MANY THINGS
		084. **[2]** ARE NOT AVAILABLE	084. **[4]** THE LISTENING
		085. **[2]** OF DIFFERENT BETWEEN	085. **[4]** ORAL CLASS
		086. **[2]** AT LAST LESSON	086. **[4]** IS MUCH
		087. **[2]** IT MEANS I	087. **[4]** LESSON, I
		088. **[2]** EASY TO UNDERSTAND	088. **[4]** ON THE
		089. **[2]** ENJOY THIS CLASS	089. **[4]** THE CONVERSATION
		090. **[2]** USE DISCOURSE MARKER	090. **[4]** INFORMATION ABOUT
		091. **[2]** SOME SPOKEN WORDS	091. **[4]** I AM
		092. **[2]** STORY AND WRITTEN	092. **[4]** FROM THIS
		093. **[2]** AND WRITTEN NEWSPAPER	093. **[4]** I WANT
		094. **[2]** ALREADY KNOW HOW	094. **[4]** IS GOOD
		095. **[2]** TODAY'S ORAL CLASS	095. **[4]** IS THE
		096. **[2]** MOST OF THEM	096. **[4]** CLASS, I
		097. **[2]** AND LET US	097. **[4]** TO USE
		098. **[2]** IN ADDITION TO	098. **[4]** SOME NEW
		099. **[2]** UK AND CHINA	099. **[4]** OF THEM
		100. **[2]** THIS CLASS IS	100. **[4]** SUCH AS

PPP group

5-wd strings: 4,837 Repeated: 56 (1.16%)	4-wd strings: 4,838 Repeated: 121 (2.50%)	3-wd strings: 4,839 Repeated: 312 (6.45%)	2-wd strings: 4,840 Repeated: 630 (13.02%)
TTR: 56:132 (1:2.35) Words: 280 (5.78% of tot)	TTR: 121:299 (1:2.47) Words: 484 (9.99% of tot)	TTR: 312:840 (1:2.69) Words: 936 (19.33% of tot)	TTR: 630:2277 (1:3.61) Words: 1260 (26.02% of tot)
001. **[5]** THE BEGINNING OF THE CLASS	001. **[7]** AT THE BEGINNING OF	001. **[9]** OF THE CLASS	001. **[27]** IN THE
002. **[5]** AT THE BEGINNING OF THE	002. **[6]** TO TELL A STORY	002. **[8]** AT THE BEGINNING	002. **[26]** WE LEARNED
003. **[5]** HOW TO TELL A STORY	003. **[6]** TODAY WE STUDIED THE	003. **[8]** A LOT OF	003. **[25]** ABOUT THE
004. **[4]** A CONVERSATION WITH OUR PARTNER	004. **[5]** HOW TO TELL A	004. **[8]** TODAY WE STUDIED	004. **[20]** THE CLASS
005. **[4]** THIS WAS ENJOYABLE AND USEFUL	005. **[5]** CONVERSATION WITH OUR PARTNER	005. **[8]** IS VERY USEFUL	005. **[20]** OF THE
006. **[4]** BEGINNING OF THE CLASS, WE	006. **[5]** A CONVERSATION WITH OUR	006. **[7]** TELL A STORY	006. **[18]** HOW TO
007. **[3]** WE MADE A CONVERSATION WITH	007. **[5]** THE BEGINNING OF THE	007. **[7]** A CONVERSATION WITH	007. **[17]** AND THEN
008. **[3]** WE LEARNED SOME VOCABULARIES ABOUT	008. **[5]** BEGINNING OF THE CLASS	008. **[7]** THE BEGINNING OF	008. **[17]** I THINK
009. **[3]** I GOT A LOT OF	009. **[4]** WE MADE A CONVERSATION	009. **[7]** THE POST OFFICE	009. **[16]** WE LISTENED
010. **[3]** CLASS, WE MADE A CONVERSATION	010. **[4]** OF THE CLASS, WE	010. **[7]** AND THEN WE	010. **[16]** VERY USEFUL
011. **[3]** MADE A CONVERSATION WITH OUR	011. **[4]** IN THE POST OFFICE	011. **[7]** WE STUDIED THE	011. **[16]** A STORY
012. **[2]** THE CLASS, WE MADE A	012. **[4]** WAS ENJOYABLE AND USEFUL	012. **[6]** THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN	012. **[16]** WE DID
013. **[2]** OTHER BACKGROUND DETAILS, PROBLEM, SOLUTION	013. **[4]** THIS WAS ENJOYABLE AND	013. **[6]** CONVERSATION WITH OUR	013. **[15]** THEN WE
014. **[2]** ALSO LEARNED SOMETHING ABOUT THE	014. **[4]** IT IS VERY USEFUL	014. **[6]** WE LEARNED SOME	014. **[15]** WE HAD

015. **[2]** WE FOUND OUT THE DIFFERENCES	015. **[4]** MADE A CONVERSATION WITH	015. **[6]** TO TELL A	015. **[15]** IS VERY
016. **[2]** THAT'S WORDS VERY USEFUL FOR	016. **[3]** WITH OUR PARTNER ABOUT	016. **[6]** WITH OUR PARTNER	016. **[14]** TODAY WE
017. **[2]** BACKGROUND DETAILS, PROBLEM, SOLUTION, EVALUATION	017. **[3]** LEARNED SOME VOCABULARIES ABOUT	017. **[6]** VERY USEFUL FOR	017. **[14]** POST OFFICE
018. **[2]** ALSO SHOWED US HOW TO	018. **[3]** THE WORDS WE LEARNED	018. **[6]** WE DID SOME	018. **[13]** TO THE
019. **[2]** TODAY WE STUDIED THE LANGUAGE	019. **[3]** VERY USEFUL FOR ME	019. **[6]** US HOW TO	019. **[13]** WITH OUR
020. **[2]** TO REVIEW THE KNOWLEDGE WE	020. **[3]** 'WELL' AND 'YOU KNOW'	020. **[5]** MADE A CONVERSATION	020. **[12]** DISCOURSE MARKERS
021. **[2]** WE MAKE A CONVERSATION WITH	021. **[3]** TAUGHT US HOW TO	021. **[5]** ENJOYABLE AND USEFUL	021. **[12]** A LOT
022. **[2]** US HOW TO TELL A	022. **[3]** WE LEARNED SOME VOCABULARIES	022. **[5]** POST OFFICE AND	022. **[12]** A CONVERSATION
023. **[2]** THE LANGUAGE OF SPOKEN STORIES	023. **[3]** I GOT A LOT	023. **[5]** THE DISCOURSE MARKERS	023. **[11]** IT WAS
024. **[2]** IT WAS INTERESTING TO LEARN	024. **[3]** IT WAS A LITTLE	024. **[5]** BEGINNING OF THE	024. **[11]** THE STORY
025. **[2]** SHOWED US HOW TO INFORM	025. **[3]** GOT A LOT OF	025. **[5]** MADE SOME NOTES	025. **[11]** AT THE
026. **[2]** THIS IS A GOOD WAY	026. **[3]** WE MADE SOME NOTES	026. **[5]** WE HAD A	026. **[11]** TO TELL
027. **[2]** THE END OF THE CLASS	027. **[3]** WE LEARNED HOW TO	027. **[5]** TODAY WE LEARNED	027. **[9]** IS A
028. **[2]** MAKE A CONVERSATION WITH OUR	028. **[3]** TODAY WE LEARNED SOME	028. **[5]** HOW TO TELL	028. **[9]** FOR US
029. **[2]** THEN, WE LISTENED TO THE	029. **[3]** IS VERY USEFUL FOR	029. **[4]** IT IS VERY	029. **[9]** VERY INTERESTING
030. **[2]** WE MADE SOME NOTES AND	030. **[3]** CLASS, WE MADE A	030. **[4]** AND THEN, WE	030. **[9]** AND USEFUL
031. **[2]** SIGNAL, TIME/PLACE, OTHER BACKGROUND DETAILS	031. **[2]** IF YOU WANT TO	031. **[4]** FOR US TO	031. **[9]** SPOKEN LANGUAGE

032. **[2]** WE TOLD THE STORIES, WE	032. **[2]** LANGUAGE OF SPOKEN STORIES	032. **[4]** OUR SPOKEN ENGLISH	032. **[9]** US TO
033. **[2]** STARTING SIGNAL, TIME/PLACE, OTHER BACKGROUND	033. **[2]** WE CAN USE THESE	033. **[4]** I FOUND THAT	033. **[9]** WE STUDIED
034. **[2]** TIME/PLACE, OTHER BACKGROUND DETAILS, PROBLEM	034. **[2]** VERY USEFUL FOR US	034. **[4]** WAS ENJOYABLE AND	034. **[9]** CONVERSATION WITH
035. **[2]** USED THE WORDS WE LEARNED	035. **[2]** WE DID A LISTENING	035. **[4]** USEFUL FOR ME	035. **[9]** THEN, WE
036. **[2]** THE LAST CLASS WITH CHRIS	036. **[2]** THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN A	036. **[4]** THE CLASS, WE	036. **[8]** LEARNED SOME
037. **[2]** OF THE CLASS, WE MADE	037. **[2]** THE LAST DAY WE	037. **[4]** WE DID A	037. **[8]** LOT OF
038. **[2]** AT THE BEGINNING OF CLASS	038. **[2]** WATCHED A VIDEO ABOUT	038. **[4]** WE LISTENED A	038. **[8]** THE CONVERSATION
039. **[2]** CONVERSATION WITH OUR PARTNER ABOUT	039. **[2]** ABOUT THE SAME TOPIC	039. **[4]** AND SO ON	039. **[8]** OUR PARTNER
040. **[2]** IT IS VERY USEFUL FOR	040. **[2]** IMPROVE OUR SPOKEN ENGLISH	040. **[4]** WE MADE A	040. **[8]** A GOOD
041. **[2]** GOT A LOT OF USEFUL	041. **[2]** LAST CLASS WITH CHRIS	041. **[4]** THIS WAS ENJOYABLE	041. **[8]** THE LANGUAGE
042. **[2]** THAT IT IS VERY USEFUL	042. **[2]** THE BEGINNING OF CLASS	042. **[4]** IN ORDER TO	042. **[8]** I CAN
043. **[2]** WAS INTERESTING TO LEARN SOME	043. **[2]** THIS KIND OF ACTIVITY	043. **[4]** WE LISTENED TO	043. **[8]** I HAD
044. **[2]** THOUGH IT WAS A LITTLE	044. **[2]** THE POST OFFICE AND	044. **[4]** OUR PARTNER ABOUT	044. **[8]** WE MADE
045. **[2]** HOW TO INFORM THE AUDIENCE	045. **[2]** WE FOUND OUT THE	045. **[4]** IN THE POST	045. **[8]** THE BEGINNING
046. **[2]** CHRIS ALSO SHOWED US HOW	046. **[2]** REVIEW THE KNOWLEDGE WE	046. **[4]** THIS KIND OF	046. **[7]** FINALLY, WE
047. **[2]** REVIEW THE KNOWLEDGE WE LEARNED	047. **[2]** OUR PARTNER ABOUT THE	047. **[4]** AFTER THEN, WE	047. **[7]** THE POST
048. **[2]** LEARNED HOW TO TELL A	048. **[2]** ALSO LEARNED SOMETHING ABOUT	048. **[4]** TO TALK ABOUT	048. **[7]** I LEARNED

049. **[2]** WE LEARNED HOW TO TELL	049. **[2]** CARE ABOUT THE LANGUAGE	049. **[4]** WE LEARNED THE	049. **[7]** BEGINNING OF
050. **[2]** I TAKE PART IN CHRIS	050. **[2]** I TAKE PART IN	050. **[4]** AND 'YOU KNOW'	050. **[7]** TAUGHT US
051. **[2]** WITH OUR PARTNER ABOUT THE	051. **[2]** OUT THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN	051. **[3]** LISTENED TO THE	051. **[7]** US HOW
052. **[2]** US HOW TO INFORM THE	052. **[2]** AGAIN IN THE FUTURE	052. **[3]** OF SPOKEN STORIES	052. **[7]** THE SPOKEN
053. **[2]** IS VERY USEFUL FOR ME	053. **[2]** AND FOUND THE DIFFERENCES	053. **[3]** LEARNED HOW TO	053. **[7]** I FOUND
054. **[2]** FOUND OUT THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN	054. **[2]** OTHER BACKGROUND DETAILS, PROBLEM	054. **[3]** WAS A LITTLE	054. **[7]** SUCH AS
055. **[2]** FOR US TO IMPROVE OUR	055. **[2]** THE LAST CLASS WITH	055. **[3]** WE LEARNED TO	055. **[7]** TELL A
056. **[2]** THIS KIND OF ACTIVITY HELPS	056. **[2]** LEARNED SOMETHING ABOUT THE	056. **[3]** WORDS WE LEARNED	056. **[7]** USEFUL FOR
	057. **[2]** TO UNDERSTAND THE STORY	057. **[3]** USED IN THE	057. **[7]** I HAVE
	058. **[2]** DETAILS, PROBLEM, SOLUTION, EVALUATION	058. **[3]** ONE IS A	058. **[7]** THE DIFFERENCES
	059. **[2]** THE END OF THE	059. **[3]** TO COMMUNICATE WITH	059. **[7]** TOLD US
	060. **[2]** WE HAD A CONVERSATION	060. **[3]** TO EACH OTHER	060. **[7]** WHEN WE
	061. **[2]** LEARNED HOW TO TELL	061. **[3]** WE MADE SOME	061. **[7]** STUDIED THE
	062. **[2]** WE STUDIED THE LANGUAGE	062. **[3]** IN THE CONVERSATION	062. **[7]** WE CAN
	063. **[2]** FINALLY, WE USED THESE	063. **[3]** WAS A VERY	063. **[6]** THE WORDS
	064. **[2]** THAT'S WORDS VERY USEFUL	064. **[3]** 'WELL' AND 'YOU	064. **[6]** ABOUT COOKING
	065. **[2]** WE LISTENED TO THE	065. **[3]** THE WORDS WE	065. **[6]** AND I
	066. **[2]** I THINK I SHOULD	066. **[3]** I GOT A	066. **[6]** DIFFERENCES BETWEEN
	067. **[2]** THE CLASS, WE MADE	067. **[3]** THE LANGUAGE OF	067. **[6]** THE TEACHER
	068. **[2]** THE KNOWLEDGE WE LEARNED	068. **[3]** GOT A LOT	068. **[6]** IN ORDER
	069. **[2]** CHRIS TOLD US A	069. **[3]** SOME VOCABULARIES ABOUT	069. **[6]** UNDERSTAND THE

	070. **[2]** FOR US TO IMPROVE	070. **[3]** TO UNDERSTAND THE	070. **[6]** THE DIALOGUE
	071. **[2]** WAS INTERESTING TO LEARN	071. **[3]** THE TOPIC OF	071. **[6]** TO PRACTICE
	072. **[2]** THEN, WE LISTENED TO	072. **[3]** THE SAME TOPIC	072. **[6]** WHAT'S MORE
	073. **[2]** KIND OF ACTIVITY HELPS	073. **[3]** WE DISCUSSED THE	073. **[6]** THE DISCOURSE
	074. **[2]** THE LANGUAGE OF SPOKEN	074. **[3]** WITH OUR CLASSMATES	074. **[6]** CAN USE
	075. **[2]** TAKE PART IN CHRIS	075. **[3]** WITH OUR PARTNERS	075. **[6]** HAD A
	076. **[2]** SHOWED US HOW TO	076. **[3]** THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN	076. **[6]** FOR ME
	077. **[2]** TO DO SOME LISTENING	077. **[3]** THEN, WE LISTENED	077. **[6]** SOME NOTES
	078. **[2]** TO COOK FOR ME	078. **[3]** TO LEARN SOME	078. **[6]** 'YOU KNOW'
	079. **[2]** TOLD THE STORIES, WE	079. **[3]** CLASS IS VERY	079. **[6]** KIND OF
	080. **[2]** COMMENTARY FROM JAMIE OLIVER	080. **[3]** RECIPE IN ORDER	080. **[6]** NATIVE SPEAKER
	081. **[2]** END OF THE CLASS	081. **[3]** IT WAS A	081. **[6]** WAS A
	082. **[2]** THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE	082. **[3]** IN THE FUTURE	082. **[6]** IN A
	083. **[2]** TO REVIEW THE KNOWLEDGE	083. **[3]** WE CAN USE	083. **[6]** TO COOK
	084. **[2]** BACKGROUND DETAILS, PROBLEM, SOLUTION	084. **[3]** A NATIVE SPEAKER	084. **[6]** TALK ABOUT
	085. **[2]** WORDS VERY USEFUL FOR	085. **[3]** TO SAY THE	085. **[6]** DID A
	086. **[2]** HOW TO INFORM THE	086. **[3]** YOU WANT TO	086. **[6]** DID SOME
	087. **[2]** FOUND OUT THE DIFFERENCES	087. **[3]** TAUGHT US HOW	087. **[6]** CLASS, WE
	088. **[2]** WE MAKE A CONVERSATION	088. **[3]** THEN WE DID	088. **[6]** A VERY
	089. **[2]** INTERESTING TO LEARN SOME	089. **[3]** CHRIS TAUGHT US	089. **[5]** CLASS IS
	090. **[2]** THAT IT IS VERY	090. **[3]** MAKE A CONVERSATION	090. **[5]** WE ALSO

091. **[2]** MADE SOME NOTES AND	091. **[3]** ABOUT THE LANGUAGE	091. **[5]** THE LAST
092. **[2]** MAKE A CONVERSATION WITH	092. **[3]** WE LEARNED HOW	092. **[5]** THIS WAS
093. **[2]** THEN WE LISTENED A	093. **[3]** CHRIS TOLD US	093. **[5]** AND YOU
094. **[2]** THE SPOKEN LANGUAGE AND	094. **[3]** SOMETHING ABOUT THE	094. **[5]** THIS IS
095. **[2]** EVERYONE A PAPER OF	095. **[3]** CLASS, WE MADE	095. **[5]** TO EACH
096. **[2]** THOUGH IT WAS A	096. **[3]** LEARNED SOME VOCABULARIES	096. **[5]** THE VIDEO
097. **[2]** TIME/PLACE, OTHER BACKGROUND DETAILS	097. **[3]** TOLD US A	097. **[5]** ABLE TO
098. **[2]** THE WRITTEN DIALOGUES WE	098. **[3]** THE SPOKEN DISCOURSE	098. **[5]** HAVE A
099. **[2]** US TO IMPROVE OUR	099. **[3]** I HAD TO	099. **[5]** OFFICE AND
100. **[2]** IT WAS INTERESTING TO	100. **[3]** A VERY INTERESTING	100. **[5]** WE SHOULD

Appendix 9 Transcription conventions and focus group transcripts (main study)

Transcription conventions (based on Carter, R. (2004) *Language and Creativity:The Art of Common Talk.* Oxon: Routledge).

Transcription convention	Symbol	Explanation
Speaker code	< S 00>, <S 01>	Each speaker is numbered. <S 00> is the researcher.
Interrupted sentence	+	This symbol indicates an overlap by another speaker.
Backchannel	( )	Backchannel is indicated within a speaker's turn, e.g. <S 01>: That's a good idea (<S 02>: Right) yes we'll do that. Other comments are also indicated in this way when they are within a speaker's turn, e.g. <S 01>: the way we think is (<S 02>: The way of thinking) different.
Unfinished words	=	When a speaker changes course within a word or turn it is marked as follows ' I go=have been there.
Punctuation	., ?,	Full stops or question marks are used to indicate the end of an utterance. Commas are used to indicate repetition and false starts e.g. 'I, I, I went there'.
Inaudible utterances	Inaudible	Where the word or phrase was impossible to determine, it is replaced with the word 'inaudible'.

Transcript of III focus group

Learner errors have not been corrected.

<S 00>: OK, so we've just finished the study and we did ten hours on the study. Erm, first question is just could you explain your general thoughts about what we did in the class. Anybody like to start? Any general thoughts?

<S 01>: Err, [inaudible] it's err, different from speaking English and writing English (< S 00>: OK) and some discourse marks.

<S 00>: OK, (<S 01: [laughs]) OK.

<S 03>: I think it's useful in daily, some sentence (< S 00>: Right), yes, it's useful.

<S 00>: OK, you mean in like, in daily life?

<S 03>: Yeah.

<S 00>: OK. What about other people, any general thoughts?

<S 06>: Some English is different than like err Chinese people, Chine=we call Chinese English 'Chinglish '(<S 03>: Chinglish) [laughter] +

<S 00>: [Laughs] OK, right, so it's different. Right. (<S 06>: [inaudible] can help the UK for us).

<S 04>: Different style. (<S 00> : Uh huh) different style, the speaking ,the speaking style and the writing style it's like 'umm' , 'well', that's what.

<S 00>: Right, OK, so things are, things= you noticed that was different.

<S 04>: Yeah. The style I know different.

<S 05>: And we learned about err, how to speak err, natural or write normal and err, find something about err, speak lang err, speak language or writing language is different.

<S 00>: OK.

<S 02>: We've learned some very useful words (<S 00>: Uh huh) of err travelling and how to ask people's plan and err, how to cook [laughter].

<S 00>: Yeah. I can't actually teach you how to cook but [laughter] +

<S 02>: The words of how to +

<S 00>: OK, I see what you mean. So, can I just back to <S 06>'s point? You were saying about, 'oh we looked at the language and it was different' and you called it err, Chinglish, Chinese English you said and you all kind of laughed. What, what= can you say a bit more about that?

<S 06>: Err, for example (<S 00>: Yeah) err, 'I love you', err, Chinese sometimes say 'I really love you' [laughter].

<S 00>: OK.

<S 06>: English people say 'I love you very much'.

<S 00>: OK, so the diff= do you mean like the way, OK, so the+

<S 06>: Chinese thinking (<S 05>: Thinking is different, <S 02>: The way of Chinese thinking), (<S 00: OK) +

<S 03>: Sometimes we say in English the means is by the Chinese but err, in England it's very different.

<S 00>: Hmm, OK, could you give any examples of that, or..?

<S 03>: It's very difficult+

<S 00>: Yeah, OK+

<S 05>: I think that our English and languages follow our mind, the Chinese mind, just for this. So our English is like the Chinglish, (<S 00>: Hmm) just follow our Chinese mind, Chinese idea (<S 00>: Hmm).

<S 03>: We often = the sentence is by Chinese not by English (<S00>: OK) so, sometimes you =it's very different to know where our means.

<S 00>: OK, yes, I understand what you mean (<S 03>: Yeah) yes, OK. Do you mean you sort of you think it in Chinese first and (<S 03 >: Yeah, yeah, yeah, <S 01>, < S 03>, <S 06> : And transfer, translate in English) +

<S 00>: Right, OK, OK. Right, yeah, so, it must be very different [laughter].OK, erm, do you think that the language we focussed on is useful to you?

<S 03>, <S 02>, <S 01>, <S 04>: Yeah.

<S 00>: OK, can you say why, anybody?

<S 01>: Err, erm, we often ask somebody but I don't know how to start it. So, then 'so' you can start discuss or chatting with others.

<S 00>: OK.

<S 02>: We can talk to other in informal way, informal ways rather than use the writing sty= writing words, the written words (<S 00>: Uh huh) in daily chatting.

<S 00>: Hmm, OK, OK.

<S 04>: Maybe there is some words is get two speaker more closely [inaudible]'you know' and maybe like we know each other very well.

<S 00>: OK, so you mean it's more, do you mean it's (<S 04>: More, more, more frien= friendship), OK (<S 01: More close, <S 03>: Close the English), right, OK, OK.

<S 00>: What about other people, what did you think? Do you agree with them or do you have different ideas or..?

<S 06>: Err, I have a err funny experience, err, about four days ago, I go to the fish market (<S 00>: OK) buy something (<S 00>:Uh huh) and I have learned some words from the class so I know 'bean', B- E- A- N +

<S 01>, <S 03>: Bean+

<S 00>: +'Bean' yes, OK [laughter].

<S 06>: +So I can err, communicate with the person (<S 04>: Salesman) who can sales for us+

<S 00>: OK, alright, OK. So you could use it outside the class a little bit? +

<S 06>: Yeah+

<S 03>: I think it's useful than other class because in other class it's, always, always there's some professional knowledge but in your class is useful in daily.

<S 00>: Right, OK, OK. Erm, do you think the language we focussed on is difficult to learn?

<S 01>: No.

<S 04>: I don't know, I, I think it's very easy (<S 03>: Yeah, <S 00>: Easy), and like, natural, we just speak out and don't know.

<S 06>: I think it's easy to learn but easy to forgot it [laughter].

<S 00>: OK, can you say why? Why is it easy to learn and easy to forget?

<S 06>: Because, err, err, for example, some, some words you must err, use many times, (<S 00>: Uh huh) you can remember it but some time, some new words you can =you didn't use it for many times so err, you will forget soon.

<S 00>: OK, yes, OK. What about the rest of you, what do you think?

<S 02>: I agree with him err, because some words are not so frequently used (<S 00>: Uh huh) err, some noun words are, for example, err, I still remind that in the class we've learnt, err, some words of sports.

<S 01>, <S 03>, <S 04>: Sports? +

<S 02>: Sports [*says in Chinese*].

<S 00>: Oh yeah, sports. (<S 03>: Sports). Like, for example? +

<S 01>: Bungee jumping (<S 00>: Oh, bungee jumping? [laughter], OK, yes).

<S 00>: Yes, OK but they're not = you don't use them very much (<S 05, <S 06>: yeah) +

<S 02>: So we forget very quickly [laughter] +

<S 00>: OK, so <S 04> you said 'oh no, it's very easy'.

<S 04>: I, I, Yeah.

<S 00>: Easy to learn?

<S 04>: Easy to learn.

<S 00>: Right+

<S 01>: But hard to use.

<S 0>: OK, say more about that.

<S 01>: Err, for example we often talk, umm, I don't often use 'anyway', or 'you know', 'I mean' that and it's difficult to put in my sentence.

<S 00>: Right, OK, so you can understand it?

<S 01>: But I don't use it.

<S 00>: OK, are you the same < S 05>?

<S 05>: I think that there are a lot of words can't use, can't find in China like 'TV licence'. Err, you know, in Chinese post office can't=we don't need a TV licence [laughter] +

<S 04>: But he just, he just say 'you know' [laughter] +

<S 05>: And it's the first time we happened this word and err, maybe in China we don't use this word and don't need this word (<S 00>: Hmm) so err, in the life we just err use maybe once, just used in the class (<S 00>: Yes) and in really life we don't need this word and so we must err, try to remember, try to (<S 06>: Practise), yeah.

<S 00>: OK, so, err, <S 01> said, it's, I wonder what you think about this when she said 'oh it's easy to know all the discourse markers, ''well'', ''you know'' etc but difficult to use them'. What do you think? +

<S 03>: Because very natural we like to speak Chinese, yeah.

<S 06>: Chinese people all shy.

<S 00>: OK, but when you're speaking English I mean, is it difficult? +

<S 03>: Just in the class we spoke English (<S 00>: Right, OK) yes we always say, speak Chinese (<S 00>: when you're outside of the class you mean?) with my friend, yes (<S 00>: Right, OK, OK).

<S 00>: OK, erm, but when you are using English, do you think it's difficult to use them?

<S 03>: No.

<S 00>: No, not for you.

<S 03>: Sometimes, in some emergency times [laughter] I feel I have, err, it's, very err =I know many English words in that time.

<S 00>: OK, OK.

<S 03>: Yes.

<S 00>: OK, let's move on. Erm, do you think the way we studied in class was useful to you?

<S 03>: Yes, but I, I, thin =I have err a comment is we can go out, outside the class to learn something, yeah, just like go to the mall to learn how to (<S 01>, <S 02>: Shopping, <S 04>: Yeah) (<S 00>: OK), it's close to the life (<S 06>: chatting) +

<S 00>: Yes, OK, OK+

<S 04>: I agree with this point and I also have suggestion , maybe, the most of the time you do one exercise and do it again and do it again and translate to English and translate to Chinese, it's very boring , I don't want to do that (<S 00>: Right) because , we do it again some words we remember that and do again and most of words I remember that and translate to English err, I can (<S 03>: Just a job, it's not very easy to remember it).

<S 00>: Hmm, OK.Is that because you've done a lot of translation in the past?

<S 01>: Yeah.

<S 04>: It's very boring translate and translate and translate, translate (<S 00>: Right) take too much time.

<S 05>: You can have some game.

<S 00>: Yes, OK. Can you think of erm, OK so you =the suggestion for other activities is to practise something in class and then go outside the class (<S 03>: Yeah) and practise it, that's an interesting one, good suggestion I think. What about in the class, can you give an example of a method or activity which was useful to you, maybe something we did or an activity we did or..?

<S 03>: Watch some movies or go out to do some activities.

<S 00>: Yes, OK, you're keen on going out! [laughter]+

<S 03>: I don't like in class.

< S 00>: It's OK, it's a good suggestion I think but what about I'm asking about sorry, what we actually did (<S 03>: Actually did?) what we actually did in class, can you think of maybe a method or an activity which you felt was useful to you?

<S 02>: I enjoyed the way of talking err, just like brainstorming, everyone can speak freely (S 01>: Yeah).

<S 00>: OK, OK.

<S 01>: And student activity to speak, speaking English and err, discuss (<S 00>: OK) but sometimes we don't like to discuss [laughter] +

<S 00>: No, OK, OK, no, I understand that. OK, what about other people?

< S 04>: In class you mean, maybe we could have role-play, role-play (<S 00>: A Role-play?, <S 01> :Role-play, <S 00> : OK) yeah, we can, I can, we should, we should talk to each other and like play game, and role-play it's very, I think it's quite interesting .

<S 00>: Hmm, OK.

<S 06>: I think besides game, something, some other else we can also chatting (<S 00>: Yes) Chinese people all like chatting (<S 00>: OK, yes) [laughter].

<S 04>: And we can someone to play the salesman and other, another provider and that is useful and (<S 00>: Hmm) inside to go out.

<S 00>: Oh, and then go outside and practise it, you mean?

<S 04>: Yeah.

<S 00>: OK, OK, OK, erm, I mean other activities we did, we did, OK, we translated from, for example from English to Chinese, sorry from English to Chinese and Chinese back to English err, we compared quite a lot, written and spoken language and we compared, err, I asked you to

think about your English compared to the model, your language compared to the tape or your language compared to the thing. What are your thoughts about that?

<S 01>: Two different language (<S 00>: OK) and I think if I, if I transfer the Chinese to English (S 00>:Yes) and err ,does work because a lot of words would be missing (<S 00>:Yes) and err, if I speak English, I think I should think about English (<S 00>:OK) don't Chinese (<S 00> Right, OK).

<S 04>: The problem I translate to English is the grammar (<S 01>: [inaudible], < S 00>: Sure) I know the word but I don't know but I don't know how to link to get the, err, maybe the one sentence have three or four grammar mistake.

<S 00>: OK. Yeah, I mean the purpose of that was to, to get you to think about the differences between in your case Chinese and English, not to sort of make you translate, try to, as a strategy (<S 01>: Yeah) but to think about the differences between the languages because I guess, as you said to me, you're translating anyway [laughter] I guess, I don't know, tell me if I'm wrong. Anyway, that's fine, that's interesting. What about other things I said I asked you to translate, I asked you to compare written and spoken language, I asked you to compare your English, compared to like a model and think about the differences. What did you think about that?

<S 02>: We do some, erm, practical events (<S 00>: Hmm) erm, you have give us some travelling lists that we could decide which countries we, err not which countries but which cities we want to travel. That's very interesting.

<S 00>: OK.

<S 02>: And beside that (inaudible) besides, err, we've learned lots of words from video (<S 00>: Yeah, <S 02>: Jamie, <S 00>: [laughs] Alright, OK, from Jamie Oliver?)

<S 04>: Who is Jamie?

<S 02>, <S 06>: Co=Cook, cooking.

<S 00>: Yeah, alright, OK. So you found it useful to compare (<S 02>: To learn from the video) to learn from the video.

<S 00>: Right, OK, OK. What did the rest = what did you, what did you guys think about = you're not = you didn't like translation. That's fine. What about you? What do you think?

<S 06>: I don't like translate but if I want to speak English my mind I must err, first err, receive the information (<S 00>: Uh huh) translate in my mind and then to speak out. So, it's err, waste err much time and it's difficult for...

<S 00>: OK, OK, OK. Interesting. Umm, do you think that the lessons helped you to use the language we studied or do you just think you would have just learnt it by being in England anyway?

<S 04>: Can you repeat your question again?

<S 00>: Yeah, do you think the lessons that we had helped you to use the language, use it (<S01>, <S 03>: Use) or do you think, well, maybe I would have just learned it by being in England anyway?

<S 03>: It's help.

<S 00>: OK, can you say a bit about why or how?

<S 03>: Err, just like the lesson about the cook (<S 00>: OK) there's some verb is, err, we don't know in the past time (<S 00>: OK) yes, because we come here, we need to cook everyday (<S 00>: [laughs]) so we can use in really life.

<S 00>: OK, OK. What about the rest of you? My question is really do you think the lessons helped you to use the language or do you think, well, maybe you would have learnt it by just being in England anyway?

<S05>: Err, it think it's helpful because err, when I speak English now I usually use 'you know' 'anyway',' I think', something, I think it's err, really err, like really English, not Chinglish.

<S 00>: OK, what about others, what do you think?

<S 01>: Err, it's very useful and when you chatting with others (<S 00>: Uh huh) and err, I can use the word. Err, watch the movies or listen to the radios we can see the, err, speaking English is quite simple, not I thought.

<S 00>: Right, OK.

<S 02>: I think I'm interested in UK, UK England (<S 00>:OK) because err, we've still, we still haven't transferred the err, the way of thinking , English people's thinking so, err, some words that I was try to put in our sentence, was really really very hard [laughter] (<S 00>:Right).

<S 04>: To be honest, some word I will, some word I will use and some I will not use. For example like the sport and the roll =what is [*says in Chinese*] (<S 00>: English please).The spotlight in the chain and 'rrr rrr rrr' and what, roll...(<S 01>: Go on a roller...) (<S 00>: Ah, go, go on a rollercoaster?) Yeah I will not use because I never [laughter] do this (<S 00>: You've never been on a, you're not interested, right) yeah yeah so I will not use this one. And some words I will use 'erm', 'well', 'you know' and I will use frequently.

<S 00>: OK. So, do you think the lessons will help you to use them or do you think you would have learnt that in England anyway, just by listening maybe?

<S 03>: It helps (<S 04 >: Helps) +

<S 00>: It helps? OK. Can you say a bit more because that's what I'm interested in.

<S 03>: Because we just arrived UK one month so we need more useful English (<S 00>: OK) to help us to life in living here (<S 00>: OK, OK).

<S 00>: OK, thanks, OK. The next question is quite similar but a little bit different. It's, do you think the lessons helped you to, not to use but do you think the lessons helped you to understand the language better, the language that we studied better or do you think again you would have just learnt this by living in the UK anyway? So, first question was do you think it helped you to use it, second question was do you think it helped you to understand so it's slightly different. What do you think?

<S 01>: Erm, err, I think both have useful, err, I can understand them and err, they can understand me (<S 00>: OK). I live with foreigner people(<S 00>: Oh, right, OK) yes, err, sometimes they don't know what I'm mean and if I use the 'I mean', I can explain it so it can understand.

<S 00>: OK, and can you understand them, can you understand the language that they're using? (<S 01>: Yeah), OK.

<S 06>: I think it's very useful for us because err, because of you! [laughter] why, because you are an English man (<S 00>: Right) we always communicate with Chinese people (<S 00>: Sure) in English but err, different habits err, but diff = we, during, between err two err coun=the person of two countries (<S 00>: Sure, yes) so, wha=we can we can, we can understand err, each other easily but err, first time when I talk with you it's hard to understand (<S 01>:Understand,<S 00>: Right , OK) so I think you help us.

<S 04>: The more you listen, the more you can understand [laughter] (<S 00>: Right).Yeah it's useful (<S 00>: OK, in the lessons?) yeah (<S 00>: Right) +

<S 03 :> In daily we watch the err, movie it helps. They have some Chinese to help translate the English (<S 00>: Sure) but that day we watched the Jamie's movie, err, I feel sometimes I can got the means, yeah.

<S 00>: Yeah, and there's no translation.

<S 03>: Yeah, yeah, yeah. And the= some sentence is erm, Jamie's is very short (<S 00>: Yes) but the means is very clearly (<S 00>: Uh huh) yeah+

<S 04>: You know sometime, sometimes we catch other people's say is point, you know, you know how to we get this point, we catch the key point (<S 00>: Uh huh) key word (<S 00>: Sure) but Jamie say some is technical word, we don't know so we don't understand (<S 06 >: Understand, <S03>: It's difficult).

<S 00>: Yes, but you felt you could understand that. OK, good. Erm, let's move on. Erm, OK, next question. In our group we didn't really do much practice of the language. What I mean is, I didn't, for example, make you use the language, I didn't make you repeat, I didn't say 'right OK, everybody you've got to say, ''you know, you know, you know''' or I didn't give you a little practice and say 'OK, when you talk to each other you must use this one this one' I didn't make you do that. OK, we didn't do any practice of the language. Erm, do you have any comments about that?

<S 06>: I think maybe this method may be [*says in Chinese*] (<S 02>, <S 04>: Suitable) suit for Chinese people because we like this method (<S 00>: Uh huh).

<S 00>: Can you say a bit more? +

<S 06>: Err, when we when we are, when we were at err, in junior, junior school, high school,(<S 00>: Uh huh>) we always ,teacher always tell us how to do this err, make, err, do this, do this advertise [inaudible] and so on. We always practise it (<S 00>: Uh huh) so I think that Chinese people like this method (<S 00>: Practice you mean?) yeah practice (<S 00>: Uh huh).

<S 00>: OK, but we didn't, I didn't make you practise, right.

<S 04>: You can put this err you can put this err, put 'you mean' in the really situation (<S 00>: Uh huh) and then you can use it, you can (<S 06>: Sometimes you can use without practice).

<S 00>: OK, so that's what I'm interested in, I didn't really make you practise, I didn't say to you , 'OK, you and you together, this is what you have to do, ''you are A'' , ''you are B'' and

then in this practice you have to use these discourse markers', I didn't say, for example, 'you must repeat'+

<S 04>: Maybe you can assumption that situation you must use, assumption.

<S 00>: OK, so what do you=what are you saying, what do you think?

<S 04>: Maybe you say 'you mean' and you can, you can assumption that, that I expect you know I should use 'you mean', expect you know.

<S 00>: Just because you understand it?

<S 04>: Yeah

<S 00>: And I've explained it?

<S 04>: Umm.

<S 00>: Right, what do the others think?

<S 02>: The way of err, the way of teaching is not boring.

<S 00>: No, no, no, no, no, no I'm not saying that, that's fine I don't, I'm not interested in whether it's interesting or boring [laughter], I'm really interested in what you thought and was it effective or not I suppose. Yes, go on, a little bit more.

<S 02>: Sorry, can you repeat the question?

<S 00>: Yes, OK. Erm, in the group we didn't do really any practice of the language. OK, I didn't make you , for example, I didn't make you repeat the language, I didn't put you into a pair and say 'OK you need to have this conversation and you need to use , I don't know, three discourse markers and you need to use three discourse markers' OK? We talked about the language, I helped you to understand the language, sometimes you translated the language but I never said to you , 'you must use the language or you must use it or '' OK right, everybody

repeat''' for example. We didn't do any of that kind of practice in the class so my question was do you have any comment about that. What would you like to say?

<S 01>:Err, I think , some more practice must be fair [Laughter] (<S 00>: [Laughs] OK, yeah) because I always forget some discourse marks (<S 00>:Sure) and err, I don't know how to put in my mind and if I practise it can be more useful in the daily life.

<S 00>: OK, yeah, OK, what about other people?

<S 03>: Just like you give me some conversation, you can ask me to spoke the conversation (<S 00>: Yes, OK) yes because just like 'any plan this weekend?' we just say 'any plan this weekend?' [*flat intonation*] not 'any plan this weekend?'[*rising intonation*] it's different (<S 00>: Yes, OK) .We want to learn some local English (<S 00>: Sure) yeah +

<S 00>: OK, OK. So you mean to say you would like to practise it?

<S 03>: Yes.

<S 00>: OK, OK. Some things [laughter] maybe not everything, right+

<S 04>: Because it's very interesting (<S 00>: Yeah) we interest (<S 00>: Yeah).

<S 00>: OK, what about +

<S 05>: I think it's a new way to study English. You know, in China, teacher likes to practise English (<S 00>: Hmm), for example err, 'this is A, this is B' then they err, practise each other and err, maybe five times (<S 03>: But the teacher also is Chinese so it's same with us).

<S 00>: Right, OK (<S 03>: Yes) +

<S 05>: But I think it's a useful way to remember this sentence or this words (<S 00>: If you practise you mean?) yeah +

<S 06>: And we have about ten years' experience so lot of practice.

<S 00>: Sure, sure.

<S 02>: I don't like the way of practise again, again (<S 06>: Something, <S 03>: Sometime, <S 06>: Something, sometimes) +

<S 00>: Just sometimes? OK. When I interviewed some, a student before, similar study, erm, he said it doesn't = if erm , he said if the students are adults and you are all young adults then you don't need to practise in class, you can practise outside of class (<S 03>: Oh), it's up to you. That's just what he said, that's his opinion, he wasn't a Chinese student (<S 06>: No, it's a good idea).

<S 02>: Teacher can teach us the methods of learning (<S 00>: Mmm) then we can learn it ourselves.

<S 00>: What do you think about his comment? 'Cos he was a student, international student but he was living in the UK like you, same situation and that's what he said. I just wonder what you thought 'cos I = when he said that to me I was very surprised.

<S 03>: But just I think he also is sometimes just with the foreign student (<S 00>: Sure) not with the same country's student (<S 00>: Right), yeah.

<S 01>: He can practise it many times [laughter].

<S 04>: We live err, we live with the Chinese people (<S 00>: Hmm) so we, every day we say Chinese, we haven't opportunity to, to practise (<S 00>: OK) because Chinese people is, many many Chinese people in this country.

<S 00>: Sure sure, OK+

<S 01>: So, you should go outside and meeting other countries' people [laughter] +

<S 04>:Even I go outside to dinner and the dinner is opened by the Chinese people (<S 00: [laughs]).When I order the food it's all err, delivered, delivery the staff is also Chinese people.

<S 00>: Sure, yeah, sometimes not always but yes I understand+

<S 04>: Most of the time is Chinese people +

<S 00>: Yes, I understand what you mean, I understand, right, OK. OK, so you're saying you need to practise in class because maybe you don't get a chance outside class?

<S 06>: And we also have a reason why we need to practise in class (<S 00>: Yeah) err, you know err, in Chinese, teacher teaches knowledge (<S 00>: Yeah) for students and students practise but in a special time err, Chinese students err, not always practise (<S 00>: OK), maybe you can say 'lazy'! So, so always the teachers err, err, told us practise in the class.

<S 00>: OK.

<S 02>: I can see it didn't mean we don't need practice we, actually we need some more fresh creative, creativity err, creative and interesting practice.

<S 00>: OK, alright, OK, OK. Right, I think that's everything. Erm, do you, do you have any final comments about the lessons that we did?

<S 03>: Useful.

< S 04>: Most, more speaking and less the writing [laughter] that's my comment.

<S 00>: OK.

<S 01>: I think we can get with other countries' (<S 00>: Uh huh) student and have a class.

<S 00>: Right, yes (<S 03>: I think we need to mix the student).

<S 00>: Yes, yeah.

<S 03>: Because we always Chinese student.

<S 06>: We need communication, communicate with English (<S 00>: Oh yeah, or other nationalities, yeah).

<S 02>: I think we need more cultural communication, (<S 06>: Yeah) cultural communication

<S 00>: You mean with different (<S 04>: Cross culture).

<S 06>: Speaking habits different (<S 00>: Yes, of course, very different, yes).

<S 00>: OK.

<S 05>: I think we need more communication with English people (<S 00>: Uh huh) not Chinese people so, I think it's helpful to our English (<S 00>: Hmm).

<S 00>: OK.

<S 02>: Yeah, more interaction is better.

<S 00>: What interaction with people from other countries or?

<S 02>: Err, yeah.

<S 00>: Right, OK yes.

<S 01>: So we can, we can say that different countries 'people speaking English have some different ways.

<S 00>: Yes, absolutely, yeah of course, yes. Lots of big differences, you know, even though it's not their first language, first language either of course there are differences, yeah, absolutely. OK, alright, thank you very much.

Transcript of PPP focus group

Learner errors not corrected

<S 00>: OK, so we've just finished the study, we've just had the ten hours of classes that you had. Erm, could you explain your general thoughts about it?

<S 01>: It's interesting (<S 00>: OK) and err, and...[laughter]

<S 02>: The biscuits are delicious! [laughter]

<S 00>: Uh huh.

<S 03>: And it's very useful.

<S 02>: Yeah

<S 06>: Improve my, our spoken language (<S 00>: Uh huh) and learn a lot of, err, discourse marker, yeah.

<S 00>: OK.

<S 05>: Err, I think the discourse marks we learned from your class is useful because why in communicate with foreigner [inaudible] I always say, 'right, right' I tried [laughter] quite like the local people, so.

<S 04>: Yes, err, specific words is for us is very useful I think.

<S 00>: All right. OK, can you say a bit more about why, why is it useful, then?

<S 03>: You always talk about your daily life. For example how do you cook or how to plan your trip to some place. (<S 06>: Yeah) it's just what we'd do.

<S 04>: It's not a concept, concept, concept.

<S 00>: OK, you mean not, not a, not a+

<S 05>: A kind of academic study.

<S 00>: OK. No, it wasn't academic English (<S 03> Yes, <S 06>: Yes), it's not meant to be, it's not meant to be academic English, (<S 06>: Yes) no. OK, so, do you mean, <S 04> that it's something more like concrete and not, do you mean it's not abstract?

<S 03 >, <S 06>: Yes.

<S 04>: Yeah, yeah, yeah+

<S 00>: Is that what you mean or am I interpreting?

<S 03>: No, no, no.

<S 04>: Is specific.

<S 00>: Specific, right OK.

<S 02>: More close to life.

<S 00>: OK.

<S 01>: But, err, the course, I, I think it's too short. [laughter]

<S 00>: Yeah, that's because of the, the, the study+

<S 01>: Because we can learn a whole year on this.

<S 03>: I think you can actually take us to some places, for example take us to the supermarket and you act what we learn, yeah that, that's more vivid.

<S 00>: Erm, OK, OK, so something = that's something you would have liked to have done.

<S 03>: And, and you don't have to pay to go to get in to the supermarket [laughter] so that's very+

<S 02>: And you can bring some native, (<S 03>: Yes.) native English people+

<S 03>: For example you can cook and tell us how to cook. [laughter] +

<S 01>: I, I'm just going to mention now it's really, really, really, really uncomfortable, for us, to talk in English.

<S 00>: Hmm.

<S 06>: Yeah.

<S 00>: You mean to each other or generally?

<S 01>, <S 03>, <S 06>: Chinese people (<S 03>: Talking to Chinese people) +

<S 01>: Talking to each other in English.

<S 04>: Yeah, it's weird. (<S 03>: It's weird, it's very weird).

<S 05>: But if you're used to try adopt it will be fine because I tried.

<S 01>: I don't think it's, I don't think it's+.

<S 03>: I don't think Chinese people is going to talk English with Chinese people+

<S 01>: Cantonese people talking Cantonese and Shaghainese people talk Shainghainese(S 03>: Yeah, Shanghainese people talk Shanghainese) talking Chinese+

<S 04>: Because the English can't express the many Chinese words, you know+

<S 03>: But if you bring more international students here to our class, (<S 01>, <S 05>: Yes , yes) then that will be, be fine. (<S 00>: Sure, sure, sure) and you take us to the actual place and we will talk in English. For example, you told us how to talk to the butcher, we will talk in English, yes but we talk to Chinese we'll talk in Chinese, yes (<S 04 >: Yes).

<S 00>: Right+

<S 03>: Yes+

<S 01>: And that annoyed Guy Kilty+

<S 03>: Yes [laughter] he always said that we are speaking English, speaking Chinese.

<S 05>: He thought it too rude to him+

<S 03>: Yeah+

<S 00>: Yeah, yeah. Well, I suppose you're, you're in England, (<S 03>: Yes) so,and you want to learn. OK, all right, I see. Erm, we'll come back to some of those ideas (<S 01>: Yeah, yeah) in a moment they're really interesting actually but so, just to repeat then, so do, do you think the language the language we focussed on is useful to you?

<S 03>: Yes+

< S01>, <S 03>, <S 04>: It's useful(<S 06>, <S 04>:Very useful).

<S 00>: OK, all right. Do you think the language we focussed on is difficult to learn?

<S 01>, <S02>, <S 03>, <S 04>, <S 05>, < S 06>: No.

<S 00>: Why not?

<S 04>: Why?+

<S 03>: It's daily life (<S 06>: Yeah) it's just daily life.

<S 02>: Because we're interested in it we want to learn it +

<S 04>: Yes, we just need time to remember these words.

<S 00>: [laughs] OK+

<S 03>: Yes but don't like the academic study we know this we won't use it in daily life, so we'll just forget it. (<S 00>: Right) Yes, the thing you teached is very useful, so we try to remember everything.

<S 04>: Yeah.

<S 00>: So you don't+

<S 05>: In daily life, in daily life, we use it regularly.

<S 00>: OK, so do you mean because you use it regularly, it's easy to learn?

<S 04>: Yes+

<S 05>: Practice (<S 03>: Makes perfect, yes).

<S 02>: And no test, exam (<S 03>: Yes) [laughter]

<S 00>: No, there's no te, well, there was a little speaking test, but it's not, it's not a strict exam (<S 03>: Yes), yes, OK, all right. Erm, do you think the way that we studied in the class was useful to you?

<S 01>: Except that part we talk to each other+

<S 03>: Yes, I think the mini-conversation is a little weird.

<S 01>: Yeah, yeah.

<S 04>: It need improve.

<S 00>: So, can you explain what you mean a bit more?

<S 03>: Because, err, you, you, for example you choose one man to talk another girl and just ask what's your best or worst holiday. (<S 00>: Sure), it's kind of, erm, no Chinese say, nobody in China ask this question and, I, it's kind of weird.

<S 00>: Is that you= so you mean sometimes the topic?

<S 03>: Yes, yes.

<S 06>: Sometimes (<S 00>: OK) a little bit strange to us+ (<S 03>: Yes).

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<S 00>: To you, right. Is that a cultural (<S 04>: Yeah.) difference? Do you think so?

<S 04>: Cultural difference (<S 05>: Yes, I think so).

<S 00>: What do you think?

<S 06>: Err, maybe the culture is different and (<S 00>: Sure, yeah).

<S 05>: When we talk about tourist, er, we may ask where you go to a tra,tra= go for a holiday (<S 00>: Yeah.) and, how about it. (<S 00>: Yes)+

<S 03>: No one remembers the most or the worst, yeah, (<S 04>: Yeah) of the holiday. [laughter] we never remember. (<S 05>: We never compare).

<S 04>: We never compare, just the holiday.

<S 03>: Yes, we just, err, (<S 05>: Just tell, tell about it, never compare) +

<S 00>: Right, OK.

<S 01>: And, and the greetings, you know, err, like+

<S 03>: Yeah! 'What are you going to do this weekend?' (<S 01>: Yeah [laughter] it's weird) +

<S 01>: I just don't know how to answer it, you know, 'I had a good evening'. So, w,w,what should I answer? [laughter]

<S 03>, <S 04>: Yeah.

<S 05>: When we meet on the road, we just ask, erm 'have you eaten?' (<S 03>: 'Have you eaten?' Yes) 'Do you have dinner?', or something like this (<S 00>: Yeah, OK, OK).

<S 01>: Sometimes it's, sometimes it's just simply 'Hi, hi', it's OK, it's done+

<S 00>: Yes, yes, of course sometimes that happens here [laughter] not always. But people do chat about their weekend here.

<S 01>, <S 03>: Yeah.+

<S 05>: Right, but, but we are now in the UK (<S 00>: Sure) I think we should be+

<S 01>: Yeah, yeah, we should learn that (<S 05>: We should have, <S 01>: We should get used to it) +

<S 03>: And, I think you should probably add some, erm, culture background into the conversation.

<S 00>: OK could you explain about that? +

<S 03>: Yes, for example you should mention that this weekend topic is very popular in the UK and maybe we will learn it, yes (<S 05>: Right).

<S 00>: Oh, OK, OK+

<S 03>: Yes, you can't just bring, bring the topic and tell us to practice it but don't tell us why we should to practice this topic.

<S 00>: Oh, OK , all right, yeah OK, so be more explicit (<S 03>: Yeah) about the cultural (<S 03>: Yes) difference, right, OK, hmm. Can you give, any of you, give an example of one method or one activity we did in the class which was, you think, useful to you in some way?

<S 06>: Yeah, erm, when we make a conversation and then we listen and native speaker and to compared the language between, erm, our conversation and, to the model and, I think this method is very useful.

<S 00>: OK, what about the others what do you think? Do you agree or…?

<S 03>: I think the video is very useful, yes.

<S 00>: OK, when we watched the video about cooking, (<S 03>: Yes) for example, yeah that was the one we saw. Can, can, can you say, can you say why?

<S 03>: Erm, because the video is interesting [laughs] and I like visual aids (<S 00>: Yeah) I don't like looking, looking the teacher do all the talking (<S 00>: Of course not) yes, so I like the visual aids (<S 04>: I see) maybe I eat too much candies.

<S 04>: They con-connection words is very useful. (<S 00>: OK) it's just like err, err, for example the 'anyway' (<S 00>: Uh huh) or something like this is make our spoken English more spoken English more like the native speakers.

<S 00>: OK, OK, so you like learning about that.

<S 02>: Practice is important.

<S 00>: OK, can you say more about+

<S 02>: But, I say the group is too big, I mean, too many people [laughter] small groups of people, about ten, twelve (<S 00>: Sure) and more international students.

<S 03, <S 01>, <S 05>: Yeah (<S 03> : Half, half).

<S 05>: Because when a lot of international people meet together they should use English. (<S 03>: They have to) when we talk local languages, we can't understand each other.

<S 00>: Of course, yes.

<S 06>: You come to English environment (<S 00>: Yes) and it is.

<S 00>: OK, but I mean OK, in a perfect situation we could have ten people (<S 03> : Yeah) of mixed nationalities, but given that we couldn't, couldn't do that and we only had that situation, you said, do you think the practice was useful?

<S 02>: Yes, (<S 01>: No) [laughter] no, I mean, erm, after you learn (<S 00>: After you learn) you should have practice+

<S 05 >: Yeah+

<S 00>: Right.

<S 03 >, <S 04>: Yes, should have practice.

<S 03>: Practice after class.

<S 00>: After class?

<S 01>: That's best, that's the best.

<S 00>: OK. What about practice in class? +

<S 03>: Take us to a supermarket, we practise [laughter] +

<S 04>: The time is too short.

<S 03>: Yeah.

<S 00>: OK+

<S 01>: No, no, no (<S 05 >: It's not much useful) I think it's not about not about the time, it's err, (<S 03>: About Chinese.) I really don't like to talk to my (<S 05 >: Friends) friends (<S 03>: Chinese friends) from the same country (<S 00>: Sure, OK) in, in English+

<S 05>: Because we are quite, is familiar with each other when we talk, communicate in English (<S 04>: So we want to use Chinese to express our idea) [laughter] +

<S 01>: Actually, I know, I know what <S 02> did last night, last night, (<S 00>: Of course) yeah, I should ask him again. [laughter] 'What did you do last night?' 'How was your weekend?' [laughter] +

(S 00>: Yes, it's OK. So you're having the same conversations as you already had in your own language (<S 01>: Yes) sometimes. Yes, OK. Erm, OK, so, if we did, if we had practice but not, but with mixed nationalities, (<S 03>: Yes. <S 05 >: Mm.) you would think that would be useful?

<S 01>, <S02>, <S 03>, <S 04>, <S 05>, <S 06>: Yes, yes. (<S 01>: Quite useful, <S 05 >: Improve a lot).

<S 00>: OK, if that was possible. OK, let's go back then into things, methods that you wanted to do, erm you were saying earlier <S 03> about going outside the class (<S 03>: Yes, going outside, <S 04>: Yeah), can you explain a bit more?+

<S 03>: For example, erm, for example is about cooking (<S 00>: Yeah) or buying ingredients ,you can take us to the supermarket or to the butcher or to the fish market and you can look at

that stuff and tell us how do you say that? For example a bunch, a bunch of something, or you say, that's very useful used for (<S 04>: It must be a very small group.) yeah, (<S 05>: Small group.) yes, ten, ten maximum. (<S 04>: Ten maximum, <S 05>: Ten).

<S 00>: OK, so you could go out, I suppose, it could have we could have done it in maybe with two groups. (<S 03>: Yes). That would have been possible, maybe.

<S 04>: And travel some place of interest, yes+

<S 00>: So, if you did that kind of activity, which is an interesting way of doing it, if you did that kind of activity, would you want the teacher to be with you (<S 03>: With us), with you? (<S 03> , <S 04>: With us, <S 05>: Yes) all right, OK.

<S 03>: If you are not with us, we speak Chinese. [laughter]

<S 00>: OK, but you could, for, for example you could do, prepare for it in class, do all the vocabulary in class and I say, OK, you've got to go to the fish market, in Preston where they don't speak Chinese (<S 03>: Yeah) and you have to go to them and ask them for this, this ,this and this (<S 03>: Yeah) in English (<S 03>: Yeah) but the teacher's not going to be there. [laughter]

<S 01>: It's OK+

<S 03>: That's OK.

<S 00>: Would that be OK, or you prefer the teacher to be (<S 05> But…) there? I'm interested, it's quite an interesting idea.

<S 05>: When we go to fish market we don't know how to say, how to say something, and then we check out vocabulary in dictionary (<S 00>: Oh, OK. <S 01>: No, no, no…) and it's waste our time!+

<S 01>: No, no, no! You can ask them, you can ask them. You say 'I want this' (<S 05>: But it can't, it can't improve our spoken... <S 04>: What's the name? <S 03 : It can) you can ask them, 'how, how do you say this (<S 05>: All right, all right) in English?'(<S 05>: All right, I see)+

<S 03>: That's what he do every time. [laughter]

<S 01>: Yeah, how do you say it in English?+

<S 00>: So that's your = yeah, I mean what, what you, what could happen is, for example, the teacher myself, or whoever, could teach you some language before you go (<S 03>: Yeah), teach you some common language which is going to come up. OK, maybe some names of some fish or something and then also teach you language to say er, yeah what, I'd li =, you know, for example, 'I'd like one of those', 'I'm not sure the name of it', or 'could you tell me the name of that?' Or something like that. (<S 01>: Good.) Would, would that be useful? And then you have to go and do it on your own but you have to do it in English because the people you are talking to don't speak Chinese.

<S 01>, < S 03>, <S 04>: Yes.

<S 03>: That I think is good. If you come with us we watch you, watch you and watch the, the butchers who sell things to you. (<S 00>: Ah, OK) yes, you have to follow that, you are in that situation.

<S 00>: OK. So you mean, OK. So what you mean is that so, say, for example you came with me and you watched me do it (<S 03>: Yes) ah, OK, and then you go again the next time (<S 03>: Yes) you go and do it yourselves (<S05>: Right).

<S 03>: I always think that something you learn in the class can be used in your daily life (<S 00>: Sure) is a, is a difference, a gap, a gap (<S 00>: Hmm.) between the classroom and the reality, it sounds good to go there with you (<S 04>: Yeah)

<S 01>: I,I think you should probably tell us something that, I don't know how to explain it, err when, the first day when I came here and I met, I met some girls and err, they say 'how are you doing?' , no, I, err, I said 'how are you doing?' and err, their res, their, their response, I cou,cou,couldn't understand [laughter] and then, then, I thought about it, I thought about it, err, are they saying 'yourself?' 'yourself'? 'How are you doing?' and the response 'yourself?'(<S 00>: Yeah, 'how about yourself?' maybe?) yeah, they just said 'yourself', (<S 00>: Uh huh) I never heard it before. (<S 00>: Uh huh) so, I don't understand. (<S 00>: No,

OK) then I figure it out, (<S 00>: Yes) and you, you should probably, err, teach something like, like this, you know. (<S 00>: Mmm) very, very (<S 03>: Simple greetings) simple, simple greetings+

<S 00>: Mmm, yeah, I mean we tried to do a little bit of that with talking about the weekend (<S 03>: Yeah, yeah) ,a little bit, but yeah, yeah, OK, so more sort of err, (<S 03>: More of) everyday greetings than anything.

<S 03>: More, more, not like the Chinese are talking to Chinese, but like native speakers talking to native speakers.

<S 00>: Right.

<S 03>: Yes.

 <S 00>: OK, OK.

<S 0>: Sometimes we just don't have any idea on how to answer a greeting. (<S 00>: Yeah, I agree) not because+

<S 00>: It's difficult, isn't it? (<S 01>: Yeah.) It's, it's, you know what the person's saying but you have no idea how to answer. (<S 01>, <S 05>: Yes, yeah.) Right, because of the way you answer in Chinese is going to be quite different (<S 01>: Yeah.) OK, OK, no I, I, I know what you mean [laughter], it's very, very different. OK, all right, next question. Do you think that the lessons helped you to use the language we studied or, do you think you would have learned this language anyway, by just being in the UK?

<S 05>: Hmm, sometimes, I, because I found, I found, erm, different, erm, that some people say 'bat' (<S 00>: Yes) and 'but'+

<S 00>: Yes.

<S 04>: 'But', that's Preston accent.

<S 00>: Yeah.

<S 05>: It's Preston?

<S 00>: Yes.

<S 05>: Right.

<S 04>: Accent, yes.

<S 00>: In this kind of area, yeah.

<S 04>: But, bus, bus, bus stop. [laughter]

<S 00>: Yes, OK, so, but my question was, do you think the lessons helped you to use the language we studied, for example discourse markers etc, or do you think that you would have just learned this language anyway, by being in the UK?

 <S 03>: No, I don't think being in the UK can help us to learn something. You just heard people, native speakers, talk like that but you don't know you have to imitate, imitate as you are talking (<S 05>: Yeah),you hear them and you understand them but you talk in your own way and if you don't have this discourse marks this lesson I won't use 'well, anyway' or something, something, something, yeah. (<S 00>: OK) so I think it's useful, (<S 00>: OK) yeah+

<S 00>: So you think you, maybe you wouldn't have learned it (<S 03>: Yeah, I wouldn't have learned it) by being in the UK. Because, I mean, by being in the UK you are hearing a lot of English and that can+

<S 03>: Hearing is not just hearing, you won't notice it (<S 00>: OK) ,you hear people say 'anyway' all the time (<S 00>: Uh huh), but I don't use it a lot, (<S 00>: OK) unless you tell us that this is native tradition to say 'anyway', yeah.

<S 00>: OK, what about+

<S 06>: Maybe we don't know the meanings, meanings of the spoken letters (<S 00>: OK) maybe we just hear, hear the spoken [inaudible] but we don't know how to use it.

<S 00>: OK. So then, you can hear it, but you don't know how to use it, so you won't learn it.

<S 05>, <S 06>: Yes.

<S 00>: OK. What about the rest of you, what do you think? You agree, (<S 01> :

Err...) or do you think something different, or…?

<S 01>: I know this discourse markers, and, and I, I, I do know what what they mean. (<S 00>:

Uh huh), heard some on TV series, so, err, but it's quite useful, (<S 00>: Uh huh) yeah.

<S 00>: OK.

<S 02>: Yes, I agree, it's helpful.

<S 00>: OK, OK, erm, OK, next question. Sound similar, but slightly different. OK, the first

question was do you think the lesson helped you to use the language; the second question is do

you think the lesson helped you to understand the language we studied better, or do you think

you would have just learned that anyway, by being in the UK? First question was do you think

it helped you to use it better (<S 03>: Yes.); second, second one, do you think it helped you to

understand it better? (<S 03>: Yes) or do you think, well I would have picked it up anyway

from+

<S 03>: No.

<S 05>: It help us to understand because we are, I, I was confused when somebody made to

say 'cheers' [laughter], right, yes. So, when I=after learning I know 'cheers' means 'bye'+

<S 00>: Right+

<S 06>: And 'thank you', (<S 04>: Many meaning) 'cheers' and 'thank you', 'thank you' (<S

00>: 'Cheers' means 'thank you' and 'good bye', right).

<S 00>: OK, OK any other comments, (<S 03>: Yes, err) do you agree or…?

<S 03>: Both yes.

<S 04>: For us it's just the same.

<S 03>: Yes, yes, yes!

<S 00>: Yes, yes? [laughter] All right.

<S 04>: Help us understand.

<S 00>: OK, 'cos there's a difference obviously between being able to use (<S 03>: Yeah) and being able to just understand.

<S 01>: Err, yeah [laughter]

<S 00>: OK, do you think the lessons, do you think the lessons helped you to understand and you wouldn't get that from just being in the UK?

<S 01>: Yeah, I would get that from just being in the UK.

<S 00>: From understanding?

<S 01>: From under, understanding and using. (<S 00>: Right, OK), if I stay here for a long time.

<S 00>: Right, OK, you would get=pick it up from the environment.

<S 01>: Of course. (<S 00>: OK, OK err,) but, but, it's good it's good to learn it before you stay here for a long time and +

<S 00>: OK, can you say why, then? Can you say=that's interesting, that's what I'm trying to find out, really.

<S 01>: Uh, err, when you, when you, when you here you're a foreigner and you're new in town, you should, you should have, you should learn how to communicate with others, err, otherwise it will take you a very long time (<S 00>: Ah, OK) to be in a long [inaudible] +

<S 05>: When you use this, this discourse markers you have be seems like friendly and we want to make friend with you.

<S 00>: OK, so you think that, that it helps, it helped you to understand that in the class (<S 05>: Right, right), OK+

<S 01>: Sometimes people just, people here just speaking too fast, [laughter] too fast.

<S 00>: OK, so it's, it's a struggle to understand. yeah, OK. So, you think you might pick them up anyway (<S 01>: Yes.) by being here, but, OK, you said, do you think the lessons, having lessons about it makes it quicker (<S 01>: Yeah) to, you know but if you, if you stay here a long time you would, hopefully, for a few years, you would learn a lot of English, but it might take quite a long time, (<S 01 and S 03>: Yes.) you know, that's the question, really. OK, erm, in the class we did some practice of the language. OK, for example I asked together to make a conversation and use discourse markers on a grid, sometimes I gave you some questions, like a little practice where somebody had to make an answer by using 'well' or somebody had to make an answer by using that king of thing, yeah. I gave you some practice. OK, erm, do you have any comments about that?

<S 05>: Err, the same to before (<S 00>: Yeah, it's about that) because we are quite familiar with each other (<S 00>: Sure) ask some question like a little bit stupid.

<S 00>: OK.

<S 04>: Stupid+

<S 00>: You mean because you know the answer already in Chinese?

<S 05>: Right (<S 00>: Hmm) and, err, sometime like waste time, yes erm but, but sometimes it is useful+

<S 00>: OK, so when it =for example?+

<S 05>: Like, like the easy que = the easy simple question like any plans in this weekend? We don't know at the weekend (<S 00>: Uh mm.) about it.

<S 00>: Right, so because it's like a new, new, a new question (<S 05>: Right) OK, not a new question but, you know, a new way of saying it sort of thing.

<S 05>: When we talk for a long conver=dialogue, it is quite difficult err, sometimes we can't err, we don't know how to explain our opinion in English. (<S 00>: OK) so we are trying to do English to Chinese.

<S 00>: OK, because the other students are Chinese as you said before, OK.

<S 04>: I think sometimes, the conversation is very useful, (<S 00>: Hmm) because it can teach us how to, teach us make the discourse marking in the right, in the correct location, yeah.

<S 00>: OK, so it does help, sometimes?

<S 04>: Sometimes.

<S 00>: Sometimes.

<S 04>: Some just, just sometimes.

<S 00>: OK, all right, so do you mean, when I made you practice when I made you use it. Sometimes I say 'you have to practice it and you have to use this and this and this'.

<S 04>: Yeah, it's just, it's just teach us the right way.

<S 01>: It's difficult to use all those words for us+

<S 00>: Right, can you say why?

<S 01>: Erm, it's, erm, maybe it's just language, different language (<S 00: Uh huh) and we don' t use those words actually like, like you did, 'you know', 'well', but w,when we, err, listen to other people talking, we understand wh,what they mean by this 'well', 'you know', but it's, it's a little bit difficult for us to (<S 04>: Yeah.) to add those in our sentences.

<S 00>: OK, that's interesting+

<S 04>: Yeah, the big problem of the Chinese students is er when they speaking, they just translate the Chinese to the English in their mind (<S 05>: Thinking in Chinese and they speak in English) yeah (<S 05>: And they translate to the English) yeah. (<S 05>: Quite different) actually, actually you must be thinking the English in, in your mind (<S 00>: Sure) but, but, most of us is think the Chinese (<S 05>: In Chinese) and translate into Chinese, you know (<S 00>: Right.) err, and translate into English. (<S 00>: OK) [laughter]

<S 00>: So you're thinking in Chinese first, and then you translate it and then it comes out (<S 05>: Right, S 06>: Yes) some of you, not yourself.

<S 04>: So you, actually you can teach us some way to think about English in mind and don't think about the Chinese+

<S 00>: Right. I mean, do you think practice, if you practice it in English, of course, erm, do you think that, that helps you to do that, to stop just stop thinking in Chinese (<S 04>: Stop? No, no) and doing it more automatically?

<S 03>: I just think rea, reading can help you to prac = (<S 04>: Yeah) to make you thinking in English.

<S 05>: Right.

<S 04>: Yeah.+

<S 00>: Reading?+

<S 05>: When you give us the transcript it's useful (<S 04>: Maybe have other ways, <S 00>: OK) we can see which err, situation we use these word.

<S 00>: Sure, OK+

<S 05>: Because when we think in Chinese and translate to English, we, it is tough to add the best discourse markers to the our dialogue, it's stranger.

<S 00>: Right. So you, so, so you are you saying then, in that situation, practising it, (<S 05>: Mmm) doesn't help, (<S 05>: Err...) or does help?

<S 05>: Does help, mmm, but not too much.

<S 00>: OK.

<S 04>: I don't know others, but me is I, I saw words, English words, I just think about the Chinese version [laughter]

<S 00>: OK, OK. How about you two, you haven't said very much, what do you think? I mean, I'm really interested in practice here (<S 02>: Practice, mmm.), practising the language, we have to practise it in the class, OK in a perfect situation we would have mixed nationalities

and all that, but we didn't have. So in the situation we did have, erm, we did, when we did some practice of language, what comment do you have?

<S 02>: Practice, err, I say sometimes maybe help but sometimes for example, you gave me the discourse markers and we practised with <S 01> (<S 00>: Yeah) we finished very fast (<S 00>: Yes), 'Well, the sentence', 'Do you know the sentence?'(<S 00>: OK) very fast because we are familiar and we know what to say. (<S 00>: Ah, OK) I mean, I, we really know the meaning and we think it's easy (<S 00>: OK, OK) to go.

<S 00>: OK, what do you think, <S 03>?

<S 03>: I just don't like practice at all.

<S 00>: OK, that's fine. (<S 03>: Yeah) Can you say why? That's interesting.

<S 03>: I just like remember err, everything I spo, I speak, or I read, or I write, I memorise it. I memorise how your native speakers talk, how your native speakers write and use it in myselfs conversation. So, I don't like practice. I think practice is some kind of make up, make something up. You make the situation up to speak in English, (<S 00>: Hmm) but you will have chance to speak English if you, only if you me, memorise how the native speakers speak (<S 00>: Uh huh) and you can use and make yourself like native speakers. I just don't like practice at all.

<S 04>: Yeah, that, that's because your memory is very good, but [laughter] but not, not everybody likes <S03> (<S 03>: Yeah, Yes) because (<S 00>: Uh huh) some, some people would like to practise. (<S 03>: Yes, <S 00>: Hmm)+

<S 03>: I, I, I think practice is for, suitable for most of our Chinese student, but just (<S 04>: Yeah) I don't like practice.

<S 02>: Yes

<S 04>: Not everybody has his own+

<S 00>: It's personal, personal, personal+

<S 03>: Yeah, it's a personal issue, yes+

<S 04>: Everybody has+

<S 00: It's just personal?+

<S 03>: Yeah (<S 00>: Mmm) +

<S 03>: Has err his or her own study ways

<S 03>: Yes.

<S 02>: It's more suitable to those who are not, I mean, talkative.

<S 03>: Yes.

<S 00>: Ah OK. So you think it's better for quieter students?

<S 02>: Yes.

<S 03>: Yes, shy students+

<S 04>: For me, it's, I think the listening is useful for me+

<S 02>: Just like I said you give me practice, I talk to <S 01>, it's very easy! +

<S 00>: Yes, right, (<S02 >: Finished and) because you know each other already (<S 03>: Yes) and stuff like that, OK, OK. What do, what do you think?

<S 06>: Err,I think practice is, err sometimes is it can improve erm, our, our spoken language erm, erm… maybe the same to the <S 04> and sometimes, I cannot, err, change the Chinese to [laughter] translate to English, yeah (<S 00>: Yeah, mm).

<S 00>: Does practise practise help to stop that? (<S 06>: Erm,) does it, does it, if you practise a lot, in English of course, you know, does it, does it help to stop translating from Chinese to English, (<S 05 : Yeah, I agree, <S 04>: Yeah) or…? (<S 05 >: Yeah, I agree) do you see, do you understand my question? If you practise a lot in the class, in English, (<S 06>: Yeah.) erm, does it help, does it help you to stop thinking in Chinese?

<S 04>: It depends+

<S 05 >: In class it's not enough. (<S 04>: It's depends), in class is not enough+

<S 04>: It depends, I think…

<S 00>: Class is not enough+

<S 05 >: Right

<S 00>: So, what do you think?+

<S 05>: So, I live wi,with a French guy now, we communicate to each other in English everyday (<S 00>: Of course, yeah) so it can stop us but, err, if only in class is not enough+

<S 01>: Sure. I, I think it's better we should probably choose some students, some volunteers to practise with you, (<S 00>: Uh huh) rather than (<S 00>: OK) we practice with each other [laughter]

<S 05 >: Erm, right. [laughter]

<S 02>: Good idea.

<S 00>: Yeah, OK. Can you say why? That's interesting+

<S 04>: You must have some foreign, native speakers+

<S 01>: Because it's useless to speak Chinese or Japanese, or any or Spanish, you don't understand. They have to say English to err, talk English.

<S 04>: Have to

<S 00>: Hmm, yes, OK. So, so yeah, OK I suppose practical+

<S 01>: I, I'm talking to Viper, erm, and sometimes Chinese, buh!

<S 00>: Yeah, OK.

<S 05>: If only one nationality in the class it's useless.

<S 00>: To practise?

<S 05>: Yes.

<S 00>: But if +

<S 01>: And, and other, can watch, can watch what you say.

<S 00>: Sure, OK, yeah, that's interesting. So, I, I suppose practically, sometimes, it's erm, not, it would take quite a long time.

<S 01>: It could choo, choose one or two +

<S 00>: Just one or two examples+

<S 01>: Examples. Maybe, maybe a longer, a longer conversation and others can watch, watch and learn.

<S 00>: And so do you think that helps?

<S 01>: Yeah.

<S 00>: What about the rest of you? (<S 05>: I, I agree.) So, for example if I had a student coming, you know, we sat together in front of the class (<S 05 >: Right) and we did a practice, if you like, (<S 04>: Yes. < S 06>: Yeah.) you were listening to it(<S 05>: Yeah,<S 06>: Yes.)

<S 00>: Do you think?

<S 04>: That's is more useful (<S 05 >: More useful) than listening, listening your yeah, radio, no, no radio, listening.

<S 05>: It's, it's, err, it's useful than we talk with+

<S 00>: With each other?

<S 05>: With each other+

<S 01>: Cos all of us, all of us, all of us want to learn English here (<S 00>: Of course yeah, <S 05: Right) so, we are listen (<S 05 >: We listen and mem, we listen and memorise) and watch+

<S 00>: Right, OK.

<S 04>: Yeah, yeah, just, not just listening you we can watch you so you can memory+

<S 00>: Ah, OK because you can see me having a conversation (<S 01>: Yeah.) with someone else?

<S 05 >: Right.

<S 04>: Good for memory.

<S 05 >: [inaudible]

<S 00>: Ah, OK. Ah, all right, that's interesting. So that would be not the kind of traditional type of practice but more, I suppose it's really listening, isn't it? (<S 03>: Yes) like, more listening (<S 01>: More listening) more listening, you know, 'cos you listen to a sample conversation maybe, and listen (<S 06>: More practical) on the tape. Hmm, OK , yeah.

<S 01>: Watch, erm the, watch the TV with the subtitle will be very useful. (<S 00>: Yeah) very, very helpful with subtitles (<S 00>: Hmm , Yeah) [laughter]

<S 00>: I mean the reason why we did the video, the reason why I chose that one is because you don't need subtitles, because you can see him doing it all (<S 04>: Ah) it's quite easy to follow. Err, Jamie Oliver. (<S 01>: Jamie Oliver) Jamie Oliver, when he's cooking. I chose it because he talks a lot, (<S 04>: [inaudible] but you don't need to understand it all because you can see what he's doing, (<S 06>: Yeah) but it doesn't matter, (<S 05 >: Uh huh) erm, but yeah subtitles, that's quite useful. (<S 01>: Without subtitle) OK, erm, that' s interesting, all right. Erm, do you, anybody do you wish to make any sort of final comments about the lessons?

<S 04 >: <S 03>?

<S 03>: Why me? [laughter]

<S 00>: Anybody? It doesn't matter+

<S 04>: Err, I see seven point.

<S 03>: No, that, that's not the point. I just think that this this course is very helpful, but, but I do not like practice.

<S 00>: No, that's fine. (<S 03>: Yeah.) that's interesting to, to (<S 03>: Yes) to say, it's useful.

<S 03>: And I'm strange, it's very strange.

<S 00>: I don't think so. [laughter] I don't think it's necessarily strange. I'm, I'm not thinking when you're saying it, that's strange, (<S 03>: Really?) no, it's interesting.

<S 03>: Yeah, it's just a typical, typical reaction to...

<S 00>: No, I would, personally I would say, no, it's not a typical reaction, it's not +

<S 03>: Normal?

<S 00>: It's not a normal reaction, it's not a strange reaction, some students say exactly the same as you. (<S 03>: yes) some students say things like you said, (<S 03>: Yes.) but it's interesting that you said it.

<S 03>: Erm, I think the class should include more, more practice like the (<S 04>: Action?) practice in the field, is just acted, just not not just the learning in the class but actually use it in your daily life.(<S 00>: OK) and , it could, erm, I think you can check whether you whether we used it in our daily life. For example, tell us how to cook, cook, in English and the next time you come to class you can ask us how, how many of you have used this this cooking, cooking phrases, or cooking words in your daily life. If you ask us to use it in our daily life, maybe when, next time I cook, I will say it to myself, well, there's stir-frying [laughter].It's kind of nuts, but, but it's very, I will do that (<S 0>: Uh huh) I will do that. It's stir-frying, and I pour the oil into the pan (<S 04>: Hmm) and I will do that. You ask me and I will do that.

<S 04>: Because next, next time we, we, you will be+

<S 03>: Yeah! Ask me how many of you used this phrase, I will prob, probably raise my hand. And, and I think ask us to do something, Chinese students is very, very, erm, 'obeydable' is that the name? (<S 00>: I'm not sure) they, they will obey what the (<S 00>: Ah, OK) yes,

(<S 00>: Yes, OK, I know what you mean) obey the things (<S 04>: The teachers) the teacher say. (<S 04>: Yeah) you you requires us to do something, (<S 00>: OK.) we will do this for you. (<S 04 >: Oh, yeah) +

<S 00>: If, if I'd said, for example then, that's an interesting thing, (<S 03>: Yeah) so if I'd said for example, go home and you've got to use this, err, I don't know, (<S 04>: Err...) cooking language (<S 03>: At least once.) with each other (<S 03>: Yeah).

<S 04>: Because+

<S 03>: We will use it

<S 00>: Are you explaining something?

<S 04>: Because that's our culture. (<S 01>: It's not).

<S 03>: You won't? (<S 01>: It's not).

<S 04>: Yeah [laughter]

<S 00>: Do you think people would do it, or not? +

<S 01>: It is not possible. Go home use your language with your [inaudible] (<S 03>: I would,<S 05>: Yeah).

<S 04>: Most, most Chinese students will obey the (<S 05>: Obey the) what the teacher said (<S 05>: Yeah) because (<S 00>: OK) from the primary school to the(<S 00>: Sure) high, high school (<S 03>: Yes.) err… (<S 03>: We are educated in that, in that way) yeah, in that way.

<S 00>: But, I mean, I just err, err, I mean, it's a really interesting idea (<S 03>: Yeah) and it would be wonderful if people did it, but I just wonder, (<S 03>: Yes) because you said earlier well, practising with each other, we don't really like it, we can't see the point. If I said to you, outside the class (<S 03>: Yes, we would do that) if you're living, if you're living with other, other nationalities (<S 05>: Yes) like yourself, but not everybody is (<S 05>: Right) do you, err, say for example, there are some Chinese students living together, I say OK, for your homework, go home, I want you to explain (<S 05>: Yeah) this cooking to each other in

English (<S 03>: Yes, ye) do you think (<S 03>: We will do,<S 05>: We will do,<S 03>: We will do that).

<S 00>: You would do it? (<S 01>: Uh.) (<S 03>: Yeah.) <S 01> you're saying no? (<S 03>: Yeah, we will do that)

<S 01>: [inaudible]

<S 00>: You wouldn't do it?

<S 04>: Most Chinese+

<S 05>: Almost Chinese will do that +

<S 03>: Because we come here to learn, we come here (<S 04>: Pro, promise) to learn English.

<S 05>: We will feel, if I feel it's interesting and just once is OK [laughter] to practice+

<S 03>: All the time, it's silly [laughter] +

<S 01>: It's useless, it's useless+

<S 04>: From the primary school to the high school, it's no teamwork in Chi, in the classroom (<S 01>: If, if..) in China (<S 01>: If, if…) they just listen (<S 06>: Listen to the teacher) listen to teacher (<S 06>: Yeah) (<S 00>: Sure) teacher give (<S 00>: OK).

<S 01>: If it's just, if it's just for one time, it is useless (<S 03>: No, that's not useless)+

<S 05>: No, no. Sometimes you, you will= the memory will flood in and (< S 03>:Yeah, for example) you can remember it+

<S 03>: Yeah, Chris told me this+

<S 05>: You use once and the next time you told others you, you, will remember it. (<S 06>: You remember it).

<S 03>: Yes, if that's daily life, anything. (<S 06>: Yeah.) Err, for example, you told us that's stir-fry for once (<S 00>: Yes) and most of us remember it, because we use it every day

(<S 00>: Right.) we stir-fry the to,tomatoes, (<S 00>: OK) the eggs [laughter] so we, so we remember it, (<S 00>: OK, OK) yes+

<S 05>: If it, if it is interesting (<S 03>: And useful), we will remember it.

<S 03>: That would work+

<S 00>: You would do, you would do it?

<S 03>: But not one would practice 'what are we going to do this weekend?' in our dormitory,[laughter] no one.

<S 00>: No, OK. (<S 03>: Yeah) But maybe it's as we said before (<S 03>: Yeah.) maybe that's a cultural (<S 03>: Yeah, it's a British thing.) a cultural, a cultural difference, yes, of course, perhaps. Hmm, OK. So, if, if you gave people things to do outside the class (<S 03>: Yes) daily life things, if you like, they might do it, (<S 03>: Yes.) but <S 01> thinks no. [laughter]

 <S 01>: Hmm, it's not gonna happen.

<S 00>: No? What do you think?

<S 01>: If I, I, I'm living with +

<S 02>: If that situation , if you tell them us use err, th, this err language in their daily life, then record them, make a video the next day (<S 00>:Yeah.) [laughter]they would do it (<S 04>: Yeah, yeah, yeah!) the next day (<S 01>: Yes! [laughter])+

<S 02>: But if you told them just do it, you don't know whether they use it.

<S 00>: OK+

<S 05>: No, they're not live with Chris, it is they have to do [laughter]

<S 02>: One time, two times, they may do it, for a long time, they won't, they will forget it.

<S 00>: Right, OK

<S 03>: If you ask us to record, we will record. (<S 04>, S 02>: Yeah) Everyone has a cell phone+

<S 01>: Cos I have to record (S 04> I have to record) +

<S 03>: Yeah, that's, that's useful

<S 02>: That's the difference between the English education and the Chinese +

<S 03>: Chinese education.

<S 00>: OK, if you said to people, for example, OK, you've got to go and have a chat about this, you've got to do this, you've got to [laughter] use this language and you've got to make a recording of it.

<S 02>: Yes!

<S 03>: Yeah.

<S 04>: Yeah [inaudible]

<S 03>: Yes, that's only useful (<S 00>: It's more) to Chinese students+

<S 00>: Maybe some people wouldn't, wouldn't do it but some people would, most people would do it, or…?

<S 04>: No, you just give the recording… (<S 02>: Because you say it they have to do it so they would do it.) And the radio, (<S 00>: OK) camera (<S 03>: That, that) take some pictures (<S 03>: Yes).

<S 01>: I don't like it. [laughter]

<S 04>: You just don't like the way+

<S 03>: I think that that method is typically used for for Chinese (<S 04>: For Chinese) students (<S 04>: Yeah, Chinese, just for Chinese) not other nationalities. (<S 04>: Yeah) for Chinese students, that's useful. (<S 05 >: Yes) I think most of our Chinese students (<S 04>: Because of the education background) will record.

<S 00>: So you could say, so you could say, OK, go off and do this and then you've got to make, make sure you make, you make a recording.

<S 03>: Yeah.

<S 06>: We make a recording and then (<S 04>: Take some pictures) and then we bring the record er, in the class and then we discuss, err, (<S 00>: OK) about it+

 <S 03>: Yes, we can watch the recording; (<S 04>: Yeah) it would be very interesting (<S 04>: Interesting)

<S 01>: I think it would be boring! [laughter] (<S 05>: Yes, actually it will be boring!) very boring!

<S 04>: Mmm, sure

<S 02>: Yeah.

<S 00>: OK+

 <S 03>: I think that's OK. [laughter]

<S 04>: Most students.

<S 00>: So, you're kind of saying that's it's, that's a sort of practice, isn't it, really, (<S 03>: Yes) but outside of class (<S 04>: Yes) but then when we talk about practice in class, you're saying, erm, it's not so helpful, (<S 05 >: Hmm.) maybe it's helpful sometimes. (<S 03>: Yeah.) Hmm, interesting. OK, that's an interesting idea, certainly. Err, any other sort of final comments about the lessons or anything we did?

<S 05 >: It's helpful. [laughter]

<S 04>: You use this word many times!

<S 05 > It's true.

<S 01>: I, I (<S 00>: You're thinking?)I've been thinking for a while (<S 00>: OK, that's all right.).

<S 04>: Just translate into Chinese [laughter]

<S 00>: Any other, any final comments, or…?

<S 06>: Maybe, erm, in the class we learn, we learned the vocabularies and then, erm, we can, we often cannot, erm, use this language and, and, into the, the daily life, err, we cannot, erm, practise it.

<S 00>: Right, OK (<S 04>: Comments) OK.

<S 04>: Firstly, add some foreign, erm, native speaker. Secondly, [laughter] make the lessons vivid, vivid (<S 00>: Uh huh) and thirdly, we can go to some specific loca, err, specific location or field.

<S 00>: Ah, OK.

<S 03>: Fourthly, bring more cookies. [laughter]

<S 00>: I brought you lots of biscuits. (<S 03>: Yeah) ,err, OK.

<S 03>: Yes, that's the reason why we come to class. [laughter]

<S 04>: Oh, come on! [laughter]

<S 00>: OK, erm, yeah, so if you had =just to go back to that point, just to, just to clarify it, I suppose, you said if you had mixed nationalities in the class, of course you would prefer that, (<S 03 >, S 04>: Yes.), if you did practice with mixed nationalities in the class, (<S 04>: Yes) would that be helpful? (<S 02>, <S 03 >, <S 04>: Yes) OK, all right, just want to be clear about this.

<S 03>: Yes.

<S 05>: And we will be activitiy.

< <S 00>: Sorry?

<S 05>: And we will be activity.

<S 03>: Active.

<S 00>: You'll be active, right, OK yeah, OK, OK. OK any other comments?

<S 02>: Err[laughter]

<S 00>: No? You don't have to make a comment, I'm just giving, [laughter] giving you a chance to make [laughter] if you've forgotten to say and you would like to say, but you don't have to.

<S 03>: Yeah.

<S 01>: OK.

<S 03>: Nothing else.

<S 04>: Nothing else.

<S 00>: Nothing else (<S 02>: No.) OK, all right. Well, thank you ever so much, <S 03>: Yeah.) it's very interesting, very useful.

<S 04>: Thank you very much.

<S 01>: Thank you.

Appendix 10 Most frequent (51-100) words used in focus groups (main study)

III group

RANK/ FREQUENCY	COVERAGE INDIVIDUAL	CUMULATIVE	WORD
51. 10	0.43%	61.61%	HOW
52. 10	0.43%	62.04%	OR
53. 10	0.43%	62.47%	TIME
54. 10	0.43%	62.90%	US
55. 10	0.43%	63.33%	WORD
56. 9	0.39%	63.72%	UNDERSTAND
57. 9	0.39%	64.11%	WAY
58. 9	0.39%	64.50%	YES
59. 8	0.34%	64.84%	REALLY
60. 8	0.34%	65.18%	SPEAKING
61. 8	0.34%	65.52%	WILL
62. 7	0.30%	65.82%	'YOU
63. 7	0.30%	66.12%	AGAIN
64. 7	0.30%	66.42%	GO
65. 7	0.30%	66.72%	LEARN
66. 7	0.30%	67.02%	OUR
67. 7	0.30%	67.32%	SENTENCE
68. 7	0.30%	67.62%	SOMETHING
69. 7	0.30%	67.92%	WHEN
70. 6	0.26%	68.18%	ABOUT
71. 6	0.26%	68.44%	ALSO
72. 6	0.26%	68.70%	CHATTING
73. 6	0.26%	68.96%	EXAMPLE
74. 6	0.26%	69.22%	IF
75. 6	0.26%	69.48%	LIFE
76. 6	0.26%	69.74%	MANY
77. 6	0.26%	70.00%	MIND
78. 6	0.26%	70.26%	MY
79. 6	0.26%	70.52%	PRACTICE
80. 6	0.26%	70.78%	PUT
81. 6	0.26%	71.04%	REMEMBER
82. 6	0.26%	71.30%	STUDENT
83. 6	0.26%	71.56%	TEACHER
84. 6	0.26%	71.82%	WRITING
85. 5	0.22%	72.04%	'I
86. 5	0.22%	72.26%	ARE
87. 5	0.22%	72.48%	BE
88. 5	0.22%	72.70%	BY
89. 5	0.22%	72.92%	COUNTRIES
90. 5	0.22%	73.14%	DAILY
91. 5	0.22%	73.36%	EASY
92. 5	0.22%	73.58%	FROM
93. 5	0.22%	73.80%	HELP
94. 5	0.22%	74.02%	KNOW'
95. 5	0.22%	74.24%	LEARNED
96. 5	0.22%	74.46%	MEAN'
97. 5	0.22%	74.68%	MUST
98. 5	0.22%	74.90%	OUT
99. 5	0.22%	75.12%	SHOULD
100. 5	0.22%	75.34%	STYLE

PPP group

RANK/ FREQUENCY	CUMULATIVE INDIVIDUAL	CUMULATIVE	WORD
51. 21	0.49%	58.73%	SOME
52. 20	0.46%	59.19%	OR
53. 20	0.46%	59.65%	WHEN
54. 19	0.44%	60.09%	PEOPLE
55. 19	0.44%	60.53%	SHOULD
56. 19	0.44%	60.97%	TIME
57. 18	0.42%	61.39%	OUR
58. 18	0.42%	61.81%	SOMETIMES
59. 17	0.39%	62.20%	ABOUT
60. 17	0.39%	62.59%	BE
61. 16	0.37%	62.96%	CLASS
62. 16	0.37%	63.33%	EXAMPLE
63. 16	0.37%	63.70%	LEARN
64. 16	0.37%	64.07%	MORE
65. 16	0.37%	64.44%	YOUR
66. 15	0.35%	64.79%	ASK
67. 15	0.35%	65.14%	LIFE
68. 15	0.35%	65.49%	OTHER
69. 14	0.33%	65.82%	DAILY
70. 14	0.33%	66.15%	NATIVE
71. 14	0.33%	66.48%	SOMETHING
72. 14	0.33%	66.81%	WHAT
73. 13	0.30%	67.11%	ALL
74. 13	0.30%	67.41%	MAYBE
75. 13	0.30%	67.71%	OK
76. 13	0.30%	68.01%	THEN
77. 12	0.28%	68.29%	MAKE
78. 12	0.28%	68.57%	STUDENTS
79. 12	0.28%	68.85%	WATCH
80. 11	0.26%	69.11%	LANGUAGE
81. 11	0.26%	69.37%	WOULD
82. 10	0.23%	69.60%	GO
83. 10	0.23%	69.83%	ME
84. 10	0.23%	70.06%	REMEMBER
85. 10	0.23%	70.29%	TALKING
86. 10	0.23%	70.52%	TELL
87. 9	0.21%	70.73%	EACH
88. 9	0.21%	70.94%	GOOD
89. 9	0.21%	71.15%	HELP
90. 9	0.21%	71.36%	HERE
91. 9	0.21%	71.57%	MOST
92. 9	0.21%	71.78%	NEXT
93. 9	0.21%	71.99%	SPEAKERS
94. 9	0.21%	72.20%	TOO
95. 9	0.21%	72.41%	UNDERSTAND
96. 9	0.21%	72.62%	WORDS
97. 8	0.19%	72.81%	ACTUALLY
98. 8	0.19%	73.00%	LISTEN
99. 8	0.19%	73.19%	ONE
100. 8	0.19%	73.38%	QUITE

Appendix 11 All keywords from focus groups (main study)

Explanation below taken from Compleat Lexical Tutor (2011).

POTENTIAL KEYWORDS IN III Focus group for lex tutor plain text 2.txt (2422 words)

Keywords are the words in your text that are far more frequent, proportionally, than they are in a general reference corpus (here, the Brown Corpus, whose 1 million words comprise 500 texts of 2000 words on a broad range of topics – see Brown freqs).

The number accompanying each word represents the number of times more frequent the word is in your text than it is in the Brown corpus. For example, the first item in the output **1238.50 chatting** is calculated on the basis that **chatting** has **2** natural occurrences in the Brown's 1 million words, but **6** occurrences in your 2422-word text. These 6 occurrences are proportionally a lot more than the 2 occurrences in the Brown. Taken as a proportion of 1,000,000 words, these 6 occurrences represent 6/2422 x 1,000,000 = **2477** virtual occurrences. These 2477 occurrences are 1238.50 times more numerous than the 2 occurrences in Brown. The keyword list below contains all the words in your text that are at least **10 times** more numerous in your text than in the Brown reference corpus (the "keyness factor"). The greater the keyness factor, the more *'key'* a word is likely to be to your input text.

Words eliminated from analysis by user: none.

Notes: 1. Small texts may provide unreliable comparisons. 2. Words less than 2 occurrences are ignored. 3. Routine does not currently handle either word families or multiword units, nor calculate statistics of keyness (Nation argues that a keyness factor less than 50 is uninteresting).

III group

(1)1238.50 chatting	(57) 17.64 learned
(2) 653.75 yeah	(58) 17.45 china
(3) 413.00 video	(59) 17.06 daily
(4) 309.69 translate	(60) 16.95 know
(5) 255.24 chinese	(61) 16.86 creative
(6) 247.80 boring	(62) 16.78 easy
(7) 206.50 grammar	(63) 16.68 mean
(8) 206.50 travelling	(64) 16.52 conversation
(9) 165.20 bean	(65) 16.20 agree
(10) 101.40 useful	(66) 16.20 role
(11) 95.31 communicate	(67) 16.20 listen
(12) 87.58 sentence	(68) 15.30 watch
(13) 82.60 discourse	(69) 15.12 word
(14) 76.62 english	(70) 15.02 cultural
(15) 75.09 sometime	(71) 14.43 thinking
(16) 68.83 everyday	(72) 13.80 need
(17) 63.54 salesman	(73) 12.52 besides
(18) 55.05 speaking	(74) 12.20 play
(19) 48.59 interaction	(75) 12.01 really
(20) 45.89 informal	(76) 11.37 language
(21) 45.89 weekend	(77) 10.89 very
(22) 45.05 speak	(78) 10.87 junior
(23) 44.25 discuss	(79) 10.73 talk
(24) 40.35 maybe	(80) 10.61 people
(25) 39.97 helps	(81) 10.26 difficult
(26) 39.33 habits	
(27) 34.42 cook	
(28) 34.42 sports	
(29) 34.40 learn	
(30) 31.77 repeat	
(31) 30.70 words	
(32) 30.22 assumption	
(33) 30.21 teacher	
(34) 29.50 marks	
(35) 28.61 think	
(36) 28.48 helpful	
(37) 28.48 movie	
(38) 27.53 anyway	
(39) 27.53 movies	
(40) 27.53 understand	
(41) 26.35 practice	
(42) 26.18 class	
(43) 25.42 communication	
(44) 23.38 forget	
(45) 22.94 roll	
(46) 21.73 style	
(47) 21.18 transfer	
(48) 21.17 writing	
(49) 20.55 sometimes	
(50) 20.40 interesting	
(51) 19.91 different	
(52) 19.67 comment	
(53) 19.21 catch	
(54) 19.14 countries	
(55) 18.49 student	
(56) 18.08 remember	

PPP group

(1) 1109.00 yeah	(57) 20.32 meanings
(2) 585.76 laughter	(58) 19.43 stupid
(3) 335.50 video	(59) 19.33 interesting
(4) 223.50 preston	(60) 18.22 sometimes
(5) 191.13 chinese	(61) 17.47 yourself
(6) 167.75 cheers	(62) 17.46 class
(7) 156.60 discourse	(63) 16.56 aids
(8) 143.79 speakers	(64) 16.37 teacher
(9) 134.20 boring	(65) 16.33 remember
(10) 134.20 weird	(66) 15.96 marks
(11) 127.86 stir	(67) 14.92 speaking
(12) 111.88 obey	(68) 14.91 understand
(13) 111.83 greetings	(69) 14.24 speak
(14) 111.75 foreigner	(70) 13.69 depends
(15) 102.02 useful	(71) 13.61 just
(16) 97.88 translate	(72) 13.55 sentence
(17) 89.40 imitate	(73) 13.42 choose
(18) 78.94 useless	(74) 13.15 suitable
(19) 74.56 topic	(75) 13.15 worst
(20) 68.85 communicate	(76) 12.77 fish
(21) 68.07 native	(77) 12.77 waste
(22) 57.11 practice	(78) 12.43 example
(23) 55.88 butcher	(79) 12.37 students
(24) 49.70 weekend	(80) 11.78 memory
(25) 49.67 accent	(81) 11.62 fast
(26) 46.12 english	(82) 11.57 culture
(27) 42.61 learn	(83) 11.43 record
(28) 42.32 spoken	(84) 11.18 visual
(29) 40.64 eaten	(85) 10.78 actually
(30) 39.47 holiday	(86) 10.64 express
(31) 37.25 chris	
(32) 35.08 listen	
(33) 34.94 cooking	
(34) 34.41 listening	
(35) 33.40 talk	
(36) 33.14 watch	
(37) 31.32 conversation	
(38) 31.06 thank	
(39) 30.86 helpful	
(40) 28.67 improve	
(41) 27.96 cook	
(42) 27.27 teach	
(43) 26.84 vivid	
(44) 26.29 bunch	
(45) 26.29 lessons	
(46) 25.88 daily	
(47) 24.84 anyway	
(48) 24.83 classroom	
(49) 23.96 compare	
(50) 22.60 talking	
(51) 22.57 language	
(52) 22.37 recording	
(53) 22.37 comments	
(54) 22.21 think	
(55) 21.92 agree	
(56) 21.86 maybe	

Appendix 12 Most frequent chunks (1-100) from focus groups (main study)

III group

5-wd strings: 2,361 Repeated: 5 (0.21%)	4-wd strings: 2,362 Repeated: 24 (1.02%)	3-wd strings: 2,363 Repeated: 92 (3.89%)	2-wd strings: 2,364 Repeated: 291 (12.31%)
TTR: 5:11 (1:2.2) Words: 25 (1.05% of tot)	TTR: 24:53 (1:2.20) Words: 96 (4.05% of tot)	TTR: 92:223 (1:2.42) Words: 276 (11.67% of tot)	TTR: 291:920 (1:3.16) Words: 582 (24.60% of tot)
001. **[3]** I DON'T KNOW HOW TO	001. **[3]** I DON'T KNOW HOW	001. **[10]** I THINK IT'S	001. **[26]** I THINK
002. **[2]** BUT I DON'T KNOW HOW	002. **[3]** DON'T KNOW HOW TO	002. **[6]** THE WAY OF	002. **[14]** YOU CAN
003. **[2]** AND DO IT AGAIN AND	003. **[3]** I WILL NOT USE	003. **[5]** I DON'T KNOW	003. **[14]** WE CAN
004. **[2]** I THINK WE NEED MORE	004. **[3]** I THINK WE NEED	004. **[4]** KNOW HOW TO	004. **[12]** CHINESE PEOPLE
005. **[2]** YOU CAN PUT THIS ERR	005. **[3]** BUT I DON'T KNOW	005. **[4]** I THINK WE	005. **[11]** THINK IT'S
(only 5x5 word chunks in the data)	006. **[2]** MOST OF THE TIME	006. **[4]** BUT I DON'T	006. **[11]** I DON'T
	007. **[2]** DO IT AGAIN AND	007. **[4]** IN THE CLASS	007. **[10]** IT'S VERY
	008. **[2]** AND TRANSLATE TO ENGLISH	008. **[3]** WE NEED MORE	008. **[10]** HOW TO
	009. **[2]** YOU CAN ASSUMPTION THAT	009. **[3]** THINK WE NEED	009. **[9]** AND ERR
	010. **[2]** I THINK IT'S A	010. **[3]** I WILL NOT	010. **[9]** IN THE
	011. **[2]** YEAH I THINK IT'S	011. **[3]** TRANSLATE TO ENGLISH	011. **[9]** DON'T KNOW
	012. **[2]** AND DO IT AGAIN	012. **[3]** DO IT AGAIN	012. **[8]** WE DON'T
	013. **[2]** TO PUT IN MY	013. **[3]** 'ANY PLAN THIS	013. **[8]** YOU KNOW
	014. **[2]** IN MY MIND AND	014. **[3]** TO PUT IN	014. **[8]** WE NEED
	015. **[2]** CAN PUT THIS ERR	015. **[3]** I DON'T LIKE	015. **[8]** SOME WORDS
	016. **[2]** SOME WORD I WILL	016. **[3]** THIS WORD AND	016. **[7]** I WILL
	017. **[2]** WE CAN WE CAN	017. **[3]** WILL NOT USE	017. **[7]** I CAN
	018. **[2]** A LOT OF WORDS	018. **[3]** I THINK THAT	018. **[7]** SO WE
	019. **[2]** YOU CAN PUT THIS	019. **[3]** WE NEED TO	019. **[7]** ERR, I
	020. **[2]** I THINK IT'S USEFUL	020. **[3]** WE DON'T NEED	020. **[6]** THE WAY
	021. **[2]** THINK WE NEED MORE	021. **[3]** AND TRANSLATE TO	021. **[6]** ENGLISH AND

	022. **[2]** I THINK IT'S VERY	022. **[3]** I WILL USE	022. **[6]** IF I
	023. **[2]** DON'T NEED THIS WORD	023. **[3]** DON'T KNOW HOW	023. **[6]** TO LEARN
	024. **[2]** ERR, THE WAY OF	024. **[2]** OF THE TIME	024. **[6]** THE CLASS
		025. **[2]** YOU CAN ASSUMPTION	025. **[6]** WAY OF
		026. **[2]** PUT IN MY	026. **[6]** FOR EXAMPLE
		027. **[2]** CHINESE PEOPLE SO	027. **[5]** TO SPEAK
		028. **[2]** MOST OF THE	028. **[5]** SO I
		029. **[2]** CHINESE PEOPLE ALL	029. **[5]** CAN UNDERSTAND
		030. **[2]** YOU CAN PUT	030. **[5]** THE CHINESE
		031. **[2]** CAN WE CAN	031. **[5]** BUT I
		032. **[2]** DON'T NEED THIS	032. **[5]** WE ALWAYS
		033. **[2]** IT'S VERY USEFUL	033. **[5]** AND TRANSLATE
		034. **[2]** ERR, HOW TO	034. **[4]** JUST LIKE
		035. **[2]** AND IT'S DIFFICULT	035. **[4]** TO ENGLISH
		036. **[2]** CAN ASSUMPTION THAT	036. **[4]** AND I
		037. **[2]** CAN YOU REPEAT	037. **[4]** DON'T NEED
		038. **[2]** EASY TO LEARN	038. **[4]** WITH THE
		039. **[2]** THE MEANS IS	039. **[4]** DO THIS
		040. **[2]** LIKE THIS METHOD	040. **[4]** SPEAKING ENGLISH
		041. **[2]** EXPECT YOU KNOW	041. **[4]** KNOW HOW
		042. **[2]** IT'S VERY BORING	042. **[4]** 'YOU KNOW'
		043. **[2]** IN MY MIND	043. **[4]** TRANSLATE TO
		044. **[2]** I AGREE WITH	044. **[4]** I KNOW
		045. **[2]** SO WE CAN	045. **[4]** AND WE
		046. **[2]** A LOT OF	046. **[4]** ENGLISH IS
		047. **[2]** SOME WORD I	047. **[4]** THINK WE
		048. **[2]** SOME DISCOURSE MARKS	048. **[4]** WE JUST
		049. **[2]** LOT OF WORDS	049. **[4]** THIS WORD

		050. **[2]** ERR, YOU KNOW	050. **[4]** AND THE
		051. **[2]** ERR, I THINK	051. **[4]** WANT TO
		052. **[2]** THINK IT'S HELPFUL	052. **[4]** EACH OTHER
		053. **[2]** I SPEAK ENGLISH	053. **[4]** IT'S USEFUL
		054. **[2]** EACH OTHER AND	054. **[4]** THE ERR
		055. **[2]** THINK IT'S VERY	055. **[4]** LIKE THE
		056. **[2]** AND IF I	056. **[4]** OF WORDS
		057. **[2]** SPEAKING ENGLISH AND	057. **[4]** DON'T LIKE
		058. **[2]** BY THE CHINESE	058. **[4]** BECAUSE WE
		059. **[2]** FOR EXAMPLE ERR	059. **[4]** EASY TO
		060. **[2]** WORD I WILL	060. **[4]** IN DAILY
		061. **[2]** IT'S VERY DIFFERENT	061. **[4]** CAN USE
		062. **[2]** ERR, THE WAY	062. **[4]** YEAH YEAH
		063. **[2]** AND ERR, I	063. **[4]** ERR, IN
		064. **[2]** CHATTING WITH OTHERS	064. **[4]** TO THE
		065. **[2]** USEFUL IN DAILY	065. **[4]** TO PRACTISE
		066. **[2]** YOU CAN USE	066. **[3]** WHEN I
		067. **[2]** ERR, I CAN	067. **[3]** NOT USE
		068. **[2]** PUT THIS ERR	068. **[3]** TO REMEMBER
		069. **[2]** GO TO THE	069. **[3]** KNOWAND
		070. **[2]** REMEMBER THAT AND	070. **[3]** WORD AND
		071. **[2]** YEAH I THINK	071. **[3]** IN MY
		072. **[2]** AND DO IT	072. **[3]** SPORTS
		073. **[2]** IN REALLY LIFE	073. **[3]** GO OUT
		074. **[2]** CAN PUT THIS	074. **[3]** ERR, SOME
		075. **[2]** DIFFICULT I THINK	075. **[3]** TO PUT
		076. **[2]** ERR, SOME WORDS	076. **[3]** VERY USEFUL

		077. **[2]** THINK IT'S USEFUL	077. **[3]** HAVE SOME
		078. **[2]** WE CAN WE	078. **[3]** IN CLASS
		079. **[2]** THE MORE YOU	079. **[3]** PLAN THIS
		080. **[2]** WE DON'T KNOW	080.**[3]** COMMUNICATE WITH
		081. **[2]** YOU KNOW, IN	081. **[3]** USEFUL IN
		082. **[2]** SO I THINK	082. **[3]** OUR ENGLISH
		083. **[2]** ERR, FOR EXAMPLE	083. **[3]** THE WRITING
		084. **[2]** IT AGAIN AND	084. **[3]** FOR US
		085. **[2]** NEED THIS WORD	085. **[3]** AND SOME
		086. **[2]** MY MIND AND	086. **[3]** ENGLISH YEAH
		087. **[2]** THINK IT'S A	087. **[3]** WILL USE
		088. **[2]** THE CHINESE PEOPLE	088. **[3]** I HAVE
		089. **[2]** TO ENGLISH AND	089. **[3]** BUT ERR
		090. **[2]** CHINESE PEOPLE IN	090. **[3]** YOU MEAN'
		091. **[2]** 'YOU KNOW' AND	091. **[3]** LOT OF
		092. **[2]** TRANSLATE AND TRANSLATE	092. **[3]** AND IT'S
			093. **[3]** IN ENGLISH
			094. **[3]** THINK THAT
			095. **[3]** WILL NOT
			096. **[3]** THE MEANS
			097. **[3]** TRY TO
			98. **[3]** MY MIND
			99.**[3]** HAVE A
			100. **[3]**IT'S DIFFICULT

PPP group

5-wd strings: 4,389 Repeated: 26 (0.59%)	4-wd strings: 4,390 Repeated: 76 (1.73%)	3-wd strings: 4,391 Repeated: 229 (5.22%)	2-wd strings: 4,392 Repeated: 588 (13.39%)
TTR: 26:53 (1:2.03) Words: 130 (2.95% of tot)	TTR: 76:164 (1:2.15) Words: 304 (6.92% of tot)	TTR: 229:561 (1:2.44) Words: 687 (15.63% of tot)	TTR: 588:1994 (1:3.39) Words: 1176 (26.76% of tot)
001. **[3]** WE DON'T KNOW HOW TO	001. **[5]** DON'T KNOW HOW TO	001. **[7]** FOR EXAMPLE YOU	001. **[22]** I THINK
002. **[2]** TELL US HOW TO COOK	002. **[4]** I WILL DO THAT	002. **[7]** WILL DO THAT	002. **[15]** TO THE
003. **[2]** TAKE US TO THE SUPERMARKET	003. **[3]** HOW DO YOU SAY	003. **[6]** IS VERY USEFUL	003. **[15]** IN THE
004. **[2]** LAUGHTER RIGHT YES SO	004. **[3]** BEING IN THE UK	004. **[6]** IN THE CLASS	004. **[15]** FOR EXAMPLE
005. **[2]** OF US ALL OF US	005. **[3]** YOU CAN ASK THEM	005. **[5]** KNOW HOW TO	005. **[15]** IN ENGLISH
006. **[2]** DON'T LIKE PRACTICE AT ALL	006. **[3]** IN YOUR DAILY LIFE	006. **[5]** WE DON'T KNOW	006. **[14]** US TO
007. **[2]** IT IN OUR DAILY LIFE	007. **[3]** FOR A LONG TIME	007. **[5]** WITH EACH OTHER	007. **[14]** YOU CAN
008. **[2]** IF YOU PRACTISE A LOT	008. **[3]** TAKE US TO THE	008. **[5]** I THINK THE	008. **[14]** HOW TO
009. **[2]** ALL OF US ALL OF	009. **[3]** WE DON'T KNOW HOW	009. **[5]** DON'T KNOW HOW	009. **[14]** DAILY LIFE
010. **[2]** YOU PRACTISE A LOT IN	010. **[2]** MOST OF OUR CHINESE	010. **[4]** IN THE UK	010. **[11]** IF YOU
011. **[2]** IN CLASS IS NOT ENOUGH	011. **[2]** HOW MANY OF YOU	011. **[4]** I THINK IT'S	011. **[11]** IT'S JUST
012. **[2]** JUST BEING IN THE UK	012. **[2]** IN CLASS IS NOT	012. **[4]** I WILL DO	012. **[11]** YEAH
013. **[2]** AND I WILL DO THAT	013. **[2]** I HAVE TO RECORD	013. **[4]** YES YES YES	013. **[11]** DON'T KNOW
014. **[2]** LIKE PRACTICE AT ALL YEAH	014. **[2]** WILL DO THAT BECAUSE	014. **[4]** YOUR DAILY LIFE	014. **[11]** YES YES
015. **[2]** IS VERY USEFUL I THINK	015. **[2]** AND I WILL DO	015. **[4]** I THINK YOU	015. **[10]** VERY USEFUL
016. **[2]** TO EACH OTHER IN ENGLISH	016. **[2]** THEY HAVE TO DO	016. **[4]** FOR A LONG	016. **[10]** DO YOU
017. **[2]** AND THE NEXT TIME YOU	017. **[2]** EACH OTHER IN ENGLISH	017. **[4]** US HOW TO	017. **[10]** USE IT
018. **[2]** FOR EXAMPLE YOU TOLD US	018. **[2]** THE PRIMARY SCHOOL TO	018. **[4]** USE IT IN	018. **[10]** WE WILL
019. **[2]** YOU CAN ASK THEM YOU	019. **[2]** AND THE NEXT TIME	019. **[4]** BECAUSE WE ARE	019. **[10]** IS VERY
020. **[2]** STAY HERE FOR A LONG	020. **[2]** AND TELL US HOW	020. **[4]** YOU CAN ASK	020. **[9]** DON'T LIKE

021. **[2]** PRIMARY SCHOOL TO THE HIGH	021. **[2]** DAILY LIFE FOR EXAMPLE	021. **[4]** HOW DO YOU	021. **[9]** YEAH YEAH
022. **[2]** JUST DON'T LIKE PRACTICE AT	022. **[2]** LAUGHTER RIGHT YES	022. **[4]** WHEN WE TALK	022. **[9]** HAVE TO
023. **[2]** WE WILL TALK IN ENGLISH	023. **[2]** US ALL OF US	023. **[4]** AND THEN WE	023. **[9]** AND I
024. **[2]** HERE FOR A LONG TIME	024. **[2]** CLASS IS NOT ENOUGH	024. **[4]** I DON'T LIKE	024. **[9]** EACH OTHER
025. **[2]** THE PRIMARY SCHOOL TO THE	025. **[2]** IF YOU PRACTISE A	025. **[4]** TAKE US TO	025. **[9]** NATIVE SPEAKERS
026. **[2]** DON'T KNOW HOW TO EXPLAIN	026. **[2]** GOING TO DO THIS	026. **[4]** DON'T LIKE PRACTICE	026. **[9]** I DON'T
	027. **[2]** YOU ASK US TO	027. **[4]** THEY HAVE TO	027. **[9]** I I
	028. **[2]** YOU PRACTISE A LOT	028. **[3]** IN YOUR DAILY	028. **[9]** WILL DO
	029. **[2]** THE NEXT TIME YOU	029. **[3]** THINK PRACTICE IS	029. **[8]** AND YOU
	030. **[2]** I THOUGHT ABOUT IT	030. **[3]** BEING IN THE	030. **[8]** DO THAT
	031. **[2]** THINK YOU SHOULD PROBABLY	031. **[3]** HOW TO ANSWER	031. **[8]** IT IS
	032. **[2]** US HOW TO COOK	032. **[3]** AND TELL US	032. **[8]** WHEN WE
	033. **[2]** STAY HERE FOR A	033. **[3]** THE NEXT TIME	033. **[8]** THE CHINESE
	034. **[2]** I I THINK IT'S	034. **[3]** JUST DON'T LIKE	034. **[8]** WE ARE
	035. **[2]** FOR EXAMPLE YOU CAN	035. **[3]** YEAH IT'S JUST	035. **[8]** THE CLASS
	036. **[2]** LIKE PRACTICE AT ALL	036. **[3]** A LITTLE BIT	036. **[8]** YOU KNOW
	037. **[2]** I DON'T LIKE PRACTICE	037. **[3]** TO THE SUPERMARKET	037. **[8]** LIKE THE
	038. **[2]** RIGHT YES SO	038. **[3]** TELL US HOW	038. **[8]** YOU SHOULD
	039. **[2]** HOW YOUR NATIVE SPEAKERS	039. **[3]** YOU SHOULD PROBABLY	039. **[7]** THINK IT'S
	040. **[2]** OF US ALL OF	040. **[3]** CAN ASK THEM	040. **[7]** WE TALK
	041. **[2]** FOR EXAMPLE YOU TOLD	041. **[3]** USEFUL I THINK	041. **[7]** AND THEN
	042. **[2]** US TO DO SOMETHING	042. **[3]** AND YOU CAN	042. **[7]** CHINESE STUDENTS
	043. **[2]** WILL TALK IN ENGLISH	043. **[3]** DO YOU SAY	043. **[7]** AND THE
	044. **[2]** ALL OF US ALL	044. **[3]** IN ENGLISH YEAH	044. **[7]** TO DO

	045. **[2]** PRIMARY SCHOOL TO THE	045. **[3]** TO EACH OTHER	045. **[7]** EXAMPLE YOU
	046. **[2]** IN CHINESE AND TRANSLATE	046. **[3]** DOES IT HELP	046. **[7]** WILL BE
	047. **[2]** THINK ABOUT THE CHINESE	047. **[3]** A LONG TIME	047. **[7]** AND WE
	048. **[2]** DON'T LIKE PRACTICE AT	048. **[3]** I I THINK	048. **[7]** YOU SAY
	049. **[2]** OR SOMETHING LIKE THIS	049. **[3]** ALL OF US	049. **[7]** TELL US
	050. **[2]** THEY WOULD DO IT	050. **[3]** US TO THE	050. **[6]** I WILL
	051. **[2]** WE WILL TALK IN	051. **[3]** TALK IN ENGLISH	051. **[6]** US HOW
	052. **[2]** IS VERY USEFUL I	052. **[3]** HOW ARE YOU	052. **[6]** YOU HAVE
	053. **[2]** IN OUR DAILY LIFE	053. **[3]** IN CHINESE AND	053. **[6]** TO USE
	054. **[2]** HERE FOR A LONG	054. **[3]** ASK US TO	054. **[6]** YEAH IT'S
	055. **[2]** DOES IT DOES IT	055. **[3]** WE WANT TO	055. **[6]** KIND OF
	056. **[2]** EXAMPLE YOU TOLD US	056. **[2]** I THINK PRACTICE	056. **[6]** YEAH YES
	057. **[2]** US TO THE SUPERMARKET	057. **[2]** TO LEARN ENGLISH	057. **[6]** TO LEARN
	058. **[2]** PRACTISE A LOT IN	058. **[2]** THE NATIVE SPEAKERS	058. **[6]** IT IN
	059. **[2]** TELL US HOW TO	059. **[2]** THINK ABOUT THE	059. **[6]** WE CAN
	060. **[2]** JUST BEING IN THE	060. **[2]** NO NO NO	060. **[6]** THINK YOU
	061. **[2]** CAN ASK THEM YOU	061. **[2]** YOU DON'T HAVE	061. **[6]** A LOT
	062. **[2]** WHEN YOU WHEN YOU	062. **[2]** HOW TO COOK	062. **[6]** TO SAY
	063. **[2]** JUST DON'T LIKE PRACTICE	063. **[2]** HAVE TO RECORD	063. **[6]** YES YES
	064. **[2]** TO EACH OTHER IN	064. **[2]** RIGHT YES SO	064. **[6]** WE SHOULD
	065. **[2]** VERY USEFUL I THINK	065. **[2]** THE TIME IT'S	065. **[6]** THINK THE
	066. **[2]** I'D SAID FOR EXAMPLE	066. **[2]** LAUGHTER YEAH	066. **[6]** BECAUSE WE
	067. **[2]** IT IN OUR DAILY	067. **[2]** WHEN YOU WHEN	067. **[6]** SO WE
	068. **[2]** PRACTICE AT ALL YEAH	068. **[2]** TO THE HIGH	068. **[6]** ABOUT IT
	069. **[2]** I THINK PRACTICE IS	069. **[2]** OR SOMETHING LIKE	069. **[6]** DO IT
	070. **[2]** IN ENGLISH SO WE	070. **[2]** IT IN OUR	070. **[6]** FOR A

	071. **[2]** I THINK YOU CAN	071. **[2]** WE NEVER COMPARE	071. **[6]** IN CHINESE
	072. **[2]** KNOW HOW TO EXPLAIN	072. **[2]** WILL REMEMBER IT	072. **[6]** DOES IT
	073. **[2]** FAMILIAR WITH EACH OTHER	073. **[2]** IN OUR DAILY	073. **[6]** BUT BUT
	074. **[2]** SCHOOL TO THE HIGH	074. **[2]** WOULD DO IT	074. **[6]** REMEMBER IT
	075. **[2]** WILL DO THAT	075. **[2]** YOU KNOW ERR	075. **[5]** WITH EACH
	076. **[2]** BECAUSE WE ARE QUITE	076. **[2]** AND I WILL	076. **[5]** YOU YOU
		077. **[2]** CHINESE STUDENTS IS	077. **[5]** THE UK
		078. **[2]** MOST OF US	078. **[5]** GOING TO
		079. **[2]** NEXT TIME YOU	079. **[5]** NO NO
		080. **[2]** SO I DON'T	080. **[5]** AND AND
		081. **[2]** SPOKEN ENGLISH MORE	081. **[5]** THE ENGLISH
		082. **[2]** US ALL OF	082. **[5]** CAN WATCH
		083. **[2]** WE COME HERE	083. **[5]** IT'S VERY
		084. **[2]** IT YES WE	084. **[5]** WHEN YOU
		085. **[2]** THINKING IN CHINESE	085. **[5]** DON'T THINK
		086. **[2]** AND 'THANK YOU'	086. **[5]** YES
		087. **[2]** COME TO CLASS	087. **[5]** TALKING TO
		088. **[2]** ENGLISH SO WE	088. **[5]** LIKE PRACTICE
		089. **[2]** AT ALL YEAH	089. **[5]** KNOW HOW
		090. **[2]** WE ARE QUITE	090. **[5]** YEAH YEAH
		091. **[2]** DON'T THINK IT'S	091. **[5]** A LONG
		092. **[2]** LIFE FOR EXAMPLE	092. **[5]** WE JUST
		093. **[2]** HELP US TO	093. **[5]** IT'S NOT
		094. **[2]** WILL TALK IN	094. **[5]** JUST DON'T
		095. **[2]** WE TALK TO	095. **[5]** OF THE
		096. **[2]** THOUGHT ABOUT IT	096. **[5]** THE NEXT
		097. **[2]** THE PRIMARY SCHOOL	097. **[5]** TALK TO
		98. **[2]** EXAMPLE YOU TOLD	098. **[5]** IN YOUR

		99. **[2]** YOU TOLD US	099.**[5]** WE DON'T
		100. **[2]** THEY WOULD DO	100. **[5]** NEXT TIME

Appendix 13 Chinese translations of target discourse markers

Spoken DM/function	Example	Chinese equivalent	Roman spelling
Right (Opening a topic or conversation)	*Right*, shall we start?	好	hǎo
So (Opening a topic or conversation)	*So*, what do you think about the cuts?	那么	Name
Right (Closing a topic or conversation)	*Right*, I think that's everything.	好了	hǎo le
Anyway (Closing a topic or conversation)	*Anyway*, I'd better go, I'll see you next week.	好了	hǎo le
Well (Closing a topic or conversation)	*Well*, that's everything then.	好	hǎo
You see (Monitoring shared knowledge)	*You see*, since I've hurt my back I can't walk very well. (I cannot be sure the listener knows this).	你知道吗	nǐ zhīdao ma
You know (Monitoring shared knowledge)	The weather in England is, *you know*, pretty awful (I expect the listener to know this).	你知道。	nǐ zhīdao
Right (Responding to someone)	A.I think we should go there first. B. *Right*	行 or 好。	hǎo
I mean(Reformulating what you have said)	I don't like English food. *I mean*, some of it is ok but most of it I don't like.	我是说	wǒ shì shuō
Mind you (Reformulating what you have said)	The weather in England is terrible. *Mind you*, I guess it's ok sometimes.	不过	Búguò
Well (Pausing)	A. What do you think of the plan? B. *Well*, let's see, I guess it's a good idea.	呃 or 嗯	e or en
Well (Shifting)	A. Do you live in Preston? B. *Well*, near Preston.	嗯	En
First (Sequencing)	*First*, we started walking quickly…	首先	Shǒuxiān
Then (Sequencing)	*Then*, we started running…	然后	Ránhòu
In the end (Sequencing)	*In the end*, we managed to escape.	最后	Zuìhòu
Anyway (Resuming)	Erm, yeah,*anyway*, we started walking really fast	话说回来 or 不管怎么说	huà shuō huílai *or* bùguǎn zěnme shuō

As I was saying (Resuming)	Erm, yeah, *as I was saying*, we started walking really fast	话说回来 or 不管怎么说	huà shuō huílai *or* bùguǎn zěnme shuō
Where was I? (Resuming)	Erm, *where was I*? We started walking fast and then started running.	我刚才说什么来着？	wǒ gāngcái shuō shénme lái zhe
Like (Giving examples)	I think being healthy is much more important so you need to have, *like*, green food.	比如说	bǐrú shuō
Cos (Justifying)	I don't want to go *cos* it's too expensive	因为 （or simply with a pause）	Yīnwéi