Awareness-Raising of Formulaic Language in EFL: A Task-Based Teaching Study

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Abstract

This task-based teaching exploratory study investigates whether the acquisition of greetings and closings in English can be improved through the use of highlighted input to raise the learner’s awareness in comparison to teaching without this technique. Moreover, this study also investigates whether using a task-based approach helps the learning of common formulaic expressions in an EFL setting. The thirty-six participants were low-proficiency students from Grade 6 in a school in Catalonia, Spain. They completed a treatment that consisted of six sessions: two sessions per task. Tasks were always preceded by form-focused pre-tasks and followed by post-tasks to further practice the target expressions. Learning was measured by a discourse completion test, which measured the productive skills of greetings and closings both before and after receiving the treatment. Findings revealed the effectiveness of the incorporation of input enhancement as a technique for teaching greetings and closings. The experimental group showed larger gains in formulaic expression acquisition as determined by the discourse completion test when compared to the control group, who did not receive enhanced input. Furthermore, the control group, also considerably learned the target expressions. This could be partially attributed to using the communicative TBLT approach.

Key words: task-based language teaching (TBLT), formulaic language, pragmatics, input enhancement, English as a foreign language (EFL), greetings, closings.
**Resumen**

Este estudio exploratorio de enseñanza basado en tareas investiga si la adquisición de saludos y despedidas en inglés se puede mejorar mediante el realce del input para aumentar la conciencia del alumno en comparación con la enseñanza sin esta técnica. Además, este estudio también investiga si el uso de un enfoque basado en tareas ayuda al aprendizaje del lenguaje formulaico en un entorno donde se aprende inglés como lengua extranjera. Los treinta y seis participantes eran estudiantes con un nivel principiante de 6º grado de Primaria de una escuela en Cataluña, España. Completaron un tratamiento que consistía en seis sesiones que consistían en 2 sesiones por tarea. Las tareas siempre estaban precedidas por tareas previas centradas en la forma y seguidas de tareas posteriores para practicar más las *target expressions*. El aprendizaje se midió mediante un cuestionario de hábitos sociales (DCT) que midió las habilidades productivas que tenían los alumnos de saludos y despedidas antes y después de recibir el tratamiento. Los hallazgos revelaron la efectividad del realce del input como una técnica para enseñar saludos y despedidas. El grupo experimental mostró mayores ganancias en la adquisición de lenguaje formulaico según lo determinado por el cuestionario de hábitos sociales en comparación con el grupo de control, que no recibió un input modificado. Además, el grupo de control también aprendió considerablemente las *target expressions*, llevando a pensar que esto podría atribuirse al uso del enfoque comunicativo TBLT.

**Palabras clave:** enseñanza de lenguas basada en tareas, lenguaje formulaico, pragmática, realce del input, inglés como lengua extranjera, saludos, despedidas.
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1. Introduction
Researchers agree that a great majority of language is composed of automatised language that is stored in long-term memory (LTM). For native speakers (NSs), this type of language is acquired naturally without any form of instruction. However, learners of a foreign language, in this case English, have to learn from scratch not just the vocabulary and grammar of a language, but also the pragmatic aspects of it. Furthermore, this also entails learning extensive formulaic language expressions. Our conversations are rife with examples of formulaic language such as phrasal verbs, lexical phrases, idioms, conversational formula, etc. and we use them unconsciously in our native language on a daily basis. However, formulaic language is rarely taught in a foreign language context. Useful conversational formulas are used frequently in English speaking countries through small talk and is still a challenge for some learners who are otherwise proficient in their L2 (Boers & Lindstromberg, 2012). This highlights the teaching difficulty in this area and therefore presents increased challenge for L2 speakers in their endeavour to master conversational formula and, more generally, formulaic language. L2 speakers are rarely immersed in a context where the target language (TL) is used. For this reason, traditional methods of teaching language, where learners are exposed to an artificial context, may not be the most effective systems. Instead, it has been suggested that learners should be exposed to real pragmatic contexts similar to the ones they might encounter in an English-speaking country. Yet, how can we create an almost-natural context where all aspects of pragmatics are taught? Researchers of Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) present this methodological approach as a potential method that meets the requirements: to teach pragmatics as a learner-centred communicative approach that uses authentic language through pedagogical tasks that have been purposely designed to teach a specific area of a language (Richard & Rodgers, 2001; Ellis, 2005; Nunan, 2004). Therefore, this approach might be more suitable when teaching conversational formula, and language in general, as it allows students to choose the language they know at any particular stage during a task, while simultaneously helping students focus on grammatical features too (Long, 2000). Moreover, during the pre-task, task cycle, and post-task, focus on form techniques such as input enhancement can be used in order to make the target expressions more salient so that the learner is conscious of their usage and therefore lead to a potentially more solid acquisition. This paper investigates whether raising the learners’ awareness
through input enhancement, some previously chosen target expressions has any effect on their learning of them.

2. Literature Review

Before describing the study in this paper, it is essential to first describe its context in relation to notable work previously completed in the field of TBLT and Formulaic Language by other researchers.

2.1. Why Use TBLT for Teaching Formulaic Language / Pragmatics?

2.1.1. What is a Task? / What is TBLT?

For the last 40 years, a methodology called Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) has been given special attention. As its name indicates, this approach uses tasks in order to teach a language. This raises the question as to what it really means to teach through tasks. Is it related to the tasks that people usually complete on a daily basis? How can these tasks be implemented in a classroom setting? Many questions arise when teachers and people in general, first hear the concept ‘task’ as it may seem a bit vague.

Authors have historically given different definitions of what a task is. Some are highly generalised and not applied to teaching, as Long once proposed: “…by ‘task’ is meant a hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play, and in between. Tasks are the things people will tell you they do if you ask them, and they are not applied linguists” (Long, 1985). Long then continues to broaden his definition:

“In other words, ‘task’ in TBLT has its normal non-technical meaning. Tasks are the real-world activities people think of when planning, conducting, or recalling their day. That can mean things like brushing their teeth, preparing breakfast, reading a newspaper, taking a child to school, responding to e-mail messages, making sales call, attending a lecture or a business meeting, having lunch with a colleague from work, helping a child with homework, coaching a soccer team, and watching a TV program. Some tasks are mundane, some complex. Some require language use, some do not; for others, it is optional” (Long, 2015).

With this broad definition, Long includes not only the tasks that require language in order to be completed but also tasks that do not, such as preparing for breakfast and brushing your teeth.

Other authors are more specific and relate the concept of a ‘task’ to language: A task is “a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, producing or
interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form” Nunan (2004). Ellis (2005) continues to mention the fact that tasks are meaning-focused and not form-focused. He does this by making a distinction between tasks and exercises: “‘Tasks’ are activities that call for primarily meaning-focused language use. In contrast ‘exercises’ are activities that call for primarily form-focused language use” (Ellis, 2005).

Therefore, there is an ongoing debate on whether the tasks we all know from real life can be effectively and realistically transferred to a classroom as pedagogical tasks, given that a classroom does not offer the same environment as that encountered in real-world situations (Sánchez, 2004). However, these debates have not deterred those who have researched further and have given support to this new and advanced learning method. Tasks and TBLT in general give learners the opportunity to train their English skills and so it promotes learning. Teachers are there to be both instructors and guides, and learners are both receivers and main agents (Murat & Sibel Hismanoglu, 2011). That is, teachers and students cooperate so that learners acquire the knowledge in the process of completing tasks. Nonetheless, learning a language should not involve generic or meaningless tasks. Instead, some steps should be followed for TBLT to work effectively: (Ellis, 2009):

➢ The tasks must be adapted to the linguistic proficiency levels of the students (e.g. if the students have restricted proficiency, tasks should first be of the input supplying rather than output-producing type).

➢ Tasks should be trialled to provide that they contribute to suitable L2 use and revised within the framework of experience.

➢ For TBLT to work, teachers should have an overt comprehension of what a task is.

➢ Teachers and students should be made familiar with the purpose and logic behind doing tasks (e.g. they should comprehend that tasks contribute to incidental learning of the kind that will pave the way for the development of their communicative skills).

➢ Principally, the teachers engaging in teaching a task-based course must be engaged in the design of the task materials. (Hismanoglu, 2011)

One of the most important areas of TBLT is the creation of the tasks themselves. As mentioned above, tasks need to be adapted to the proficiency levels of the students so that they can effectively comprehend them in order to fulfil the requirements of the task. If a
task is too challenging to understand what is being asked, then they are more likely to lose motivation and abandon the task. Therefore, tasks must be adequate for learners to use all their linguistic resources. Moreover, teachers must be familiar with the tasks in their definition, contents and the process in which they must be carried out given that they need to be continuously monitoring the tasks while in progress. Perhaps most importantly, teachers need to be aware of their role in the big picture of the learning process. At times, it will be challenging for teachers to adopt the role of guide since the teaching of second languages has traditionally adopted teacher-centred approaches in recent history. We will comment on other approaches in the following section.

2.1.2. Synthetic and Analytical Approaches

When teaching a language, there is often a debate as to which approach is most appropriate to apply. Both synthetic and analytic approaches seem to be fighting for being ‘the approach’ to teach languages. After decades of research, researchers are now generally learning towards the analytic approaches. As Sánchez (2004) highlights:

“Both the ‘grammatical’ and the ‘conversational’ approaches have been permanently in tension with each other and are representative of a dichotomy that seems to reappear again and again in different ways and formats: written vs. oral language; learning grammar vs. learning how to speak; and formal vs. informal language use. In the last part of the 20th Century the dichotomy focus on form vs. focus on content, teaching and learning language for accuracy vs. teaching and learning language for meaning developed as the new paradigm. Emphasis on one or the other end of the scale tends to be cyclical, so that if form, structure and accuracy prevailed in the sixties and seventies, meaning and communicative potential gained momentum in the eighties and afterwards”.

On the one hand, synthetic approaches divide lessons into linguistic units: words, collocations, grammar rules, sentence patterns, notions and functions, etc. Typically, in this synthetic approach, contents are selected and organised in terms of difficulty, and therefore sequenced according to certain criteria. Due to the fact that learners do not have many opportunities to use the language, they are expected to synthesise the information they are given. Essentially, they should consolidate all of the different contents that have been provided separately in order to communicate with other people. Since language comprises many constituent aspects, such as grammar, vocabulary, pragmatics, etc., It is very difficult for learners to put together in practice aspects from areas that they have learned separately (Long 2015, p. 19-20). Unlike textbooks, real life language is not divided in chapters each covering a certain tense or a certain modal. Presentation-Practice-Production is the formula used in this kind of approach, where learners are first
presented a linguistic unit, they then practice it through exercises, and finally producing what they have learned. This is an example of a teacher-fronted approach that does not leave much room for learners to practice what they have learnt: they only have the freedom to practice the linguistic unit they have been presented with and in the limited frame they are given in the exercises. As Izadpanah (2010) states:

“teacher-centred controls, threats, rewards and restrictions are not an effective means of stimulating learning, since no-one can be forced to learn. If we can instead stimulate a need to learn, and a desire to learn, based on unconditional respect and mutual trust, learning will take place in an enjoyable and facilitative way”.

On the other hand, the analytic approach or Focus on Meaning does the opposite of the synthetic approach. While synthetic approaches only focus on a few linguistic items, analytic approaches expose learners to a “gestalt sample of the L2, as natural and authentic representations of target language communication as possible” (Long 2015, p. 20). There is no focus on grammar aspects, learners are expected to comprehend the language rules by themselves through this input. As Long (2015) states, “the idea is that, much in the way children learn their L1, adults can best learn a L2 incidentally, through using it”.

In these immersion courses, learners should analyse the language and to infer, not deduce the language rules by themselves. Long agrees that the analytic approaches seem to be more in line with the established understanding of how we learn a language, and that therefore they are more suitable than synthetic approaches. However, although analytic approaches are freed from “unnatural classroom language use”, they are not without problems of their own. Learners are less likely to learn a second language just by being exposed to it as they do when acquiring their first language in infancy. Other problems exist such as the ‘low saliency’ of some linguistic units, learners will have to ‘unlearn’ many aspects of their L1 so that they do not interfere in their learning of the L2 through negative transfer and, finally, Focus on Meaning does not take into account that same kind of focus on language should also be applied in order to learn a language.

TBLT is an alternative to those two approaches. It attempts to combine the positive aspects of the two previously defined approaches: the synthetic Focus on FormS and the analytical Focus on Meaning. But why do some researchers consider that this is the most suitable approach?
First, teaching through tasks gives learners freedom to use what they already know, “accommodating to the different rhythms in which learners acquire the language”.

Secondly, they are grounds for hypotheses testing (Swain & Lapkin, 1995), for interaction, negotiation of meaning and feedback (Gass & Mackey, 2007), all of which are said to be conducive to second language acquisition.

Thirdly, they encourage noticing and cognitive comparison (Doughty, 2001; Swain, 1995), two processes of memory that are claimed to lead to second language acquisition.

Other: motivation, implicit learning, practice.

When comparing the pros and cons of the three approaches, one could argue that TBLT might provide the most suitable environment for the learning process to happen. Furthermore, as Long states, “people learn best through personal experience, through practical hands-on work with real-world tasks. Theories and abstract concepts come alive when made visible in everyday life. What is learned is better understood, better remembered, and more easily retrieved if tied to real-world activities or tasks” (Long 2015, p. 67). Therefore, everything that is related to our experience increases our attention and hence, our motivation towards what we are doing.

2.1.3. Input and Interaction in TBLT

TBLT has gained popularity among researchers because it provides an environment where learners can interact and receive natural input. This would resemble learning a language in a natural context and so facilitate language learning through the completion of tasks. As Larsen-Freeman (2000) points out, “since language learners make an effort to perform a task, they have rich opportunity to interact with their peers. It is this interaction that is assumed to ease language acquisition in that learners are tor try to comprehend each other and to present their own meaning” (Murat & Sibel Hismanoglu, 2011). Long highlighted the importance of interaction when learning a language and proposed the Interaction Hypothesis, which holds the idea that interaction creates an environment for learning:

“Environmental contributions to acquisition are mediated by selective attention and the learner’s developing L2 processing capacity, and … these resources are brought together most usefully, although not exclusively, during negotiation for meaning. Negative feedback obtained during
negotiation work or elsewhere may be facilitative of L2 development, at least for vocabulary, morphology, and language-specific syntax, and essential for leaning certain specifiable L1-L2 contrasts’ (Long 1996, p. 414).

It might seem obvious to think that interaction is needed for learning a language. Nevertheless, if a learner is not immersed in a natural context and can only attend a few EFL classes in a non-English speaking country, an effort should be made in order to create the most ideal environment in classes and to promote communication and interaction among learners so that the context is as similar as the one found in a natural context. Consequently, TBLT can be classified as ‘a conversational and or natural approach’ (Sánchez, 1992; 1997; 2004)

There are some arguments that support the idea that TBLT may not be a natural approach given that learners do not have the same level of proficiency as native speakers. However, through exposure to input and interaction with other interlocutors, language learners have opportunities to detect differences between their own output and the language of the most competent interlocutors (Gass & Mackey, 2007). Even though interaction should not be treated as the essential component of tasks, but as something that is needed for a task when it is introduced into a classroom (Aquilino Sánchez, 2004). Hence, TBLT goes one step beyond as regards interaction compared to other approaches. As Murat & Sibel Hismanoglu (2011) claim:

“the task-based viewpoint of language teaching has emerged in response to some constraints of the traditional PPP approach. (…) it has the significant meaning that language learning is a developmental process enhancing communication and social interaction rather than a product internalised by practicing language items, and that learners master the target language more powerfully when being exposed to meaningful task-based activities in a natural way”.

One recurrent task-based activity is role-play. In role-plays, students are presented with a real or artificial environment and they have to perform a role as they would do in the real life. Based on observation in the conversation class, there is evidence to think of the role-play to be an ‘ideal activity’ in which learners can freely use their linguistic resources and to practice and develop their communication skills (Mahalakshmi & Dorathy, 2011).

2.1.4. Attention, Raising Awareness and Noticing Gaps

It is claimed that in the completion of the tasks through interaction learners will pay attention to the input. If this is comprehensible, they will potentially be conscious of some linguistic items they had not noticed before and this will therefore lead to them noticing linguistics gaps that they might have in their knowledge. Therefore, attention plays an
important role in the learning process. Attention is an “essential prerequisite” for noticing (Robinson, 2012; Schmidt, 1995) (Long, 2015 p.51). Particularly, Schmidt argues that noticing at the level of awareness is necessary for input to become intake. He posits: Input + noticing = intake (Schmidt, 1990) (R. Mayén, 2013). Following the same idea, Tomlin & Vila (1994) also argue that:

“Detection is the key attentional moment that enables learners to use the detected grammatical instance as data to formulate and test hypothesis about L2 grammar facilitating second language acquisition. Put in other words, detection is the attentional process that is responsible for intake derivation of L2 input. They stated that once information is detected, the further processing of that information is possible” (R. Mayén, 2013).

It is also worth saying that for a word to be detected and processed, it needs to be encountered many times in the input for incidental learning to happen (Naggy & Anderson, 1984). In order to facilitate the learning process, there are techniques that researchers and teachers can use to guide the learners’ attention towards the target expressions; this in turn makes them salient so that it is easier for learners to notice them.

2.1.4.1. Focus-on-form Techniques

One of the useful techniques proposed by Sharwood Smith (1993) is called input enhancement. This technique is used in order to make certain linguistic forms more salient than the rest of the text by manipulating the typography: highlighting, underlining, colouring, bolding… It seems that much of the research on this pedagogical technique has focused on adults learning an L2, so it is reasonable to identify a need of more investigation in child L2 acquisition. Studies offer mixed findings on the effects of textual input enhancement on the acquisition of the linguistic items and no consensus has been reached yet (R. Mayén, 2013).

Boers and Lindstromberg (2012) propose different pedagogical strategies to teach formulaic language. One of them is to ‘draw learners’ attention to formulaic sequences as they are encountered. Hence, one of the ways to help learners focus their attention on formulaic language or on language in general would be to use input enhancement. Lewis (1993) recommended that, given the limited amount of time in a class, it makes more sense to use activities to raise the learners’ awareness of target expressions rather than to directly teach them (Boers and Lindstromberg, 2012).

So far, we have explored what is meant by tasks, looked at different approaches to teaching and taken a deeper look in to how certain techniques may draw attention to form.
The remainder of this literature review will turn to how formulaic language, which as we have seen has been often neglected in teaching, may be specifically targeted.

2.2. Formulaic Language

2.2.1. Definition

Taking into consideration the numerous instances of formulaic language in our everyday speech, formulaic language has been gaining importance in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA). But what is formulaic language? Is it really such an essential part of languages that without it some meaning of what is being said is lost? To answer this question, it is important to describe and explain what formulaic language is. When searching for the concept of formulaic language one realises that there are many terms used for referring to this concept, such as: “sentence stems (Pawley & Syder, 1983), lexical phrases (Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992), chunks (Ellis, 1996), and multiword items (Nation, 2013). Wray (2002) and Schmitt and Carter (2004) agreed on the term formulaic sequences” (Le-Thi, Rodgers, & Sánchez, 2018). In addition to these preferred names of formulaic language, Wray discovered there were even more terms researchers used in other to refer to formulaic language:


Figure 1 - Terms used to describe aspects of formulaicity (Wray, 2002 p. 9)

Faced with such a term inflation, Wray commented on the importance of having one term that does not “carry any previous baggage”. She proposes using the term formulaic
sequence for the following reasons: “The word ‘formulaic’ carries with it some association of ‘unity’ and of ‘custom’ and ‘habit’, while sequence indicates that there is more than one discernible internal unit, of whatever kind” (Wray 2002, p.9). There was a need to unify all of these words into one that could be representative of all of various meanings associated to formulaic language. Selivan (2018) also states that applied linguists prefer to call them formulaic language; therefore, the most common ways to refer to this term are ‘formulaic language’ and ‘formulaic sequences’. In this study, these two terms will be used interchangeably without distinction. Another common problem arises in the definition of formulaic language considering that it is an umbrella term that includes various types of chunks of language. One of the most recognised definitions of formulaic language is the one from Wray, who defines it as “a sequence, continuous or discontinuous, of words or other elements, which is, or appears to be, prefabricated: that is, stored and retrieved whole from memory at the time of use, rather than being subject to generation or analysis by the language grammar” (p. 9). Also, Schmitt defines it as “recurrent multi-word lexical items that have a single meaning or function” (Schmitt, 2010). In other words and as its own name specifies, formulaic sequences are various words that convey just one idea and not several ideas as many words the sequence has, and it seems to have processing advantages over single words as their occurrence is recurrent and are fixed in form. How formulaic sequences are processed will be dealt in the next section.

What exactly do we classify as formulaic sequences? Formulaic language comprises idioms, collocations, phrasal verbs, lexical bundles, lexical phrases, phrasal expressions, pragmatic routines, etc. Although, in order to be considered as formulaic language it has to follow some rules. Coulmas (1979) outlines conditions which need to be met if a sequence is to be considered formulaic: “Two conditions, that the unit must be at least two morphemes long and cohere phonologically, are identified as necessary for formulaicity” (Wood, 2010 p.40). While Wray gives other criteria to take into consideration when determining if a chunk is formulaic or not: “structure or form which often begin with conjunctions, articles, pronouns, prepositions or discourse markers”. Compositionality, the string in no longer obliged to be grammatically regular or semantically logical. Also fixedness, “or the tendency for prefabricated sequences to be of invariable form is another such criterion” (Wood, 2010 p.45). Consequently, as Wray states: “identification cannot be based on a single criterion, but rather needs to draw on a suite of features” (p.43).
What is interesting is that most of our language is formulaic. As Fillmore (1976) points out, “an enormously large amount of natural language is formulaic, automatic and rehearsed, rather than propositional, creative or freely generated” (Conklin & Schmitt, 2012). It is reasonable to think that the same way we are “creatures of habit in other aspects of our behaviour”, we are also following habits when we use the language (Nattinger & Decarrico, 1992; op. cit. Wray, 2002). Some authors dare to give an approximate figure of the quantity of formulaic language we have stored in our brains. For example, Altenberg, (1987); Erman and Warren, (2000) agree that approximately 50 to 80% of native-speaker speech consists of formulaic language (Selivan, 2018).

It is also claimed that an L2 leaner is considered to be fluent once he/she managed to learn a large number of formulaic sequences, because they are essential for L2 language comprehension and acquisition (Wuijibudula, 2018). There is a strong agreement on the importance of acquiring formulaic language: “there is plenty of evidence that learners have a lot to gain from building a sizable repertoire of L2 formulaic sequences language” (Boers & Lindstromberg, 2012). Moreover, formulaic language has great sociolinguistic importance: “Achieving pragmatics in speech community enables individuals to produce meaning in socially acceptable manner” (Taguchi, 2007; op. cit. Wuijibudula, 2018). Hence, the interest for teaching formulaic language has been increasing over the past decades for its vast presence in languages.

2.2.2. The Processing of Formulaic Language

One of the key aspects of formulaic language is that these chunks are stored in our brain as individual wholes, more specifically they are stored in our long-term memory (LTM), which is ‘a storehouse of knowledge’ whose contents range from lexis to syntactic and morphological rules (Wood, 2010). It is said that the way we speak comes from a combination of a great number of formulaic sequences and of ‘novel items (ad hoc generated items)’ using creativity (Selivan, 2018). Normally this creativity tends to happen more in speech. (Keckses, 2017). According to Selivan (2018): “Once a chunk has been committed to long-term memory, a chunk can be retrieved and used ‘as is’ or with modifications, if necessary, by-passing the need to generate it from individual words and grammatical rules”. As a consequence, speech flows better when knowing a great quantity of chunks, since there is no need to stop the flow of the conversation to think about what it is being said. As Conklin & Schmitt (2012) point out: “It makes sense that
our brains would make use of a relatively abundant resource (long-term memory) to compensate for a relative lack in another (working-memory) by storing frequently occurring formulaic sequences.”

In spite of being a great advantage for native speakers, L2 learners might not naturally retrieve formulaic language from long-term memory as natives would do, due to the fact that these formulaic expressions may not be fully internalised as wholes yet. One of the reasons could be that there have not been enough instances of a chunk for learners to notice it, and by extension, internalise it. Especially if we consider lower proficiency non-native speakers or very young children (Wray, 2008) (Conklin & Schmitt, 2012). Furthermore, other researchers like Boers & Lindstromberg (2012) argue that this also might be the case for advanced L2 learners who use formulaic expressions, but do not process them as formulaic but as separate words. Consequently, although they are competent in the L2 and can produce grammatically correct sentences, they can sometimes conjure up more unnatural ones. I agree with Selivan that this is one of the reasons why formulaic language should be taught explicitly but I would also add that it could be more suitable if it was explicitly taught with a communicative approach. This way it would not sound as synthetic as having a long list of items but teaching them in a real context. Eventually, L2 learners would have a large bank of memorised formulaic sequences ready to use in different communicative contexts.

But, how does this process of internalising formulaic language really work? According to Selivan, everything starts by being exposed to the language. “After learning a common chunk such as ‘what’s your name?’ and internalising it as a single unit, learners realise that you can play with the chunk and utter other sentences such as ‘what’s your address?’ or ‘what’s your phone number?’” He continues, “That is the process of segmentation: the learner becomes aware that ‘what’s your name’ contains a variable slot which can be filled by other noun phrases (address, phone, number) and the chunk becomes a pattern”.

One fascinating example of how crucial formulaic sequences are in SLA, in terms of processing, is how patients with aphasia struggle to utter words creatively but can use formulaic expressions; thus, showing that they were completely stored in their long-term memory before they had the aphasia. Moreover, formulaic expressions are a great contribution in speech-language therapy even though it is still a field that needs a lot of research (Stahl & Sidtis, 2015).
2.2.3. Teaching Formulaic Language and Pragmatics

It is widely known that in order to be fully proficient in a language, one has to have developed pragmatic competence. LoCastro (2012) defines this: pragmatic competence is “the knowledge that influences and constrains speakers’ choices regarding use of language in socially appropriate ways” (Mugford, 2017). In order to be successful with the target language (TL) when involved in a social environment, it is of huge importance to choose the appropriate words that fit into the vast range of communicative situations. For instance, simple routines such as saying ‘hello’, saying ‘goodbye’ and thanking involve using the proper wording so that the other interlocutor can successfully understand the message without any misinterpretation (M. Danesi, 2012). One example that can lead to confusion, is when you are asked ‘Alright?’. This common greeting in British English is just a way of saying hello and it does not require a long explanation making clear if the other interlocutor is all right or not. If a learner keeps being exposed to native speaker’s input, he/she will learn how to respond in these situations. However, in an EFL setting, learners are not usually exposed to real and natural input and, therefore, the introduction of formulaic language in the syllabi should be considered. Several authors are also conscious of the importance of incorporating formulaic language into L2 classroom practice (Ellis, 1996; Schmitt, 2000; Wood, 2010) (AlHassan & Wood, 2015). As previously mentioned, providing learners with formulaic expressions not only will help them to be competent in different situations but to expand their lexicon and to save time when they want to say something (Mugford, 2017).

The literature in this review clearly shows that there are many benefits to knowing formulaic expressions and are therefore ideal components for teaching. Nevertheless, scarce research has been done on teaching formulaic language, and not many articles have been published on teaching formulaic language through TBLT. Tajeddin, Alemi & Pashmforoosh (2017) choose to adopt a typical-error method of fossilisation research to spot the most recurrent errors in pragmatics routines by Persian learners learning English as an L2. As expected, the findings demonstrated that errors were made owing to socio-pragmatic failure. The primary reasons for fossilisation were negative transfer, lack of knowledge and overgeneralisations. As argued by the authors, this could be because learners were exposed to non-authentic and poor input, which did not lead learners to adequate pragmatic competence.
In addition, AlHassan & Wood (2015) state that the results in their study suggest that teaching formulaic language explicitly enhance the acquisition of formulaic language, and there is a tendency to use them in their writing.

Several questions arise when looking at numerous studies. What is failing when teaching formulaic language? Or, more specifically, why do learners of English fail to achieve a good competence in formulaic language and by extension, pragmatics? Selivan (2018) agrees that lack of exposure to formulaic expressions is one of the main components that leads to pragmatic failure: “L1 proficiency comes as a result of thousands of hours of exposure to incredibly rich language input”. Furthermore, he adds saliency as another issue when encountering chunks of language meaning that “it is not noticeable and prominent in relation to its surrounding words”. This is why teaching formulaic language with a communicative approach that uses focus on form techniques such as input enhancement would make expressions more salient. Consequently, there would likely be more opportunities to notice such expressions and eventually, after many encounters, acquisition is more likely to happen. Another reason why pragmatic failure keeps existing in L2 learners is because some course books still follow the traditional guidelines of separating grammar from vocabulary. Fundamentally, grammar rules with the occasional instances of pages devoted to ‘functional language’. It is not clear which kind of formulaic language should be taught, how, and in what order (Selivan, 2018). As he argues, “effective language teaching should reflect the nature of language and be the best possible match for the process of natural language acquisition”. In short, learning will happen if the instructional setting is as natural as possible with meaningful context and rich input. Selivan (2018, p. 9) proposes the following premises for acquisition of formulaicity:

- Learners need a lot of linguistically rich and meaningful input (reading and listening)
- Draw learners’ attention to lexical and grammatical patterns
- Chunks before grammar
- Learners need opportunities to produce language in meaningful contexts
- Chunks help activate passive vocabulary.
- Grammar rules as priming.

It is necessary that teachers stop relying on general course books and syllabi and start creating their own syllabi purposely designed for specific types of students and their
needs. Teachers do need to consider the usefulness of what they are supposed to be teaching and how it fits their students’ proficiency. This, in combination with adequate input, increasing opportunities for communication practice and enhancing explicit instruction of formulaic language, will ensure the best conditions for learning to take place (Tajeddin, Alemi & Pashmforoosh, 2017).

So far, we have contextualized our research and identified the importance of teaching formulaic language. In the following section, we describe the study that we have conducted on the teaching of greetings and closings through Task-Based Language Teaching.

3. **The Current Study**

3.1. **Research questions**

   a) Does the experimental group exposed to enhanced input report a better acquisition of formulaic language than the control group, which had not been exposed to a typographically modified input?

   b) If so, does the control group regardless their exposition to the enhanced input have had any gains after the treatment?

4. **Methods**

4.1. **Participants**

Twenty-seven children from grade six of a multicultural school called ‘Rosa dels Vents’ in Tortosa, Tarragona (SPAIN) participated in the study. The data set for one participant was removed since she was born in Holland and her level of English was above average. Consequently, this study analyses the data of twenty-six participants (N=26). Although all the participants had received three hours a week of English instruction (mainly PPP) a week since primary school, they have a very low level of English. Participants did not spend any additional time learning English apart from those three hours a week that were reported. In this class, students learn English in two separate groups: one group that shows
good behaviour and one that shows low motivation and typically worse behaviour than that of the former group. However, there is no significant difference between the groups regarding English proficiency and they were randomly assigned to the experimental and control group.

In the experimental group, there were thirteen students (n=13) who were between eleven and twelve years old. With the exception of one participant who was born in Morocco, all of the participants in the experimental group were born in Catalonia (Spain). All participants know how to speak Catalan and Spanish, nine of which reported having Arabic as a mother tongue. Other languages spoken by the participants were French (six participants) and Romanian (one participant).

Like the experimental group, the control group also consisted of thirteen students (n=13) who were between eleven and twelve years old. All of the participants in the control group were born in Catalonia, Spain, with the exception of one who was born in Mali. However, all of them know how to speak Catalan and Spanish. Moreover, six participants reported having Arabic as a mother tongue, one Urdu, and the participant from Mali reported having Bambara and Malinke as mother tongues. Other languages reported were French (three participants) and Romanian (five participants).

4.2. Research Design

As previously mentioned, participants were split up into two groups: (a) an experimental group that received an input highlighting the target expressions (greetings and closings) through pedagogical tasks and (b) a control group that did not receive any input enhancement but that otherwise received the same treatment as the Experimental Group.

The research design for this study tested the experimental and the control groups before and after the six-week treatment period with a Discourse Completion Test (DCT). The treatment consisted of six sessions: two sessions for each task. Each of the sessions lasted for an hour and fifteen minutes, meeting once a week. Participants were exposed to the target expressions during the pre-task and were encouraged to use them during the task and post-task.
4.3. **Instruments**

4.3.1. **Testing**

4.3.1.1. **Discourse Completion Test (DCT)**

This study employed one method of data collection: A Discourse Completion Test (DCT) that was carefully designed for this study (See Appendix D). In both the pre-test and post-test, participants were tested on their knowledge of the target expressions in English. This was achieved by means of a ten-item completion exercise, where they had to read the description of ten different situations before writing down what they would say in each situation.

4.3.2. **Target Items**

The present study focused on pragmatic routines with specific focus on greetings and closings. Thirty-two formulaic expressions were chosen that are used every-day by native speakers of English to open and close a conversation as well as to ask how they are (see Appendix B for the table of target items). The item selection method was the following: various websites were used to research the most used expressions in formal and informal situations of the target items of interest, and then the items were chosen in terms of the frequency of occurrence as specified by the British National Corpus (BNC).

4.3.3. **Training**

The materials for the pre-task, task and post-task were also specially designed and prepared for this study.

4.3.3.1. **Pre-task**

A pre-task was used before the tasks in order to introduce the new expressions and to train the participants with the recycled expressions from other tasks. Before both task one and two, there was a reading comprehension activity; the former involved the completion of a grid with the correct expressions from the dialogues, and the latter involved rearranging the expressions so that they were in the correct place. Finally, before Task 3, there was a listening comprehension activity where participants were asked to fill a grid that similar to that of task one and they were able to see the script the third time they listened the recording (see Appendix E for Pre-Tasks).
4.3.3.2. Tasks
Regarding the task cycle, two of the tasks (task one and three) were role-plays where participants could practice the expressions they had previously learnt in the pre-tasks. In pairs, participants were given two contexts for each task with instructions detailing how to perform the roles and therefore, create a dialogue with their partner. These tasks were two-way, convergent, shared and open (Pica et al., 1993); the two participants involved had to work together to create a dialogue and therefore, there was more than one possible way of doing it. For the control group there was a participant without a partner and so the teacher supervisor participated in the pair in order to complete the role-play. On the other hand, task two was also two-way and convergent but closed and split (Pica et al., 1993). This time, participants had to reconstruct a story. Pictures were split equally between each person within each pair and together they had to cooperate to reorder them in the correct sequence (see Appendix F for Tasks).

4.3.3.3. Post-Tasks
After the tasks, participants continued practising the target expressions, but this time individually. Firstly, in post-task one, participants were encouraged to comment on the expressions they had chosen for the role-play. They had to talk about how they used formal and informal expressions to open and close the dialogues, as well as the phrases used to ask and respond to the ‘how are you’ type expressions. Secondly, in post-task two, the exercise was similar that of post-task one, but this time related to the story reconstruction exercise in task two. Finally, in post-task three, participants had to perform the dialogues in front of class with their partner. Meanwhile, the other participants wrote down individually why they agreed or disagreed with the chosen expression used by the participants performing the roles (see Appendix G for Post-Tasks).

4.4. Procedure
The different sessions and both the pre and post tests were carried out in the rooms where students were normally taught, so that the environment was familiar and comfortable for them. Participants filled out a Language Background Questionnaire (I. Mora 2017) (see Appendix A) and completed the pre-test on the same day. Following the questionnaire, I would meet with them every Friday and teach the same lesson to both groups. The only variable that changed was the materials: the experimental group had input highlighting
the target expressions while the control group did not. As stated previously, each task lasted for two sessions. Before starting with each task, I devoted the first five to ten minutes to a warm-up questions, so I got the student’s attention (see Appendix C). Finally, after being taught the six sessions devised for the treatment, students completed the post-test. Throughout the sessions and both the pre and post-tests, the meaning of the unfamiliar vocabulary was clarified to the students in order to keep them motivated and focused.

4.5. Scoring and Analysis

In order to analyse the results from the Discourse Completion Test there were four item scores. An answer with the correct meaning and correct form received a score of three; an answer with the correct meaning with partially correct form received a score of two; an answer with the correct meaning but the incorrect form received a score of one; finally, if the answer had the incorrect meaning and the incorrect form then it received a score of zero. The descriptive statistics were performed using Microsoft Excel Version 1808. It is worth mentioning that, during the analysis, I realised that the language background of one of the participants was above average and therefore, was considered an outlier and was removed from the data analysis.
5. Results and Discussion

Full results for the study for each item can be seen in appendix H.

Overall, it can be seen from Figures 2 and 3 that the average score for the experimental group in the pre-test is 0.3077 and 1.7000 for the post test. This represents gains of 1.3923 after the treatment, which is considerably larger than the 0.8308 gains seen in the control group (pre-test: 0.1692 and post-test 0.8308). Therefore, the data shows that the experimental group, who was exposed to the enhanced input, showed a greater improvement in the use of greetings and closings in English, when compared to the control group and, by extension, the potential acquisition of these expressions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Experimental</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>PRE-TEST</td>
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<td>0.3077</td>
<td>0.4798</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POST TEST</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.7000</td>
<td>0.7840</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GAINS</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.3923</td>
<td>0.7726</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Control</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRE-TEST</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.1692</td>
<td>0.3764</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POST TEST</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.9615</td>
<td>0.7513</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GAINS</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.8308</td>
<td>0.6721</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 2 - Summary of task results for both experimental and control groups.*

![Graph](image)

*Figure 3 - Mean result for both groups: Control and Experimental.*
These results are coherent with the studies by AlHassan & Wood (2015) that show that there is a positive impact of teaching formulaic language explicitly, enhancing the acquisition of these expressions. Consequently, these results contribute to the importance of incorporating formulaic language into L2 classrooms. Moreover, this study differs with the one by Mayén (2013), which illustrated no significant difference in the acquisition of the target expression. She concluded that making the target items more salient does not help in the L2 learning process among children, which clearly differs from this study as seen in Figure 4 given the large increase in average between the pre-test and post-test (represented by the average gains).

![Figure 4 - Results and gains from the experimental group.](image)

The second research question asked whether there were any gains for the control group regardless of the fact that they have not been exposed to an enhanced input. It can be seen in Figure 5 that the control group also improved their knowledge of the target expressions compared to the pre-test. Although, as seen in Figure 3 previously, gains are noticeably smaller than they are for the experimental group with the enhanced input. One could argue that the reason this group improved their knowledge was the TBLT approach applied in this study. As mentioned in the literature review preceding this study, TBLT clearly follows the premises for acquisition of formulaicity that Selivan (2018) presents. Therefore, this approach might be more suitable than others when teaching formulaic language and, by extension, pragmatics.
One wonders that if this study applied the input enhancement with the control group, then the learning would have been even more substantial considering that the experimental group was reported to be separated from the control group for misbehaving in class. If, as researchers and teachers, we can compensate for a lack of attention in class with a simple technique such as is input enhancement then that would mark a significant development in the field of SLA. Furthermore, these findings give hope to those children who have issues with attention. If they feel engaged with their partners in a communicative approach such as is TBLT then their motivation and attention might be boosted using pedagogical and fun tasks.

6. Conclusions, Limitations and Future Directions
As aforementioned in the literature review, previous research shows the need for L2 learners to develop a wide formulaic repertoire considering their processing benefits once they are fully acquired in the long-term memory. This is especially true for formulaic language that is used on a daily basis, such as greetings or closings. Moreover, having revised Focus on Meaning and Focus on FormS approaches, Task-Based Language Teaching is an approach that integrates explicit teaching with tasks full of input while achieving this in a communicative manner. Although it has been claimed that focus-on-form techniques are useful for language teaching, research shows mixed findings and there is still a lack of study in the area and even less studies that focus on teaching
greetings and closings using TBLT. Taken this all into consideration, the purpose of this exploratory study was to analyse whether children learning English as a Foreign Language learn better if they are exposed to an input that has been typographically modified in order to make target expressions more salient. This study also focused on the increased acquisition of target expressions within the control group, which may result from the benefits of applying a communicative approach such as TBLT.

The findings in this study suggest that the incorporation of input enhancement as a focus-on-form technique using a communicative approach such as TBLT result in a better score and therefore, after the raising learners’ consciousness during the treatment, there was a significant increase in the score of the target items when completing the post-test. Furthermore, regarding the second research question, the control group also show improvement after the training period compared to the knowledge they showed previously. This is in agreement with the claim of TBLT: that interaction creates an environment for learning (Long, 1996b). Therefore, if the aim of second language acquisition is communicative competence, formulaic language cannot be overlooked and should be a must in modern education. Findings in this exploratory study, show remarkable results after only six weeks of focused training using a simple technique such as input enhancement. However, the present study is only a modest contribution to this line of investigation.

Nevertheless, this study presents many limitations: (a) Firstly, since there was limited time to complete the study, the sample size would ideally be larger. Moreover, a larger study should include inferential statistics. (b) Secondly, the study could not investigate further other variables such as the different responses participants gave in the pre and post-tests regarding formal and informal contexts. (c) Thirdly, written outputs from post-tasks, together with oral outputs from the role-plays, could have been used as another way of collecting data and subsequent analysis. (d) Fourthly, tasks were not previously piloted on another sample of leaners to prove that they were adequate in terms of proficiency and difficulty. Although the level of the students was previously known, it is always recommended to run a pilot study. (e) Fifthly, it would have been interesting also to apply a delayed post-test to see whether learners maintained the acquisition of the target expressions they were taught during the training sessions and proved to know in the post-test. (f) Finally, instead of a Discourse Completion Test for the pre and post-tests, which
is testing the productive skills, it would have been interesting to also apply a receptive test, which are less demanding for children.

Most research claims that there is still a great need of doing more research in this area, especially to study larger samples of participants and to consider any research that has previously been completed relating to this topic. To quote my teacher of applied linguistics, Dr Roger Gilabert, “how can we fly from one country to another 99.9% of the time, with just a 0.01% failing, whereas in language teaching, after roughly 40 years of research we have still not come up with a clear solution on to how teach English effectively?”.

I believe that there is not a single most effective way of teaching English; one approach might be perfect for one student, while another method might adapt to another student. Research shows that students do not all learn at the same pace or have the same level of proficiency and motivation. Therefore, although TBLT gives the learner the freedom to complete tasks with language they have attained at that particular stage, learners have to complete the task when it may not be in their best interest, or if they are not motivated to do so. As a novice teacher, but as an experienced student of an L2, I believe that the problem arises when there is a class with a great number of students. In this situation, there is just one teacher for, for example, 20 students and it ends up being almost impossible to give every student the attention they need or to give them feedback during the course of the tasks. Students should be put into small groups where they all ideally have similar interests so that effective tasks can be designed for them and so sufficient attention can be provided to each student. By extension, it could be easy to doubt the majority of the educational system as the focus should not be placed so heavily on the materials used but instead the students and their needs in particular. This is why there is a strong need for more research: to overcome the limitations of previous studies and to close the significant gaps in SLA.
References


Appendix A - Language background questionnaire
(I. Mora, 2017)

Please give the following information about yourself. This questionnaire will not be shared for privacy issues.

1. Age: ________________

2. Sex:   Male □   Female □

3. City and country of birth: ______________________________________

4. City and country of residence: ______________________________________

5. Mother tongue / Languages from birth. Please write them in order of dominance

   1. ________________
   2. ________________
   3. ________________
   4. ________________
   5. ________________

6. Other languages. Please write them in order of proficiency

   1. ________________
   2. ________________
   3. ________________
   4. ________________
   5. ________________

7. Please specify the context (natural or instructed), details (school, language academy…) and the number of years and hours learning English

□ Natural context, details and years: ____________________________

□ Instructed context, details and years: ____________________________
## Appendix B – Target Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TASK 1</th>
<th>TASK 2</th>
<th>TASK 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Formal (New)</strong>&lt;br&gt;1-Good (morning) 2-It is (good) to see you 3-How are you doing today? 4-I am great, thank you 5-I must be going 6-It was nice to see you 7-(We can) speak later 8-Have a nice day 9-Take care</td>
<td><strong>Informal (New)</strong>&lt;br&gt;1-Hey 2-It’s been a while 3-What’s up 4-Not much, thanks 5-How are things 6-Not bad, thanks 7-Catch you later 8-Take it easy</td>
<td><strong>Formal (New)</strong>&lt;br&gt;1-It is (nice) to see you 2-I will see you soon 3-Have a (good) weekend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Formal (New)</strong>&lt;br&gt;1-Hello (name) 2-How’s everything 3-Fine, thanks 4-How’s life 5-Bye bye! 6-See you!</td>
<td><strong>Informal (New)</strong>&lt;br&gt;1-Hello (name) 2-Fine, thanks 3-Bye bye!</td>
<td><strong>Formal (New)</strong>&lt;br&gt;1-Good (evening) 2-Have a (great) weekend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Informal (New)</strong>&lt;br&gt;1-How’s everything? 2-What about you? 3-Good, thanks 4-See you later</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix C – Warm-up questions

**Instructions for teachers:** ask students questions in order to get their attention and then write down their answers on the blackboard.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Warm Up TASK 1</th>
<th>Warm Up TASK 2</th>
<th>Warm Up TASK 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ask students general questions:</strong></td>
<td><strong>Ask students questions about task 1:</strong></td>
<td><strong>Ask students questions about tasks 1&amp;2:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• How many ways do you know to say ‘hello’?</td>
<td>• How many expressions do you remember from task 1 to open a conversation?</td>
<td>• How many expressions do you remember from task 1&amp;2 to open a conversation?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• How many ways do you know to say ‘how are you’?</td>
<td>• How many expressions do you remember from task 1 to say, ‘how are you’?</td>
<td>• How many expressions do you remember from task 1&amp;2 to say, ‘how are you’?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• How many expressions do you know to respond to ‘how are you’?</td>
<td>• How many expressions do you remember from task 1 to respond to ‘how are you’?</td>
<td>• How many expressions do you remember from task 1&amp;2 to respond to ‘how are you’?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• How many ways do you know to say ‘bye’?</td>
<td>• How many expressions do you remember from task 1 to close a conversation?</td>
<td>• How many expressions do you remember from task 1&amp;2 to close a conversation?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix D – Discourse Completion Test (DCT)

Read the description for each of the 10 situations described below and then write down what you would say in that particular situation.

1. You have not seen your best friend, who is from England, for a long time. How would you greet him or her?

2. It is the end of the week and you will not see your teacher for the whole weekend. How would you say ‘bye’?

3. You encounter your neighbour and he/she asks: how are you? What would you say back?

4. You are in the middle of a conversation with a colleague, but you really need to go and need to end the conversation, how would you do this?

5. You have met by chance a friend in the street and have already said “hello”, how would you ask them about their recent activity?

6. You have just met someone for the first time and, after spending some time speaking with him or her, and then you have to close the conversation, “how would you say bye”?

7. Every week you meet with a friend in a coffee shop and you are about to leave. She says “bye bye” how would you respond?

8. It’s a Monday morning and your boss has just arrived in the office. How would you greet him/her and ask another question?

9. You have been with a friend for a while now and she has said that she needs to leave. How would you say goodbye?

10. You meet by chance with your boss in a restaurant, he says “good evening, how are you?” how do you respond?
Appendix E – Pre-Tasks (with Input Enhancement)

READING COMPREHENSION ACTIVITY (Pre-Task 1)

Read the following dialogues carefully and complete the grid below with the correct expressions from the dialogues.

**Situation 1**
Two friends meeting by chance on the street.

Friend 1: **Hey, what’s up?**
Friend 2: Hey! **Not much thanks, how are things?**
Friend 1: **Not bad, thanks.** I’ve been on holiday with my family! **It’s been a while** since I last saw you.
Friend 2: I know! You were gone ages. I hope you had fun! You’ll have to tell me all about it later but I’ve got to run to class now!
Friend 1: No worries, sounds like a plan. I’ll **catch you later**!
Friend 2: **Take it easy**

**Situation 2**
A business relationship between two people that meet in the office.

Person 1: **Good Morning Sarah. It is good to see you!**
Person 2: **Good Morning John. It is good to see you too.**
Person 1: **How are you doing today?**
Person 2: **I am great thank you,** and you?
Person 1: Yes, very much so! I spent yesterday evening preparing for today, so I am hopeful your boss will enjoy our project proposal!
Person 2: That is fantastic! I wish you all the best with your presentation. I **must be going** as I have a meeting now, but **it was nice to see you!**
Person 1: Of course, please do not let me delay you. We can **speak later**.
Person 2: **Have a nice day**
Person 1: **Take care**
READING COMPREHENSION ACTIVITY (Pre-Task 2)
Read the following dialogues carefully and rearrange the expressions so that they are in the correct place.

Situation 1
A patient has a short appointment with their doctor for a blood test.

Patient: Take Care, Good afternoon
Doctor: Have a good weekend, I will see you soon. You are here for a blood test, is that correct?
Patient: Yes, it is.
Doctor: Okay. Can you please roll up your sleeve and I’ll take it now?
Patient: Perfect, thank you.
Doctor: All Done! You will have to come back next weekend in order to get your results.
Patient: Okay, It is nice to see you, I am great, thank you.
Doctor: how are you doing?

Patient: ____________________________, ____________________________. You are here for a blood test, is that correct?
Doctor: ____________________________, ____________________________.
Situation 2
Sarah arrives home and has a conversation with her sister, Jane, just as she is about to leave.

Sarah: **Bye bye!** Fine, thanks
Jane: **Take it easy**, I am just on my way out to go to the cinema with my friends.
Sarah: Amazing, what are you going to see.
Jane: I am not sure, I think we are seeing the new Disney movie! **I’ll catch you later then**
Sarah: **Fine, thanks**. I am excited to relax after my day!
Jane: Well, **See you**. How’s life?
Sarah: Yeah, I will, enjoy the movie. **See you!**
Jane: **Not bad, thanks**
Hey Jane, **How’s everything?**

Sarah: __________, __________
Jane: __________, I am just on my way out to go to the cinema with my friends.
Sarah: Amazing, what are you going to see.
Jane: I am not sure, I think we are seeing the new Disney movie! __________
Sarah: __________. I am excited to relax after my day!
Jane: Well, __________. __________
Sarah: Yeah, I will, enjoy the movie. __________
Jane: __________
LISTENING COMPREHENSION ACTIVITY (Pre-Task 3)
You'll hear two recordings three times each. First, you are going to hear an informal conversation between a customer and a shop assistant at the checkout. Secondly, a conversation between a young boy named Jack and his friend's grandfather Mr. Jones. Listen carefully and write down the correct expressions in the following grid.

1) Expressions used to open a conversation (e.g. “hello”).

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2) Expressions used to ask, “How are you?”

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3) Expressions used to respond to, “How are you?”

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4) Expressions used to close a conversation, state that you are leaving or say “goodbye”.

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LISTENING SCRIPTS

Situation 1
Customer about to be served in a supermarket.

Shop Assistant: Hello. How’s everything?
Customer: Good, thanks. What about you?
Shop Assistant: Fine, thanks. I love these chocolates! (*as she scans the item*)
Customer: I know! I buy them far too often.
Shop Assistant: You can never buy them too often! That will be 26 pounds.
Customer: Here you go.
Shop Assistant: Perfect! See you later.
Customer: Bye Bye!

Situation 2
A young boy encounters their friend’s grandfather on the streets on their way back home at night.

Young Boy (Jack): Good Evening Mr Jones.
Friend’s Grandfather (Mr Jones): Good evening Jack, it is nice to see you. How have you been getting on with football lately?
Young Boy (Jack): I have been practicing a lot and we are top of the table with just two games left to play.
Friend’s Grandfather (Mr Jones): That is good to hear, I will have to see you play some time.
Young Boy (Jack): That would be fantastic, the more support we have the better.
Friend’s Grandfather (Mr Jones): Perfect! Well I must be going now, but have a great weekend
Young Boy (Jack): Take care sir.
Appendix F – Tasks (with Input Enhancement)

ROLE-PLAY (Task 1)

Situation 1: Two friends encounter one another and one of them wants to say lots to the other but cannot because they have to go to class. They both agree to speak later and then they say goodbye.

In pairs, you will each play a role of one of these friends. Use the space below to write your dialogues using expressions that you think are appropriate. When you are finished read it out loud with your partner.
Situation 2: Two colleagues encounter one another and exchange words of greeting, saying that they are happy to see each other. They then ask one another how they are doing. One colleague then say that he/she needs to leave as they are in a rush and before proceeding to close the conversation.

In pairs, you each will play the role of one of these colleagues. Use the space below to write your dialogues using expressions that you think are appropriate. When you are finished read it out loud with your partner.
(Task 2) Story reconstruction: each person within each pair of participants will have half of the pictures. Together they will reorder the pictures in the correct sequence. (The pictures will need cutting out by the teacher and then mixed prior to the task)

Girl (Sandra): Hey Mum! How’s Life?

Mum: Hello Sandra, not bad thanks, busy as always! How’s everything at school?

Girl (Sandra): Fine, thanks. My guitar lessons went well today, I learned a new song!

Mum: That’s fantastic Sandra, you’re learning very fast!

Girl (Sandra): I know, I’ll be passing the next exam in no time. How much longer will we be driving?

Mum: about 10 minutes maybe

Child (Sandra): Catch you later mum, bye bye!

Mum: See you! Take it easy. You’ll do great!

Source Image: Google Images
**Student (Jack):**
Good afternoon Miss Cooper. How are you doing?

**Teacher (Miss Cooper):**
I am great thank you Jack; it is nice to see you. Are you having a good lunchtime break?

**Student (Jack):**
Yes thank you, I am having so much fun. Do you need my homework today?

**Teacher (Miss Cooper):**
It is not for today, so you can give it to me next week.

**Student (Jack):**
That’s perfect, thank you Miss. I am going to play with my friends now, but I will see you soon!

**Teacher (Miss Cooper):**
Yes, take care Jack and have a good weekend!
ROLE-PLAY (Task 3)

Situation 1: A teacher and a student encounter one another at the beach. They exchange words of greeting and ask how the summer is going. The teacher asks about some homework that is expected after the summer break. The teacher then has to leave as it is lunch time, so they proceed to close the conversation.

In pairs, one of you will play the role of the teacher and the other the role of the student. Use the space below to write your dialogues using expressions that you think are appropriate. When you are finished read it out loud with your partner.
Situation 2: Two friends, who have not seen each other for two years, encounter one another at the shopping mall. They open conversation and ask questions about their life over the past two years. They then close the conversation.

In pairs, you will each play the role of one of these friends. Use the space below to write your dialogues using expressions that you think are appropriate. When you are finished read it out loud with your partner.
Appendix G – Post-Tasks

Post-Task 1

Complete the following activity individually:

Comment on the expressions you chose in the previous exercise. Talk about how you used formal and informal expressions to open and close the two dialogues. Also, comment on the phrases used to ask and respond to 'how are you' type expressions.
Post-Task 2

Complete the following activity individually:

Once you have found out the correct order of the story, use the space below to explain the typical responses you can give for questions and statements such as "hello", "how are you?" and "goodbye". Describe each scenario and their respective responses that you have seen from the story reconstruction exercise.
Post-Task 3

Can they do better? How?
With your partner, you will perform the dialogues that you have prepared in front of the class. Meanwhile, the other students will write down individually why they agree or disagree with the chosen expressions used by each of the other groups. Comment on how the dialogues could be improved.

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GROUP 2

GROUP 3

GROUP 4

GROUP 5
## Appendix H – Results per item in the Discourse Completion Test

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