



# **Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla**

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**FACULTAD DE LENGUAS**

## **Enhancing Business Lexical Phrases in intermediate LEMO students**

**A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Languages for the Degree of**

**LICENCIATURA EN LENGUAS MODERNAS**

**By:**

**ELADIZMER ESTÉVEZ ALVARADO**

**Thesis Director:**

**GASPAR RAMÍREZ CABRERA**

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**ENHANCING BUSINESS LEXICAL PHRASES IN INTERMEDIATE LEMO  
STUDENTS.**

After reading the research work conducted by

Eladizmer Estévez Alvarado

The jury members considered this thesis should be accepted as it meets one of the conditions required to obtain the title.

LICENCIATURA EN LENGUAS MODERNAS

Thesis director

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Mtro. Gaspar Ramírez Cabrera

Committeemember

Committeemember

---

Dra. Elizabeth Flores Salgado

---

Dr. Michael Thomas Witten

Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla

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I want to dedicate this work to my aunt Selene Alvarado Silva who has been always there for me supporting me, to my mother who knows all the effort that I have made to get here and to my family and friends who are an important element in my daily basis way.

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## CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Introduction to the problem

In the Field of Foreign Language Acquisition (FLA), developing competence and performance in the language is the most important goal in the learner's achievement, to raise awareness about the notions of using the L2 in the most appropriate way. The term competence proposed by Chomsky (1965) is the capacity of knowledge the language between speaker and hearer, which implies grammatical and contextual issues. Later on, (Hymes, 1972, cited in Bachman, 1990) adds to the term psycholinguistic, sociocultural and probabilistic subcomponents. Performance, on the other hand, is the usage of the language in concrete situations. (Chomsky, 1965). So it can be said that competence and performance are the abilities to use the language according to the social context, producing correct utterances and appropriate messages (Bachman 1990, Canale & Swain 1980).

But, what is understood by lexical competence? According to Brown, Malcomkjaer & Williams (1996), is the ability of knowing a word and its meaning, and then related them to other words in language. Furthermore, Saussure exposed that "Language is a system of interdependent terms in which the value of each term results solely from the simultaneous presence of others" (1916) 197:114, a word has not meaning in isolation. A learner might have an extensive vocabulary, but if he does not know how to use or to relate it to the context and other words, the learner will not be able to communicate effectively (Meara, 1996).

Most of the times, words per se are meaningless, but all together give to the speaker the capacity to command, to deny, to request, to regret to produce complex and fluent utterances and as a result, the learner will be communicatively competent. But, learners do not take advantage of their knowledge, in other words, they only use a limited number of words instead of fully exploits it. So, it becomes a big problem to deal with when learners use English for academic purposes, because they prefer to use a simple set of word instead of a complex one.

The use of collocations and lexical phrases is of crucial importance in Business English learners because students use vocabulary, but sometimes they don't know how to correlate it in common transactional situations. For this reason it is very important for learners to be familiar to the lexical phrases and most important, to know their function, in this way, learners are aware of the functional organization of lexical phrases for business English and it's easier for them to communicate in a correct way.

## **1.2 Purpose of the study**

The aim of this investigation is to make a lexicographical study about the functional aspects of collocations regarding Business English within the following situations: telephone calls, booking, making appointments, job interviews, and business conversations.

For Business English students it is very important to know the use of lexical phrases and the functional aspects, in order to communicate in a correct way according to the people that they are interacting, because it is very different the

vocabulary that people use when they to talk to a friend than when they talk to a customer.

The main concern is to inventorize and identify lexical phrases in different kind of situations in order to explore their functions. There are several types of lexical phrases that are related to particular functions for this reason Nattinger and De Carrico (1992) attempt to group these phrases in three categories and they refer these groups as “social interactions”, “necessary topics”, and “discourse devices”.

It is very important to make an emphasis and mention that the purpose of this study is to help students to familiarize to the lexical phrases and the most important to know their function in this way learners will be aware of the functional organization of lexical phrases for business English.

### **1.3 Research question**

This paper sets out to answer the following question.

1. Which of the three categories of the lexical phrases: social interactions, necessary topics and discourse devices, tend to appear more in the transactional language conversations and why is it important for learners to know the function of lexical phrases?

## **1.4 Hypothesis**

The hypothesis below is related to the research question.

- a) Learners are not taught to comprehend their vocabulary. They receive several new words without being related between them and to their context.

## **1.5 Significance of the study**

According to Meara (1996) (cited in Brown et al., 1996), “Lexical competence is at the heart of communicative competence” (p. 35). Unfortunately, lexical competence has not been fully researched because it has been placed into grammatical aspects, since they include “phonological forms, morphological forms, syntactic patterns, lexical items; and emphasizes the way in which these forms may be combined to form grammatical sentences” (Canale & Swain, 1980, p. 2). So, this study pretends to support Meara’s idea that lexical competence must be of great importance for FLA.

This study will demonstrate how communicative units of a text, that are associated with each situation, can be identified linguistically by employing the notion of fixed or quasi fixed expressions (mainly collocations).

## **1.6 Key terms**

**Pragmatics:** Pragmatics is concerned with the study of meaning as communicated by a speaker and interpreted by a listener. It is the study speaker meaning. (Yule, 1996).

Competence: It is the capacity of knowledge the language between speaker and hearer. (Chomsky, 1965).

Performance: It is the ability of using the language correctly. (Chomsky, 1965).

Communicative competence: The ability to use the language for communication. It implies producing correct and understandable utterances, according to the context (Canale & Swain, 1980).

Lexical competence: It is the ability of knowing a word and its meaning, and then related them to other words in language. (Brown et al., 1996).

Vocabulary: The body of words known to an individual person (Oxford Dictionary).

SLA: Second Language Acquisition.

ESL: English as a Second Language.

FLA: Foreign Language Acquisition.

## **CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW**

In this chapter, the theoretical framework of this research is presented. The perspectives from different authors are discussed to emphasize the importance of the main concepts considered in the thesis. Concepts that are involved in the development of this research are defined.

### **2.1 Defining pragmatics**

According to Yule (1996), pragmatics is concerned with the study of the speaker meaning, contextual meaning and the expressions of the relative meaning. In addition to this, Green (1996) defines Pragmatics as the “successful interpretation by an address of a speaker’s intent in performing a linguistic act” (p.1), that is, the speaker’s success in the communicative role. Furthermore, Levinson (1983) suggest that Pragmatics is the study of language usage and is focused solely with per formative principles of language use. So, it can be said that Pragmatics is the study of the speaker’s usage of the language in concrete situations.

### **2.2 Defining competence and performance**

Chomsky (1965) defines linguistic competence as the speaker-hearer’s knowledge of the language, whereas performance is the actual use of language in concrete situations (cited in Brown et al., 1996). But, Hymes (1972) adds to the term competence grammatical and contextual aspects such as grammatical, psycholinguistic, sociocultural and probabilistic subcompetences. In additions to this, Lewis (2000) define as competence as the knowledge of language structure,

“the perfect knowledge of the ideal speaker-listener in a homogeneous speech community whereas performance is the process of encoding and decoding” (p.11). In sum, competence and performance are surely important for the speaker’s handle of the language, which most of the times occurs unconsciously.

### **2.2.1 Language learning, competence and performance**

Brown (1996) suggests that, given an initial, fixed set of fundamental constraints which determine the possible forms which human languages can take the relationship between linguistic competence and performance is most usefully perceived as one of continual, mutual modification of one by the other. Linguistic competence, in Lyons’ sense of the knowledge which enables a speaker to use language, is treated as only minimally dependent on the initial system, and as maximally dependent on experience, including practice in receptive and productive linguistic performance.

On this view, the developing competence becomes inherently variable, because no two persons’ sets of experience are identical, and any postulated differences between L1 and L2 learners’ competence become differences of degree rather than one of type.

Brown (1996) further reminds us that L2 learners are not alone in performing variably; the question, then, is why we should wish to suggest that variable performance? In adult L1 users is caused by various “external” features which interfere with the perfect reflection in performance of their stable competence, while L2 users’ variability should be considered a relatively direct representation of

their competence, and this competence should be considered a stage on the way towards the unreachable, ideal goal of acquisition of the “stable” competence of a native speaker.

The interesting difference between L1 and L2 speakers’ performance, Brown (1996) suggests lies in the difference in nature between the types of variability produced by the two groups. This difference can be measured along three dimensions: patterning, frequency, and distribution. Brown suggests that if we conceive of individual competences as holistic fluxes rather than as distinct sets of rules and systems, one set for each language to which the individual is exposed, at least some differences in performance variability between L1 and L2 learners can be explained simply in terms of the general differences in linguistic experience which must, perforce, exist between the two groups of language users.

### **2.3 Communicative competence**

Savignon (1983) characterizes communication as:

Dynamic rather than...static... It depends on the negotiation of meaning between two or more persons. Communication takes place in an infinite variety of situations, and success in a particular role depends on one’s understanding of the context and on prior experience of a similar kind (Savignon 1983:8-9)



Kramch's (1986) discussion of communicative interaction echoes these notions:

Interaction always entails negotiating intended meanings, i. e., adjusting one's speech to the effect one intends to have on the listener. It entails anticipating the listener's response and possible misunderstanding, clarifying one's own and the other's intentions and arriving at the closest possible match between intended, perceived, and anticipated meanings. (Kramsh 1986:367)

Communicative competence is more than being able to communicate in a successful way. It is to use the knowledge possessed by the speaker in the appropriate context. This is the main issue in pragmatic competence, which is a term that takes part in the communicative competence concept. As it is showed communicative competence is very important to have the knowledge required to use language to achieve particular communicative goals and the recognition of language use as a dynamic process. (Bachman 1990)

#### **2.4 The importance of lexical competence**

Since the terms linguistic competence and performance were proposed by Chomsky, many linguistics have been modifying these term, whether adding definitions or changing them (Hymes 1972, Canale and Swain 1980) but, lexical competence has not been recognized as an important aspect of communication. "Whichever way you look at it, lexical competence is at the heart of communicative competence and it also enhances students' awareness of semantic networks" (Meara, 1996, cited in Brown, 1996). Semantic networks allow us to see how people handle the lexicon within different situations of use.

Chomsky (1965) explained linguistic competence as a static concept based only in grammatical rules, in which lexical competence is implied, but never mentioned. Later, Canale and Swain (1980) proposed grammatical competence which included knowledge of syntax, grammar, lexical items; but the capacity of using and understanding those lexical items were sidelined. In fact, words are units par excellence; they have power (Michnick et al., 2000). Lexical competence is an aspect of L2 competence which has not been fully studied. Canale and Swain (1980) describe grammatical competence into rules of morphology, syntax, sentence grammar, semantics and phonology.

Communicative competence became an important issue of study by 1980's, when Rudzka, Channell, Putseys and Ostin (1981) suggested applying structural semantics to vocabulary teaching. That is, that the learners develop communicative competence with a very limited vocabulary. But, their ideas did not change the way of teaching vocabulary, which methodologies remained strongly rooted in practices of the past. In other words, "most of the teachers are remarkably ill informed about the role that lexis plays in language" (Meara, 1996) p.36. In fact, the awareness about own's vocabulary will influence the way that a teacher teaches vocabulary. Zechmeister, D'Anna, Hall, Pass and Smith (1993) developed a set of questions in order to find some evidence about this issue:

- a) How many words are there in English?
- b) How many of these words would you estimate are part of your passive vocabulary?

- c) How many of these words would you estimate are part of your active vocabulary?

That is, the amount of teacher's vocabulary will affect the way of teaching. For example, if a teacher's repertoire is about 400 active words and it is going to be taught about 2000 words, it is going to be the half of what the teacher thinks to know. But, if its repertoire is about 20, 000 words and the learners will only learn 2000; they will only learn ten per cent of what the teacher knows. So, the real problem here is that teachers do not know to teach vocabulary and then, to develop lexical competence in learners (Meara, 1996).

This thesis aims to describe lexical competence in a set of easily measurable dimensions. "These dimensions are not properties attached to individual lexical items: rather they are properties of the lexicon considered as a whole" (Meara, 1996 p.37).

#### **2.4.1 Lexical items**

Lexical items or "chunks" are learned and used as single items. Lewis (2000, p.91) categorized lexical items (same definition, different name) into three sets:

- a) Words: they are the main units of the lexicon that may contain words of low information content such as articles and conjunctions, and words of high information content such as nouns, verbs, pronouns and so on. These groups of words are subdivided in multiple-words items and polywords that are categorized in collocations meaning form their component words. They

include phrasal verbs, idioms and slang (e.g. put off, all at once, by the way, taxi rank).

- b) Collocations: they are a group of words that can have different meanings depending on the word that precedes the other. Furthermore, there are collocations that vary according to the speaker's context and culture or are highly institutionalized or ossified forms; these are known as fixed collocations.
- c) Institutionalized expressions: they allow to the speaker's interact in a certain context, these items that permit to give a continuum to a speech. Lewis subdivided them in three sets:
  - 1) Short, hardly grammaticalised utterances such as not yet, certainly not, just a moment, please.
  - 2) Sentence heads of frames, usually with some pragmatic purpose.
  - 3) Full sentences that are recognized very easily as institutionalized expressions that contain an explicit pragmatic purpose.

However, Lewis (2000, p.7) redefines these terms into four sets:

- a) Words: they may stand alone and have a meaning per se, but they may stand attached to other words as well. This is known as multi-words, these combinations vary according to the context and some of them are already established. For example: on the other hand or by the way.
- b) Collocations: they are those chunks of words with variations of meaning according to the context. Those variations are purely pragmatical and sociocultural items, such as: it was a case of the tail wagging the

\_\_\_\_\_, chase/miss the bus, make/do a mistake. In addition to this fixed collocations are those already established: a broken home, to catch a cold; but it does not mean that they can be collocated in different forms. Fixed idioms are collocations as well such as: you can't pull the \_\_\_\_\_ over my eyes.

- c) Fixed collocations: they are lexical items that permit daily speech and they allow some changes in its structure such as: good morning/ afternoon/ night or no thank you, I'm fine. This category includes chunks of easy identification. They include social greetings, politeness phrases and idioms.
- d) Semi-fixed expressions: they are expression that permit variations and many of them occur in both spoken and written language. There is a vast number of these expressions and "they are from very short to very long and from almost fixed to very free" (Lewis, 1996). This category includes:
  - 1) Almost fixed expression: those that allow a minimal variation. (it's/that's not my fault)
  - 2) Spoken sentences with a simple slot (Could you pass\_\_\_\_, pleas?)
  - 3) Expressions with a slot that permit to be filled with a particular kind of word (I haven't seen you for/since...)
  - 4) Sentence heads that can be completed in different ways (What was really annoying/ interesting/ surprising was...)

In sum, lexical items or phrases are at the core of language. They are those that construct and permit speech, both spoken and written language, and according to Nattinger and DeCarrico (1993) and both books of Lewis (1993,

1996), lexical items are the master pieces of lexical competence. Furthermore, daily language is made of those chunks already established in the speaker's repertoire, capable of use them according to the context. Nattinger and DeCarrico (1993) give good explanations about lexical phrases, categorized them by their type and usage. However, they made clear distinctions about vocabulary and lexis. But, this will be mentioned later on this chapter.

#### **2.4.2 Lexical Approach**

A lexical approach, in language teaching, refers to one derived from the belief that the building blocks of language learning and communication are based on lexis, that is, words and words combinations (lexical items).

“Lexical approaches in language learning seek to develop proposals for syllabus design and language teaching founded on a view of language in which lexis plays the central role” (J. Richards & T. Rodgers, 2001: 133).

The lexical approach goes back to Firth (1951), who holds that meaning by collocation is an abstraction at the syntagmatic level and is not directly linked to the conceptual of the meaning of the words in the collocation.

#### **2.4.3 The dimensions of lexical competence**

Meara (1990) proposes that actual knowledge of lexical items, rather than merely the ability to recognize items as belonging to the vocabulary of a given language, can be tested by tapping a person's ability to make connections between vocabulary items.

Theories of meaning have, during this century, tended towards the type of holism expressed by Saussure: "Language is a system of interdependent terms in which the value of each term results solely from the simultaneous presence of the others" (1916) 1974:114. Even in the Firthian, somewhat modified, view of language as composed of several subsystems of interdependent signs, the holistic view has clear consequences for theories of word meaning: a word does not have meaning in isolation, but derives its meaning, at least in part, from interaction with a number of other words in the language.

The vocabulary-related difficulties experienced by even highly competent L2 users are well documented, and Meara (1990) is clearly right to posit lexical competence as an important component of communicative competence, especially in view of the fact referred to by Brown that in many current models of syntax.

Meara (1990) states that even if vocabulary organization is centrally involved in lexical competence and provides a good measure of advanced learners' level of lexical competence, the question of the degree to which it is necessary, desirable, possible and useful for an L2 speaker's vocabulary organisation to be like that of an L1 speaker remains of fundamental importance and is still unresolved.

According to Meara (1990) lexical competence might not be such an intractable idea as it is sometimes made out to be. Traditionally, people have attempted to describe lexical competence in terms of a specification of all the

knowledge that a speaker might have about a word in his/her lexicon-a fully specified model of the way individual words work in the language.

What Meara (1990) have put forward instead is the idea that, for practical purposes, it might be possible to describe the salient features of lexical competence in terms of a small number of critical dimensions. The two that the author identified are size and organisation; these two dimensions have the advantage that they are relatively independent of the items that contribute to them, and do not require a detailed understanding of the way individual lexical items function. The crucial idea is that lexical competence is probably not just the sum of speakers' knowledge of the items their lexicons contain. There might be some advantage to be gained from backpedalling on this item-based approach to lexical competence, and from considering lexical competence in terms of a small number of global properties, rather than an accumulation of attributes of individual words.

#### **2.4.4 Vocabulary size**

Lexical competence (Brown et al., 1996) is mainly important ruled by the vocabulary's size. A learner with a big repertoire will be more proficient in language in a wide range of skills than learners with a small repertoire. Yoshida (1978) focused his interest in how vocabulary grows. He studied a three and a half-year old Japanese child in a naturalistic research. He found that the subject learnt about 500 words in a full year. Unfortunately, these results cannot be generalized to older learners in formal learning situations. Actually, there are more studies about people learning L2 vocabulary in naturalistic settings than learners in formal situations.



Later Takala (1985) made a large scale study to finish learners of English. The results vary between 450 and 1500 annual total words learnt. However, no distinction between active productive vocabulary and passive receptive vocabulary was made. Conclusions were unclear, so the results were not reliable.

The problem is that probably there is not a reliable test in order to find out the vocabulary size and then to resolve the Zechmeister et al. questions. It seems that creating a test to inquire into vocabulary size and how quickly it grows is not a matter of interest. The Nation's Vocabulary Level Test (Nation, 1990) seems to be the most standardized test in vocabulary. This test assesses a small number of words grouped by frequency. Nation argues it gives a guide to the extent of a learner's vocabulary and many studies have supported it (Meara, 1996).

Actually, to measure a learner's vocabulary may be easy. In theory, you can take a dictionary and take a sample of words. Later, devising a suitable test for these words and then calculating the proportion of words that a testee knows. If the learner knows the same proportion of words then the test is a good one, but in the other hand it may present some disadvantages.

The first problem is counting the number of word in a dictionary. Many words belong to the same word family such as "happy, happiness, happily, unhappy, etc."; the mainly problem is to what should be counted as a word. However, words such as "Talk" may have many entries in a dictionary and it may seem wrong to count all these entries as separate words. (Meara, 1996) Furthermore, in order to find out how many words a testee knows, it is vital to know many words the target

vocabulary is formed by. Nation estimates that a native speaker's vocabulary is around 17 000 word families (Read, 1990).

The second problem is to make a small test for something huge. Actually, to obtain accurate results, the test should be created by the 10% of tested words. That is, if a learner's vocabulary is around 400 words, the result will be a 40 words test. However, if a learner's vocabulary has 5000 words, as 500 words test may be long for the most commonly tests formats. For instance, the bigger the learner's vocabulary is, the more of a problem this becomes.

The third problem is scoring. The score depends on the type of tests used. In many cases, the testees just guess or eliminate the words they know are not connected to the target words. But, the results at the end may not be what the test designer is focused in.

All these problems have discouraged people to create a standard vocabulary test, which may be used to research about how many words people know, how faster vocabularies grow and how these factors are relates to other aspects of linguistic competence. Some tests have been done an applied, but all of them are incompatible with each other. This makes it difficult to collect data and to contribute to the fragmentation of the field.

A solution proposed by Meara and Jones (1988, 1990) was to develop a standardized vocabulary test in a foreign language. This test consist in a set of real and imaginary, non-existing words. The testee only had to identify which of these words she or he actually knows. Then, the test is scored using statistical

techniques based on the “Signal Detection Theory” (McNichol, 1975). So, it may be known how many real words the testee knows with some degree of accuracy. Nation (1986) developed a checklist test in which the target vocabulary is well defined. This test is called the “Nation University Word list”, which consists of 2000 most frequent words in English. Once the target vocabulary is known, a testee who scores 50% will know about 50% of that vocabulary. In fact, using a set of three or four set of tests makes it possible to build up a profile of a testee’s vocabulary knowledge so, it can be measured how vocabulary growth over short periods of time.

There are many advantages about those checklist tests over other forms of vocabulary testing. One of the advantages is that it can measure a very large set of word in a very short of time. This test only takes a few of minutes to complete and this makes it very easy to test. These tests can be applied to beginners and with advanced learners, and are less complex from other test such as multiple choice batteries.

The conclusions were that the checklist tests were very promising. On the computerized version the testee receive feedback about its vocabulary size just after of finishing the test. The test also correlates well with other tests of linguistic skills, particularly in those where it would be expected vocabulary knowledge such as listening comprehension and reading comprehension. These correlations were good enough in order to allow the usage of the vocabulary test as a rough placement test (Meara and Jones, 1988).

However, some disadvantages were discovered through the time. First, the test did not work well with low-level learners who often misread items in unpredictable ways. Second, it did not work well for certain L1 groups. For example, French native speakers correlate much less well with other linguistic skills than other L1 groups. Third, a more worrying problem was that some testees were more over-willing to say “yes” to imaginary words. So, all these problems affect the performance of the test.

Nevertheless, the checklist tests still being a good methodology to the problem of measuring vocabulary size in the foreign language learners. Furthermore, these tests help to look at the way that vocabularies grow at advanced learners, how this growth is affected by the circumstances and how this affects the learner’s performance.

The major criticism is that checklist test only measures the number of words in a learner’s repertoire, but in principle, they are incapable of measure how well these words are known, and how far they have been internalized. It is truth that checklist tests do not prove if the learner knows the word; it only measures the vocabulary size. But, the argument may be that a L1 speaker with a big vocabulary knows at least all the meanings of the words: “a learner with a huge vocabulary and nothing else is a possibility, but something of a freak” (Meara, 1996) p. 44. Most of the people acquire L2 words from the exposure some knowledge about the use of these words than learners with small vocabularies. Then, vocabulary size takes a real importance as long as it is dealing with a small lexicon.

For English, a small lexicon is around five or six thousand words. (Meara, 1996), but for other languages with more morphological derivations, the number may be lower. So, vocabulary size per se becomes less important, because English appears to have rather a lot of different lexical items and relatively less in the way of a lexical system. For other languages, it may be rather different.

#### **2.4.5 Organization**

So, it seems that vocabulary size becomes less important as the lexicon is bigger. As a matter of fact, it is important to measure how well these words are known. This distinction is based between tests of vocabulary depth and tests of vocabulary breadth. Tests of vocabulary breadth are designed to assess detailed knowledge of words and their attributes. Thus, the question that is asked is: “does the testee really know this word?” (Meara, 1996).

According to Richards (1976), seven different aspects exist in order to consider knowing a word:

- a) Knowing the degree of probability of encountering the word in speech or print.
- b) Knowing the limitations of the word according to certain circumstances (function and situation).
- c) Knowing the syntactic behavior associated to the word.
- d) Knowing the underlying form for a word and the derivations that can be made of it.

- e) Knowing the association between the word and other words in the language.
- f) Knowing the semantic value of the word.
- g) Knowing the different meanings associated with the word.

Richards gives a good specification list of what it means to know a word. But, the real problem is to develop a good word knowledge test because it would be very difficult. If we want to measure a 50 word sample, then the resulting test would need at least 350 separate items, one for each set of words that we want to measure. Furthermore, Nation (1990) developed a word knowledge list of eight types of word knowledge and 16 different subcomponents. For him, testing a 50 word sample require a test with 800 separate questions. Both of the tests are too far for practical test, not only for the testees, but for the test constructor. (Meara 1996).

However, these measures are only taken for individual, separate words, but they are no generalized to a learner's entire vocabulary. So, the importance is a measure for an entire vocabulary that could be used alongside the size dimension to characterize vocabularies of different types. One possibility that is hinted to Richard's list is the "network of associations between a word and another word in the language." (based on Deese, 1965). These networks show the learner's ability to make associations between L2 words in a native-like way. For example, the word butterfly is the centre of the complex web of associations for Native English speakers. Those associations that they made were some emotional, some syntagmatic, some situational; but all of them contribute to the words butterfly.

These measures could include the degree of connectivity of a network, the average distance between randomly selected words and so on. Measures of this kind are what distinguish a true vocabulary from a mere list of words. Furthermore, it was seen that L2 learners found it less easy to find connections between words or they just could not find any relation between them, than L1 speakers.

This measure was that really distinguishes learners with different levels of proficiency, because it not only assesses the word knowledge, but it assesses the vocabulary as a whole. For nonnative speakers, it seems much harder to make connections between different parts of the lexicon, because L2 lexicons are much smaller than L1 lexicons.

Meara (1996) argues that people whose vocabularies are highly structured will be better performers than people with less structured vocabularies of an equivalent size. For instance, it is necessary to develop an alternative way of characterizing a lexicon independent of size. Lexical competence is characterized by size and organization. Some questions about vocabulary growth and the knowledge about what should be categorized as a word have been arisen. The way that beginners and advanced learners' performance might be very different from each other. "Maybe adding a handful of items, to a relatively unstructured lexicon is very different from what happens when items are added to a lexicon that already has a rich internal structure?" (Meara, 1996 p.30).

## **2.5 Functional aspects of lexical phrases**

Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) states that speaking a language means conversing in it, and comprehending a language means understanding phrases, not as isolated bits of grammatical structure, but as the flow of the surrounding discourse.

There are several types of lexical phrases that are related to particular functions for this reason Nattinger and De Carrico (1992) attempt to group these lexical phrases according to function in a way that will reflect the requirements of spoken and written language and, at the same time, be pedagogically useful.

Nattinger and De Carrico (1992) group these lexical phrases in three categories and they refer these groups as “social interactions”, “necessary topics”, and “discourse devices”. To illustrate the distinctions between each category, the authors list typical examples, these examples do not represent an exhaustive list, of course, but they do suggest some of the kinds of lexical phrases.

### **2.5.1 Social interactions**

In discussing social interactional Nattinger and De Carrico (1992) establish those that describe social relations and these consist of:

- (a) Categories of conversational maintenance (regularities of conversational interaction that describe how conversations begin, continue, and end).

These categories are divided in:



Summoning:	excuse/pardon me (sustained intonation); hey/hi/hello, (NAME), how are you (doing)?; lookit; I didn't catch/get your name; do you live around here?; hello, I'm + NAME; good morning/afternoon/ evening, (how are you?); what's up?
Responding to summons:	hi/hello, (NAME); how are you (doing)?; what's going on/happening?; hello, I'm + NAME; (I'm) fine, thanks, (and you)?
Nominating a topic:	what's X; (by the way) do you know/remember X?; have you heard about X?
Clarifying:	
(1) audience:	excuse/pardon me?; what did you mean by X/when you said X?
(2) speaker:	what I mean/I'm trying to say is X; how shall I put it ?; let me repeat
Checking comprehension:	all right?; (do you) understand (me)?
Shifting a topic:	(say,) by the way; this is (a bit) off the subject/track, but X; where were we/was I?; oh that reminds me of X

Shifting turns;	(well,) so OK; excuse/pardon me; could I say something here?
Closing:	well, that's about it; I must be going; (it's been) nice talking to you/meeting you; I've got to run/go/do X; I mustn't keep you any longer
Parting:	goodbye; see you later; (well) so long (for now)

(b) Categories of functional meaning relating to conversational purpose (types of speech acts, i.e. functions that describe the purposes for which conversations take place).

Expressing politeness:	thanks (very much); (please,) if you don't mind
Questioning:	(rising intonation), do you X?; is/are there/it/they X?
Answering:	yes, (there/it/they is/are) (X); no, (there/it they is/are not) (X)
Requesting:	Modal + Pro + VP (i.e. would you (mind) X?); may I X?
Offering:	Modal + Pro + VP (i.e. may/can I help (you)?); would you like X?
Complying:	of course; sure (thing); I'd be happy/glad to

Refusing: of course not; no way; I'd rather you X; I'm sorry  
but (I'm afraid/I think that) X

Complimenting: NP + BE/LOOK + (intensifier) + Adj; I +  
(intensifier) + LIKE/LOVE+NP

Asserting: it is (a fact/the case that) X; I think/believe that X;  
it's said that X; word has it that X; it seems X; I  
read (somewhere) that X; there is/are/was/were  
X

Responding:

(1) acknowledging

(simple reinforcers): (and then) what happened (next/then/after that)?

(2) accepting: (yeah,) I know; (oh,) I see, no kidding

(3) endorsing: yes, that's so/correct/right; I  
absolutely/certainly/completely agree; (that's) a  
(very) good/excellent point; there you go; that's  
great

(4) disagreeing: yes, but (I think that) X; I don't (really) agree (with  
you/X)

Expressing gratitude: thanks (very much/a lot) (for X); I (really)  
appreciate your thoughtfulness/kindness/doing X

Expressing sympathy: I'm (very) sorry about /to hear (about) X; (wow),  
that's/how terrible/awful; what a  
shame/pity/terrible thing

### 2.5.2 Necessary topics

Authors Nattinger and De Carrico (1992) argue that in necessary topics lexical phrases mark topics about which learners are often asked, or ones that are necessary in daily conversations like:

Autobiography: my name is \_\_\_\_; I'm from \_\_\_\_; I'm (a) \_\_\_\_  
(years old)

Language: do you speak \_\_\_\_?; how do you say/spell  
\_\_\_\_?; I don't speak \_\_\_\_ very well; I speak  
\_\_\_\_ (a little)

Quantity: how much/big is \_\_\_\_?; (not) a great deal; lots  
of \_\_\_\_

Time: when is X?; what time X?; for a long time/\_\_\_\_  
years; a \_\_\_\_ ago, since X; at/it's \_\_\_\_ o'clock;  
on \_\_\_\_ day; the \_\_\_\_ before/after \_\_\_\_

Location: where is \_\_\_\_?; what part of the \_\_\_\_?; across  
from \_\_\_\_; next to \_\_\_\_; to the right/left (of \_\_\_\_);  
how far is \_\_\_\_?; \_\_\_\_ blocks (from \_\_\_\_)

Weather:	is it going to X? it's (very) _____ (today)!, I'm _____
Likes:	I like/enjoy _____ (a lot); I don't like/enjoy _____ (at all); I'd like to X; _____ is lots of fun; (what) do you like to X?
Food:	I'd like (to have) _____/ to make a reservation (for_____); the check; a table for _____; serve breakfast/lunch/dinner
Shopping:	how much is _____?; I want to buy/see _____; it (doesn't) fit (s); (not) too expensive; a (really) good/ bad buy/bargain; _____ cost(s) (me/you/them) _____ dollars

### 2.5.3 Discourse Devices

According to Nattinger and De Carrico (1992) discourse devices are lexical phrases that connect the meaning and structure of the discourse such as:

Logical connectors:	as a result (of X); nevertheless; because (of) X; in spite of X
Temporal connectors:	the day/week/month/year before/ after_____; and then; after X then/ the next is Y
Spatial connectors:	around here; over there; at/on the corner

Fluency devices:	you know; it seems (to me) that X; I think that X; by and large; at any rate; if you see what I mean; and so on; so to speak; as a matter of fact
Exemplifiers:	in other words; it's like X; for example; to give you an example
Relators:	the (other) thing X is Y; X has (a lot)/ doesn't have (much) to do with Y; not only X but also Y
Qualifiers:	it depends on X; the catch is X; it's only in X that Y
Evaluators:	as far as I know/ can tell; there's no doubt that X; I'm (not) absolutely sure/ positive/certain (but)_____; I guess; at least; at all
Summarizers:	to make a long story short; my point (here) is that X; OK (level intonation)

Nattinger and De Carrico (1992) employ three formal categories for each one of the three functional groups which are: polywords, phrasal constraints and sentence builders.

Authors Nattinger and De Carrico (1992) talk about lexical phrases in conversational discourse; they establish that comprehending and producing a language means understanding how the parts of language fit together as parts of a discourse. Social interactions and discourse devices are the basic pragmatic

organizers and provide patterns for the framework of the discourse; necessary topics, introduced here basically for their pedagogical usefulness, provide patterns for the subject of discussion.

In the patterns in conversation, Nattinger and De Carrico (1992) states that one of the most basic interactions at the beginning of a conversation is to get the attention of the person one is talking to. So when that person responds to the summons, the next step is to get the partner to attend to the topic of discourse; one then begins to offer information about the selected topic. In this way, the participants co-operate to build a conversation. After the purpose of the conversation has been satisfied, the participant close the dialogue, and part.

## **2.6 Lexical phrases in transactional discourse**

In the excerpt from interactional versus transactional discourse, Nattinger and De Carrico (1992) establish that conversation, interpreted by listening, and written language, interpreted by reading, are to some extent different kinds of discourse. As well social conversation is viewed as basically *interactional*, used for working out social relationships, and the resulting discourse is characterized, both in form and function, by this interactional nature. On the other hand, writing is basically *transactional*, used for transmitting factual information rather than maintaining social relationships.

According to Nattinger and De Carrico (1992), the role of discourse devices is to indicate the overall direction and organization of the informational content of the discourse. Part of pragmatic competence is knowing the functions assigned to

lexical phrases that are appropriate to social conversation versus those appropriate to discourse that is basically non-social, and knowing how these functions are differently codified by the various types of lexical phrases.

It has been said that the spoken discourse of conversation has been characterized as mainly interactional. However, although social conversation is indeed basically interactional, that is, formed through social interaction, this is not necessarily so for other kinds of spoken discourse. Nattinger and De Carrico (1992).

Although transactional spoken discourse and transactional written discourse share the primary purpose of transmitting factual information, and although discourse markers function in the same way in both, it does not follow that these discourse markers are necessarily identical in form. Nattinger and De Carrico (1992) emphasize that the point here with respect to lexical phrases, is that transactional spoken discourse is still spoken discourse, and for the most part it is characterized by the same types of discourse markers found in social conversation, rather than by those found in writing.

In this topic of lexical phrases, the authors Nattinger and De Carrico (1992) discussed lessons that lead students to use “prefabricated language” in much the same way as first language learners do in order to learn how to produce, comprehend, and analyze the language.



## 2.7 Adjacency pairs

The author McCarthy (1991) states that pairs of utterances in talk are often mutually dependent; a most obvious example is that a question predicts an answer, and that an answer presupposes a question. According to McCarthy (1991) it is possible to state the requirements, in a normal conversational sequence, for many types of utterances, in terms of what is expected as a response and what certain responses presuppose: Some examples might be:

Utterance function	Expected response
Greeting	greeting
Congratulation	thanks
Apology	acceptance
Inform	acknowledge
Leave-taking	leave-taking

McCarthy (1991) establishes that adjacency pairs are of different types. Some ritualized first pair-parts may have an identical second-part (hello-hello, happy New Year- happy New Year), while others expect a different second pair-part (congratulations-thanks). Equally, a second pair-part such as thanks will presuppose quite a wide range of first pair-parts (offers, apologies, informing moves, congratulations, commiserations, etc.).

According to McCarthy (1991) the principle of adjacency pairs and how they are realized in natural speech point to the importance of creating minimal contexts in the teaching of common communicative functions and the limited value of teaching single utterances.

## **2.8 Collocations**

In lexicology and phraseology collocation refers to the regular co-occurrence of words also it is an expression consisting of two or more words that correspond to some conventional way of saying things (Lewis, 2000).

A collocation is often defined as either a recurring combination of words that is often arbitrary, or just a recurring combination of few words without emphasizing its arbitrariness (Sinclair, 1991 p.123).

### **2.8.1 Grammatical collocations**

Grammatical collocations consist of a noun, an adjective, or a verb plus a preposition or a grammatical structure such as infinitive or a clause. Examples: account for, advantage over, adjacent to, by accident, o be afraid that.

### **2.8.2 Lexical collocations**

Lexical collocations consist of various combinations of nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs. Lexical collocations, in contrast to grammatical collocations, do not contain prepositions, infinitives or clauses.

Examples:

verb + noun (inflict a wound, withdraw an offer)

adjective + noun (a crushing defeat)

noun + verb (storms rage)

noun + noun (a world capital)

adverb + adjective (deeply absorbed)

verb + adverb (appreciate sincerely) (Benson, Benson & Ilson, 1998)

Different proposals have been put forward as to how lexical material might be organized for instruction. The most ambitious attempt to realize a syllabus and accompanying materials based on lexical rather than grammatical principles is the Collins COBUILD English course.

Nattinger and DeCarrico propose a functional schema for organizing instruction. Distinguishing lexical phrases as social interactions, necessary topics, and discourse devices seems to us the most effective distinction for pedagogical purposes. (Nattinger and DeCarrico 1992:185 taken from Richards & Rodgers 2001:135)

Their book *Lexical Phrases and Language Teaching* (Nattinger, J.R. & DeCarrico J.S., 1992) provides some recommendations for having students practice “useful invariable phrases commonly used in written discourse”, some with variable slots that students can fill in.

Michael Hoey in his book, *Patterns of Lexis in Text*, (1991) demonstrates the central role lexis plays in cohesion, even across sentence boundaries and over distances with texts.

“The lexical view holds that only a minority of spoken sentences are entirely novel creations and that multiword units functioning as “chunks” or memorized patterns form a high proportion of the fluent stretches of speech heard in everyday conversation” (Pawley and Syder 1983 taken from Richards & Rodgers 2001: 133)

### **2.8.3 The semantic approach**

The semantic approach tries to determine the specific shape collocations take, why words collocate with certain other words, how the meaning of a word is reduced to its ultimate contrastive elements resulting in the atomization of meaning (Katz and Fodor, 1963)

### **2.8.4 The structural approach**

This approach takes collocation to be determined by its structural patterns. This grammatical perspective contrast somewhat from the previous two approaches in that its concentration is chiefly grammatical and lexical (Gitsaki, 1996). Lexis cannot be separated from grammar, because the two are distinct but related aspects of the same phenomenon (Bahns, 1993)

Examples:

*Do*            my hair/ the cooking/ the laundry/ my work

*Make* my bed/ a promise/ coffee/ a meal

Many other lexical units also occur in language.

For example:

*Binomials*: clean and tidy, back to front,

*Trinomials*: cool, calm and collected

*Idioms*: dead drunk, to run up a bill

*Similes*: as old as the hills

*Connectives*: finally, to conclude

*Conversational gambits*: Guess what! (Richards & Rodgers 2001:133)

## **2.9 English for Specific Business Purposes**

The author Belcher (2009) argues that an important characteristic of business discourse research is that many researchers in the field are also active in teaching. As a result, many of the methodologies associated initially with LSP/ESP research, such as needs analysis, surveys, genre analysis, and close text analysis, have also been used in investigating discourse. Unlike LSP/ESP research, however, business discourse research on the whole has been motivated less by pedagogical concerns and more by the desire to gain an understanding how people communicate effectively and strategically in an organizational context.

This has led to Belcher (2009), an increasing interest in the use of Business English as a Lingua Franca (BELF) and in the impact of the intercultural on international business communication. Also according to Belcher (2009) business

English can perhaps be considered one of the biggest money spinners in terms of global education, again reflecting the dominance of English as an international business language.

Research on business discourse is particularly relevant as a source of inspiration for English for Special Business Purposes (ESBP) teaching, as business discourse “is all about how people communicate using talk or writing in commercial organizations in order to get their work done” and can be regarded as “language as social action in business contexts” (Bargiela-Chaiappini, Nickerson & Planken, 2007, p. 3).

Diane Belcher has pointed out that the very fact that ESP teaching tends traditionally toward setting narrow objectives is regarded by its critics as “the essence of the shortcomings of the ESP approach to English language teaching” (Belcher, 2004). In the critics’ view, by narrowing the focus of ESP to cater to the specific needs of a specific target group, ESP training teaches learners “enough English to survive” in certain pre-defined contexts, but “not enough to survive” in certain pre-defined contexts, but “not enough to survive in the world at large,” while ESP materials remain “too far removed from the real-life contexts that learners aim for” (Belcher, 2004, p. 165).

Belcher (2009) states that in the past five years, researchers interested in business discourse have begun to refer to theories on multimodality put forward by researchers such as Kress and Van Leeuwen (2001), together with the

incorporation of multimodality and hypertextuality, in the theory of hypermodality, which is proposed by Lemke (2002).

Kress and Van Leeuwen (2001) provide a comprehensive framework in their 2001 publication *Multimodal Discourse* that views speech and writings as only two ways of making meaning within a range of other options that may also include other modes of making meaning, such as colors, objects portrayed in photographs, type-face, voice, quality, type of recording, etc.

On the other hand, Belcher (2009) argues that in recent years, a growing group of researchers has investigated the BE that I used as a common language in business interactions involving people who are speakers of languages other than English. Such BELF can be seen “as a ‘neutral’ and shared communication code”: neutral because “none of the speakers can claim it as his/her mother tongue” and shared as “it is used for conducting business within the global discourse community, whose members are BELF users and communicators in their own right-non “non native speakers” or “learners” (Louhiala-Salminen, Charles, & Kankaanranta, 2005, pp. 403-404).

Belcher (2009) point the number of important influences on the research on written Business English (BE), including the work of the genre analyst Vijay Bhatia, the concern with the business letter in much of the research in the 1980s and 1990s, and the continuing dominance of English an international business language. Also the author Belcher (2009) considers the teaching of written BE, together with

a profile of four publications that show evidence of the influence of research in the generation of teaching materials.

It has been showed the relevance that Business English has in this time since the point of view of the author Belcher (2009) also she pointed in different ways, what this learning might entail, and moves us forward in our thinking about how we might help ESP learners do and create other researches.

## **2.10 Lexical landscaping in business meetings**

Collins and Scott (1997) intend to describe how non-sequential topic is organized, i.e., how topics and sub-topics of different business meetings emerge through lexical connections and how topics themselves are lexically linked to each other.

There are three central tools from a set of fundamental notions which support the lexical analysis which are:

- **Repetition:** there are two main types of repetition: **simple repetition**, it occurs when a lexical item is repeated with no greater alteration than is entirely explicable in terms of a closed grammatical paradigm (Hoey 1991: 53) and **complex repetition**, it occurs when two lexical items share a lexical morpheme, but are not formally identical, or when they are formally identical but have different grammatical functions (Hoey 1991:55).
- **Keyness of words:** according to Collins and Scott (1997) the notion of keyword that they proposed is akin to the notion in information



retrieval. It is inextricably linked to the notion of text, because it derives from perusal of a whole text. A word is only key in the context of a particular text. *Sugar* may be key in one text but incidental in another.

- **Collocational links:** a collocate is a word which occurs within the neighborhood of a word under investigation. Thus, collocates of business (a word under investigation) in one of the meetings include community, profit, development as well as common function words such as the, of, was. As collocates intercollocate (Phillips 1989), sets of collocates can be observed, i.e., links between words can be distinguished. Linkage can work in several ways.

A fourth notion, at more abstract level, is the notion of **aboutness** as proposed by Phillips (1989) who is interested in exploring aspects of “the relationship between structure of written texts and the psychological perception of subject matter, that is, the awareness in the reader that the text is about something” (Phillips 1989: 7). He refers to the term aboutness as a large scale phenomenon, as a notion that derives from the reader’s perception of the large-scale organization of text, and not as a function of particular structures responsible for the local organisation of linguistic comprehension.

For Phillips, aboutness is manifested in text on the plane of propositional meaning, as a notion that motivates and requires “an analysis which makes no appeal to any beliefs about language derived from sources outside the text” (Phillips 1989: 8).

Collins and Scott (1997) argue that the keywords of a communicative event, with the links between them and among their collocates can be coherently and visually displayed as a **topical landscape** of that event. That is, the combined effect of tracing keywords (which relate to whole-text aboutness) and collocational linkage (which derives from a narrow co-text span, a localised aboutness of a few words) produces a topical landscape for the text in question.

Collins and Scott (1997) states that context can refer to a whole text (in this case a whole meeting), and this is the sense in which keywords are identified, but context is also commonly used to refer to a narrow sentential or clausal neighborhood. Aboutness has to do not only with important lexical items, but also with how these relate to each other in “context.

## **CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY**

### **3.1 Introduction**

In Chapter I, it was highlighted that the main aim of this study is to identify and analyze the functional aspects of collocations in Business English conversations. As a result, in Chapter II a description of the perspectives from different authors were discussed to emphasize the importance of the main concepts considered in the thesis. This information was crucial to make the analysis and conduct this study coherently.

As a sum in the previous chapters we assumed that language is patterned and that each situation can be associated with a particular set of communicative units. This chapter provides specific information about the lexicographic study realized. The analysis of the data collected is the most important thing in this research, for this reason a description of the data collecting and analysis procedures are given of this research.

### **3.2 Instruments**

This research considers the following distinct situations regarding Business English: telephone calls, booking, making appointments, job interviews, and conversation between managers vs. employee. In the research, communicative units of a text that are associated with each situation can be identifying linguistically by employing the notion of fixed or quasi fixed expressions (mainly collocations).

This study was carried out through fourteen different situations that were taken from two different teacher's books: Click on 3 Evans V. & O'Sullivan N. and Click on 3 Workbook teacher's. Evans, V. & O'Sullivan, N. These books were consulted at the library from the Facultad de Lenguas in Puebla City. The data was collected from these books because they are related to business English but also because they are located within an intermediate level.

The fourteen situations are very similar, these were elected in the following way: five of them are telephone calls, three are to book a ticket, one is to book a cruise, one is to make an appointment, one is asking for information about a course, another is a job interview, other is to apply for a credit card and other is a conversation between manager vs. employee.

Most of the conversations have between ten to twenty lines written, but the shortest has six lines and the longest conversation has twenty eight lines. In nine of the fourteen situations it was found that the interaction is between receptionist vs. client, in two of them the conversation is between secretary vs. client, in another two the interaction is between manager vs. employee and in one of them the interaction is between employees vs. client.

### **3.3 Procedures and data analysis**

First of all, the methodology followed to develop this thesis project was qualitative and quantitative research, which involves collecting data via conversations analyzed.

This is a lexicographical study about the functional aspects of collocations. The initial analysis comprises the identification of lexical phrases in the fourteen conversations already elected. Each different situation was analyzed to identify the lexical phrases as well as collocations. After the identification, these lexical phrases were grouped according to their function; these groups are divided in Social Interactions, which has two subcategories Conversational Maintenance and Conversational purpose; Necessary topics and Discourse Devices. This coding scheme was proposed by Nattinger and De Carrico (1992).

This process was kind of complex because it takes a lot of time to start analyzing the conversations but once you know how to do it, it results easier to identify and to group the lexical phrases. Firstly, after having elected the two texts and chosen the fourteen conversations, the lexical phrases were identified and then, these phrases were classified in the three groups according to their function. Then the different kinds of collocations that appear in each different situation were identified and also a classification from the collocations found, was made.

Finally after the classification, each lexical phrase was counted depending on their function and the results were scored to represent them in Excel graphics, in order to find the percentage of the coincidences, to see which of the three categories tend to appear more in the fourteen different conversations.

### **3.4 Coding Scheme**

The lexical phrases identified as: **Social interaction** were identified with the abbreviation **(SI)**, which markers those that describe social relations, consists of

Categories of **conversational maintenance** (regularities of conversational interaction that describe how conversations begin, continue, and end). These categories were divided in: summoning, responding to summons, nominating a topic, clarifying: audience/speaker, checking comprehension, shifting a topic, shifting turns, closing and parting. These lexical phrases were marked as shown below: Good morning, Norten´s Travel. (**Summoning: SI**)

Categories of functional meaning that are related to **conversational purpose** (types of speech acts, i.e. functions that describe the purpose for which conversations take place), were divided in: expressing politeness, questioning, answering, requesting, offering, complying, refusing, complimenting, asserting, responding: acknowledging/accepting/endorsing/disagreeing, expressing gratitude and expressing sympathy. These lexical phrases were marked as shown in the example below.

A: Single, please. (**Answering: SI**) (**Expressing politeness: SI**)

**Necessary topics** are lexical phrases that mark topics about which learners are often asked, or ones that are necessary in daily conversations like: autobiography, language, quantity, time, location, weather, likes, food, shopping. These lexical phrases were marked as (**NT**) and an example is presented below: When for? (**Time: NT**)

Finally, the **Discourse Devices** that are lexical phrases that connects the meaning and structure of the discourse such as: logical connectors, temporal connectors, spatial connectors, fluency devices, exemplifiers, relators, qualifiers,

evaluators and summarizers; these were identified with the abbreviation **(DD)** as shown below: As a matter of fact. **(Fluency devices: DD)**

In this part, one of the different kinds of situations already analyzed is presented to show the coding scheme that was used to make the classification.

**BOOK A CRUISE (Receptionist vs. client)**

A: Good morning, Norten´s Travel. **(Summoning: SI)**

B: Yes, good morning. **(Responding to summons: SI)** I´d like to **book a Mediterranean cruise** please. **(Requesting: SI) (Expressing politeness: SI)**

A: Certainly, madam. **(Responding-endorsing: SI)** When for? **(Time: NT)**

B: 21<sup>st</sup> August for two weeks. **(Time: NT)**

A: That´s fine. **(Responding – Endorsing: SI)** Would you like a **single or a double cabin?** **(Offering: SI)**

B: Single, please. **(Answering: SI) (Expressing politeness: SI)**

A: Could I **take your name**, please? **(Requesting: SI) (Expressing politeness: SI)**

B: Yes, it´s Vicky White. **(Answering: SI)** How much does the cruise cost? **(Quantity: NT) (Shopping: NT)**

A: it´s £1,650 per person, **including all meals.** **(Answering: SI) (Quantity: NT)**

B: Great! **(Responding-endorsing: SI)** Do I have to **pay in advance?** **(Questioning: SI) (Shopping: NT)**

A: Yes, you do. (**Answering: SI**) You pay a month before. (**Asserting: SI**) (**Time: NT**)

B: Right then. (**Responding-endorsing: SI**) Thank you very much. (**Expressing gratitude: SI**) (**Closing: SI**)

A: Thank you, Ms White. (**Expressing politeness: SI**) (**Closing: SI**)

The data analysis is described and compared in Chapter Four and consecutively conclusions are analyzed and presented in Chapter Five.



## **CHAPTER IV: FINDINGS**

### **4.1 Overview**

The aim of this chapter is to present the results obtained from the lexicographic analysis. Firstly, the analysis of the situations is given. Consecutively, a discussion of the situations based on our methodology is given and finally the results are represented graphically and compared at the end of this section.

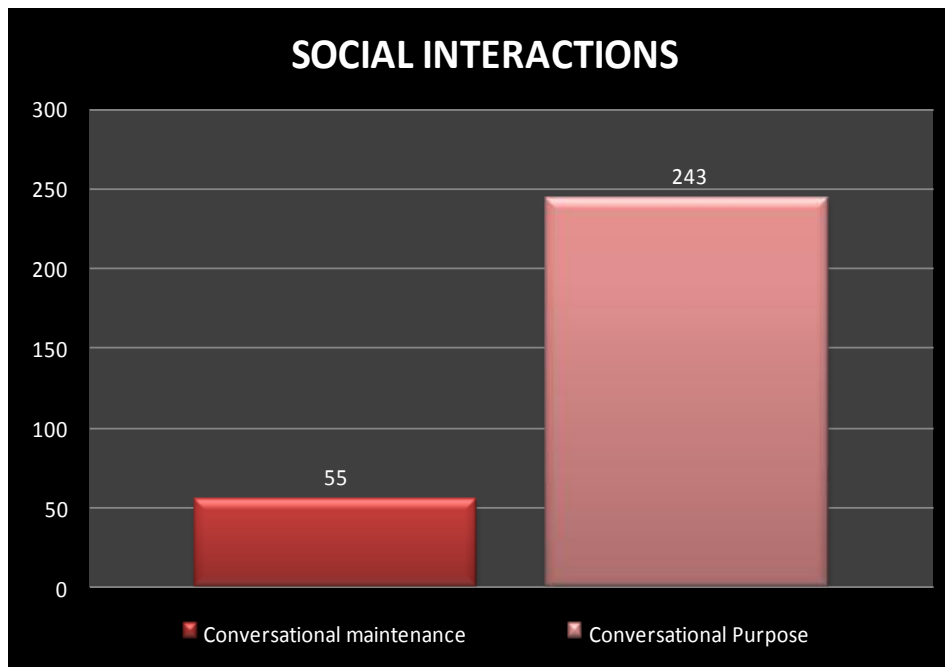
Firstly, the fourteen situations were classified in the three groups according to their function. These three groups contain each lexical phrase that appeared in the different situations according to the classification.

### **4.2 Functional aspects of the samples analyzed**

In order to analyze the lexical phrases found in the fourteen English Business conversations, they were grouped according to their function. As it was stated previously these categories are referred as “social interactions”, “necessary topics” and “discourse devices. Social interactions are markers describing social relations. Necessary topics are those topics about which learners will be asked, or ones they will need to talk about frequently. The third group consists of discourse devices that are types of lexical phrases that connect the meaning and structure of the discourse. Under each category a list of strategies was employed.

### 4.2.1 Social Interactions

Social interactions consist of two main categories: conversational maintenance and conversational purpose. The total number of lexical phrases of the group social interactions that appeared in the fourteen conversations was 298.



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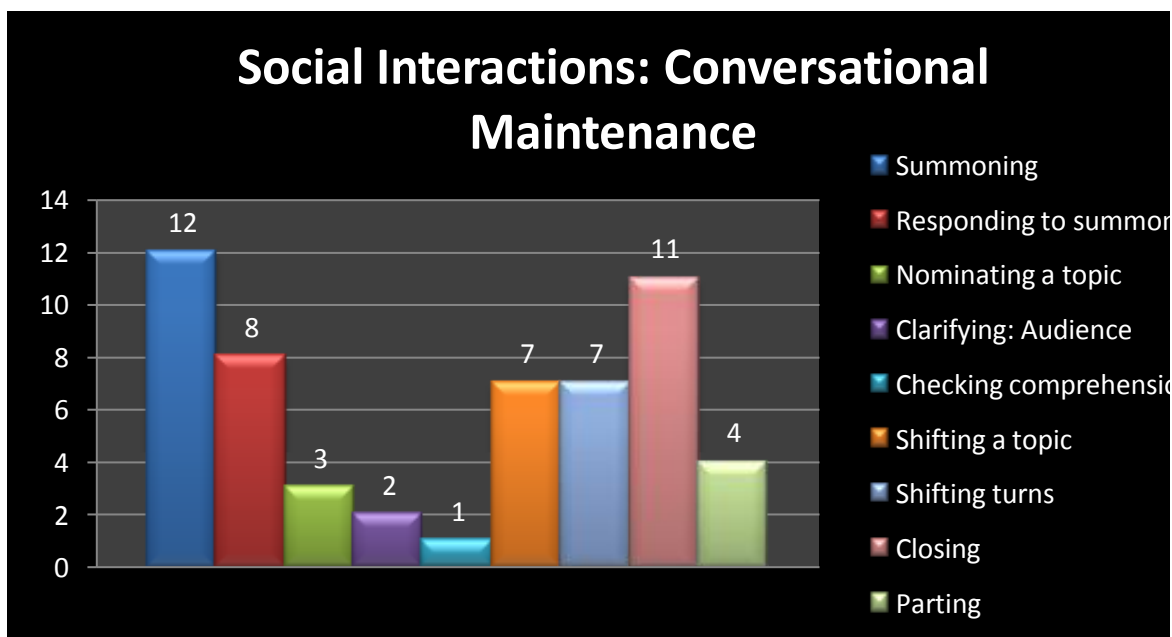
**Figure (1). Frequency of conversational maintenance versus conversational purpose.**

As it is noticed in Figure (1), there is a tendency in the use of phrases regarding conversational purposes in the situations analyzed. According to Figure (1), the total number of lexical phrases from the group social interactions was 298 consisting of 243 lexical phrases from the category conversational purpose and 55 lexical phrases from the category conversational maintenance. It can be said that

in social interactions, conversational purpose was used with a higher frequency than conversational maintenance. It demonstrates that the speaker tend to use more lexical phrases of conversational purpose in Business English conversations because the applied strategies have a purpose which is to question, answer, request, offer, etc. in this way the conversation unfolds and the speaker can express what he wants.

#### 4.2.1.1 Conversational maintenance

These are conversation interactions that describe how conversations begin, continue, and end.



**Figure (2). Frequency of conversational maintenance's subcategories.**

As it is seen in Figure (2), the most used strategy was summoning, 12 lexical phrases were found in the conversations analyzed. This result shows that summoning is very common in English business because its function is to describe

how a conversation begins and the way and size of summon has great importance, the more information the speaker gives to begin a conversation, the more attention will have. Then, the second most used strategy was closing, 11 lexical phrases were found; closing indicates how a conversation ends in this way when the conversation is finished the speaker knows how to close it in a polite way. The less used strategy was checking comprehension; it was used only 1 time, which indicates that most of the time the speaker was assuming he was being understood without the necessity of checking comprehension.

Lexical phrases were also ranked according to their frequency in each different strategy so that they were counted depending on how many times they appear in all the fourteen conversations. The number next to each phrase corresponds to the frequency that the lexical phrases have in the fourteen Business English conversations.

**Summoning:** Good morning (2) + (NAME) (3), Hello + (Name of the person speaking) (4), Hello (1) \_\_\_\_how can I help you? (2)

**Responding to summons:** Yes good morning (1), Hello (3), Good morning(4)

**Nominating a topic:** \_\_\_\_X (1), Well...(1), I'm interested...(1)

**Clarifying:**

**(1) Audience:** A....(1), Excuse me...(1)

**Checking comprehension:** Do you understand? (1)

**Shifting a topic:** Now... (1), But that's not all (1), Also (1), and (2),  
Oh, and... (1), by the way...(1)

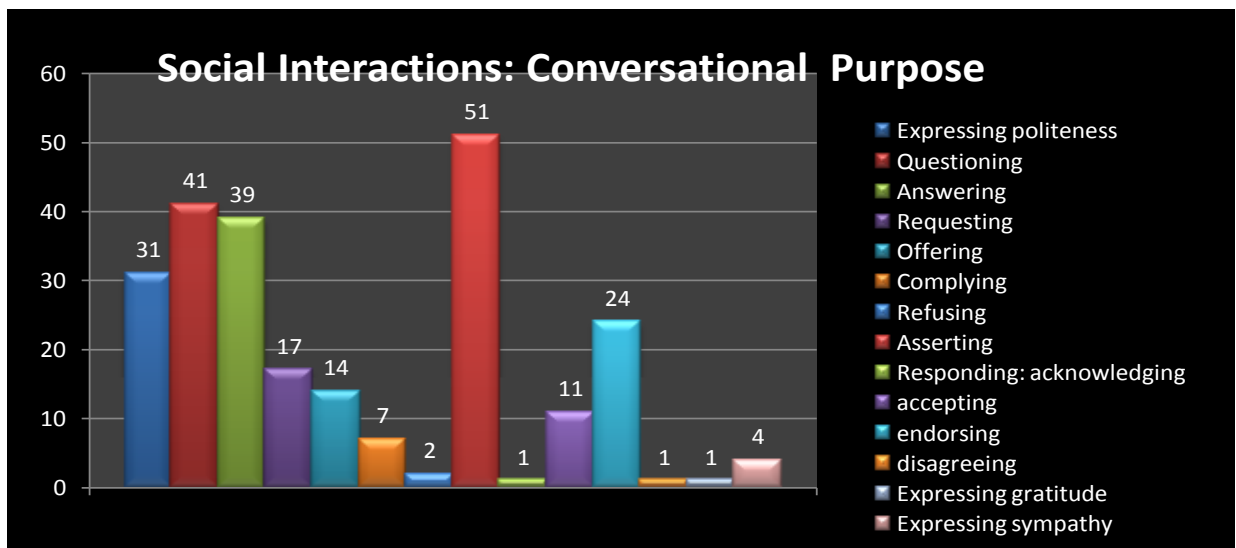
**Shifting turns:** OK (1), + (NAME) (1), Well (3), Oh, wait! (1),  
...and (1)

**Closing:** Will that be all? (1), Thank you (2) + (NAME) (1),  
Thank you very much (1), Thank you for calling  
(1), OK (1), That would be great! (1), Your  
welcome (2), Good bye (1)

**Parting:** Good bye (3), Bye (1)

#### 4.2.1.2 Conversational purpose

These are types of speech acts and functions that describe the purposes for which conversation take place.



**Figure (3). Frequency of Conversational Purpose.**

In Figure (3), it can be seen the frequency that each single strategy from the conversational purpose category had in the fourteen conversations. The most used strategy in the conversations was assertion, 51 lexical phrases were found. The less used strategies were: responding: acknowledging, disagreeing and expressing gratitude; only 1 phrase of each one was found. However 31 phrases were found to be used to express politeness and the most frequent phrase used was “please”. It is important to notice that the speaker tend to make assertions all the time in Business English language, and when he wants to be polite is important the use of the phrase “please”.

Similarly, the lexical phrases were classified in each different strategy of conversational purpose and these were counted too, so the number next to each phrase represents the frequency that these phrases had.

**Expressing politeness:** Please (20), Thank you very much (1), Thank you (8),  
Your welcome (2)

**Questioning:** Are X? (3), What’s X? (5), Do I have X? (1), Have you X?(1), Is there X? (1), Is\_\_in? (1), Is X? (5), Why do X? (1), What X? (4), Do you X? (1), Would X? (1), How do X? (1), When...? (5), ...X? (4), Which X? (1), Will X? (1), The...? (1), So....? (1), Here? (1), Shall I...? (1)

**Answering:** Yes (8), is (1), It’s (7), there is (1),) No\_\_\_is not (1), No (2), ...X (9), Because (1), I’m...(2), I have (1), Please (1), That...(1), Well...(2), It...(1), Don’t worry (1)

**Requesting:** I'd like to...(4), Could I X? (1), Can I X? (4), Can you X? (1), Could you X? (4), Could I have X? (1), Make X (1), I want to...(1)

**Offering:** Would you like? (4), How can I help you? (1), Can I X? (2), I can help you (1), Can I help you? (1), What would you like to order? (1), How may I help you? (2), I'll...(1), What can I do for you? (1)

**Complying:** Sure (3), Of course (4)

**Refusing:** Sorry (1), I'm sorry (1)

**Asserting:** I suppose (1), It is only because of the fact (1), You...(4), That's... (2), Hold on a minute (1), I'll ... (3), \_\_\_X (9), Just... (3), I have... (5), I think (1), So... (1), I can (3), You can (1), This...(2), I know... (1), It...(1), I notice... (1), I won't... (1), I am... (1), The...(2), I'm interested (1), There are...(1), Let me...(3), Let's go...(2)

**Responding:**

**(1) acknowledging**

**(simple reinforces):** Then? (1),

**(2) accepting:** OK (8), I see (1), Yeah! (1), Alright (1)

(3) **endorsing:** Certainly (4), That's fine (2), Great (2), Yes (3),  
 Right (3), OK (2), Good (2), That sound fine (1), That  
 sounds perfect (1), That would be great! (1), Ok I'ts  
 perfect (1), That's right (1), Alright (1)

(4) **disagreeing:** But that's not all (1)

**Expressing gratitude:** Thank you very much (1)

**Expressing sympathy:** Oh, I'm sorry (2), Oh, sorry (1), Don't worry (1)

#### 4.2.2 Necessary topics

These lexical phrases mark topics about which learners are often asked, or ones that are necessary in daily conversations.

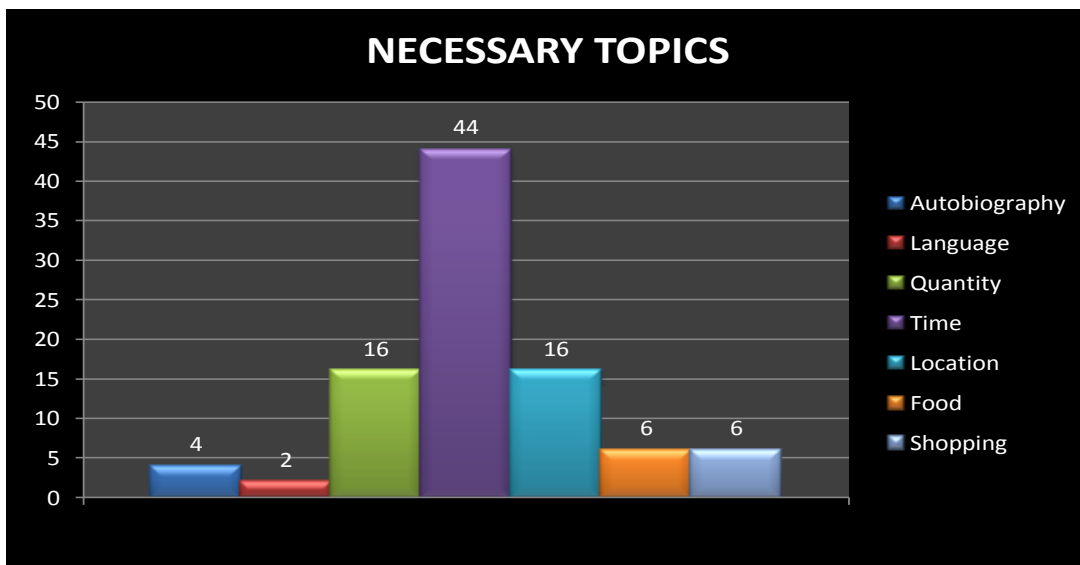


Figure (4). Frequency of necessary topics.



According to figure (4), the most frequent strategy was “time”, 44 lexical phrases were employed in the conversations, which shows that “time” is a very important necessary topic in Business English interactions because the speaker tends to use it in daily conversations. The second most used strategies were quantity and location. 16 lexical phrases of each strategy were found. Nevertheless only 2 lexical phrases were found in the strategy language, which means that in Business English situations the speaker has to be very clear but if he doesn't understand something it is valid to ask for spelling.

The lexical phrases were classified in each different strategy of the category necessary topic and these also were counted. Every phrase has a number next to them, which represent the frequency that these have.

- Autobiography:** I'm (a)\_\_\_\_(2), My name's\_\_\_\_\_(1), NAME (1)
- Language:** Can you spell that? (1) Spelling...(1)
- Quantity:** How much? (5) What is your salary? (1) £\_\_\_\_per person (1) That's £ \_\_\_\_ (1) It's £...(3) That will be Rs...(1) The cheapest (1) The price(1) The cheaper (1) It's only...\$(1)
- Time:** When for? (1), for ... weeks (1), all day (1), any time (3), When's? (1), What time? (1), At (4), Over an hour (1), When\_\_\_\_\_for? (1), o'clock (2), for tomorrow (1), When X?(3), overtime (1), full time (2), part time (2), a month before (1), tomorrow night (1), for tomorrow

morning (1), yet (1), Date(1), days (1), often (1), ...years (2), month (2), hours (1), from...to...(1), on the...(1), day before(1), departure and arrival times (1), How long?(1), minutes (1), later (1),

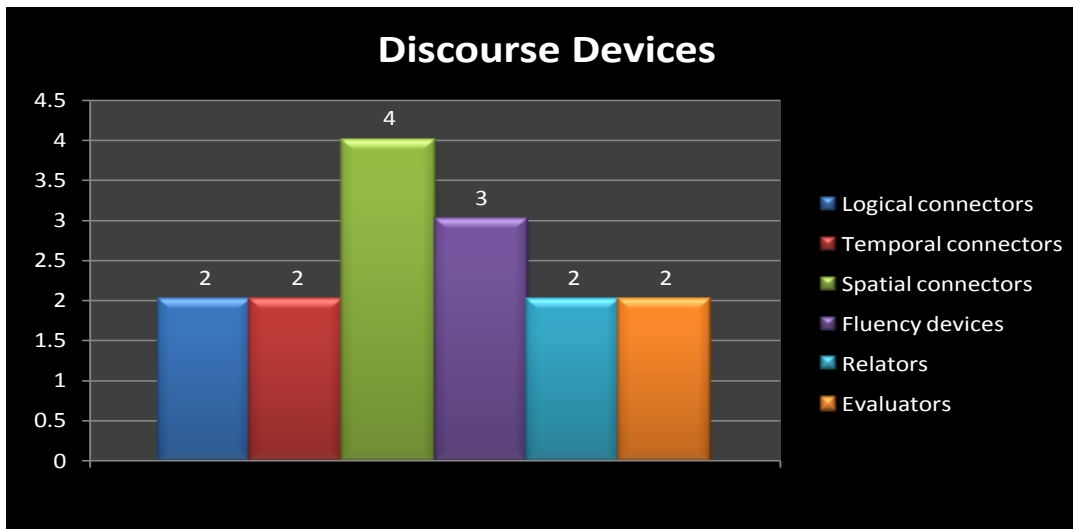
**Location:** Where X? (1), What's your address? (2), Which room are you in? (1), from\_\_\_\_\_to\_\_\_\_\_ (3) Room # (2) on \_\_\_\_ (1) at (2) It's...(1) address(1) What is... destination? (1) to...(1)

**Food:** I'd like (1), (to order breakfast) (2), Continental breakfast (1), What would you like to order? (1), lunch breaks (1),

**Shopping:** Pay in advance (1), How much does ... cost? (1), plus the cost (1), a little expensive (1), afford it (1), The price is double (1)

#### 4.2.3 Discourse Devices

These are lexical phrases that connect the meaning and structure of the discourse.



**Figure (5). Frequency of discourse devices.**

Based on data in Figure (5), only 4 phrases were found to be used as spatial connectors, 3 phrases were found as fluency devices and the less frequent strategies were logical-temporal connectors, relators and evaluators. According to these results, discourse devices are not very frequent in Business English conversations but it doesn't mean that these are not important. As it was mentioned before the role of discourse devices is to indicate the overall direction and organization of the informational content of the discourse for discourse devices are more used in written language than in spoken language.

Similarly, the same process was followed with the lexical phrases that were found in the discourse devices category.

**Logical connectors:** However (1), because (1)

**Temporal connectors:** After (1), next (1)

<b>Spatial connectors:</b>	At (2), here (2)
<b>Fluency devices:</b>	As a matter of fact (1), It's just that (1) It's only because of the fact (1)
<b>Relators:</b>	But (1), Also (1)
<b>Evaluators:</b>	This just isn't good enough (1), but (1)

### 4.3 Collocations

Collocation refers to the regular co-occurrence of words also it is an expression consisting of two or more words that correspond to some conventional way of saying things (Lewis, 2000).

#### 4.3.1 Lexical Collocations

Lexical collocations consist of various combinations of nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs. Lexical collocations, in contrast to grammatical collocations, do not contain prepositions, infinitives or clauses.

The lexical collocations found in the fourteen different business English conversations were classified depending on the combination and a list of these collocations was made below.

#### Adj + Noun

- **Single or a double** cabin
- **The cruise** cost?
- His line is **engaged busy**.
- Breakdown service
- Business Management, introductory, advanced course

- Single or return
- Engaged busy

### **Verb + Noun**

- **Book** a cruise, ticket,
- **Hold on** a second, a minute
- **Make, the** reservation, an appointment, a flight reservation
- **Order** breakfast
- **Reaches** Liverpool
- Pay in advance
- Leave a message
- Call me back
- Stuck in traffic
- Set off
- Have a word
- Take your name, a message
- Including all meals
- Turned up yet
- Got stuck in traffic
- Turn on your hazard lights
- Getting up
- Afford it
- Block your ticket
- To catch a return flight
- Ring back later

### **Noun + Noun**

- **Time** tomorrow
- Full-**time** or part-**time** job
- Hazard lights

- Expense account
- Anything the matter

#### **4.3.2 Grammatical Collocations (prep)**

Grammatical collocations consist of a noun, an adjective, or a verb plus a preposition or a grammatical structure such as infinitive or a clause.

The same process as it was made before was followed but this time with grammatical collocations and a list of this kind of collocations was made below.

- **Per** person
- **At** my hotel, the Pioneer Hotel
- **On** Granville Street.
- **Apply for** a job, a credit card
- I'll put you through
- Turned up yet.

#### **IT construction**

- **It's** Simpson.

#### **Possessive's**

- Norten's Travel
- One's
- Employer's name

It is evident the large number of collocations found on the different Business English situations analyzed. For this reason is very important the use of collocations in transactional language. The conclusions of this research will be discussed in chapter five.

## CHAPTER V: CONCLUSIONS

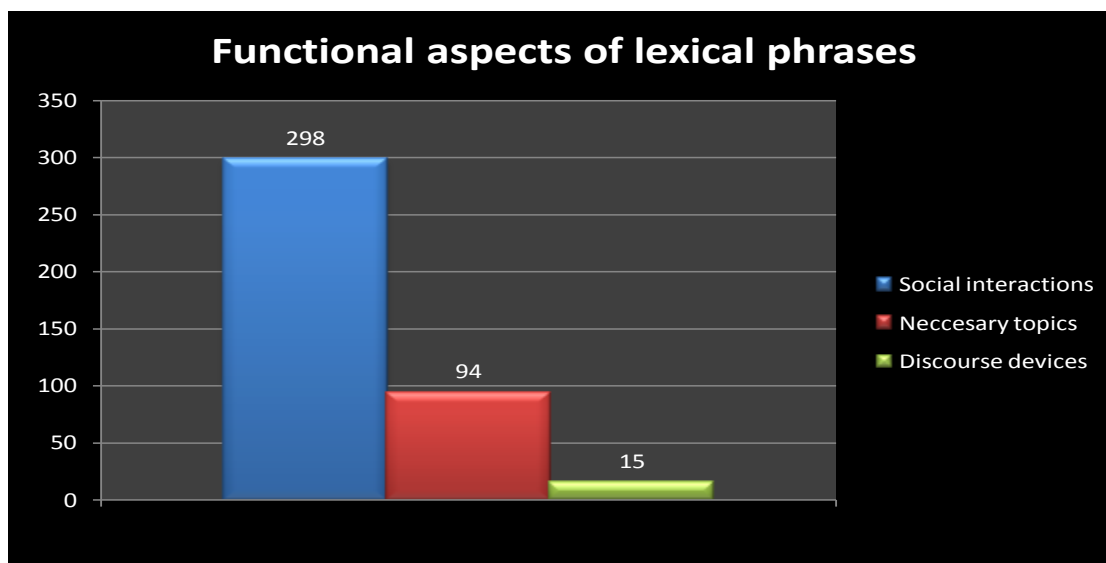
In this chapter the conclusions of the results obtained are presented regarding the main objective of this research, which was to make a lexicographic analysis about the functional aspects of lexical phrases. There are several conclusions about the results that were found.

The question set out at the beginning of this project will be cited in order to respond it.

1. Which of the three categories of the lexical phrases such as: social interactions, necessary topics and discourse devices, tend to appear more in the transactional language conversations and why is it important for learners to know the function of lexical phrases?

### 5.1 Discussion

There are several types of lexical phrases that are related to particular functions, these were grouped according to their function in the categories “social interactions”, “necessary topics”, and “discourse devices” in order to reflect the requirements of spoken and written language and, at the same time, be pedagogically useful. As can be seen in figure (6), the most used category of lexical phrases in transactional language was social interactions, which indicate that students of Business English should be taught regularly the employment of social interactions phrases as part of their curriculum.



**Figure (6). Frequency of functional aspects of lexical phrases.**

Figure (6) also shows the total lexical phrases found in all the fourteen conversations, 407 lexical phrases were employed and performed by the speakers in the different situations. According to the results it can be appreciated that 298 of the total number of lexical phrases were found in the group of social interaction. Then 94 phrases were classified in the category of necessary topics. Finally only 15 were found in the category of discourse devices.

This study shows that in business English conversations the speaker tends to use more lexical phrases of social interaction than necessary topics or discourse devices. Necessary topics as its name say are necessary to know specific information about something, but social interactions are used all the time.

The category that tends to appear more in the transactional language conversations is “Social Interaction”. Based on the results obtained from the



lexicographic study, 407 lexical phrases were found in total on the fourteen conversations and 298 was the total number of lexical phrases found from the group social interaction.

It is important to mention too that in the categories of Social Interaction “Conversational Purpose” was the most used with 243 lexical phrases found and the most frequent subcategories more used were “Asserting” with 51 and “Questioning” with 41 lexical phrases found. So this study proves that in Business English conversations, the speaker tends to use more lexical phrases of social interaction than necessary topics or discourse devices. Also the speaker tends to make assertions and ask for information all the time the strategies of questioning and asserting which have a conversational purpose.

This result is in concordance with Nattinger and De Carrico’s finding (1992) that says that comprehending and producing a language means understanding how the parts of language fit together as parts of a discourse. Social interactions and discourse devices are the basic pragmatic organizers and provide patterns for the framework of the discourse; necessary topics, introduced here basically for their pedagogical usefulness, provide patterns for the subject of discussion.

In the patterns in conversation one of the most basic interactions at the beginning of a conversation is to get the attention of the person one is talking to, is very important the size of the summons because the person will give the necessary information without being asked. So when that person responds to the summons, the next step is to get the partner to attend to the topic of discourse; one then begins to offer information about the selected topic. In this way, the participants co-

operate to build a conversation. After the purpose of the conversation has been satisfied, the participant closes the dialogue. This is the reason why the speaker tends to use more lexical phrases of the category social interactions.

Finally, the results demonstrate the importance of the use of these lexical phrases in Business English conversations because learners tend to use common vocabulary but sometimes they don't know how to correlate it in common transactional situations. For this reason it is very important for learners to be familiar to the lexical phrases and, most important, to know their function. In this way, learners are aware of the functional organization of lexical phrases for business English and it's easier for them to communicate in a correct way.

## **5.2 Pedagogical Implications**

Learners prefer to use a limited number of words. They do not want to exploit their vocabulary because of the fear of committing errors or because of the lack of words in their repertoire. Learners do not make an effort to increase their vocabulary. They are not motivated because they think that those words will not being used anymore. They are not taught to comprehend their vocabulary and also they receive several new words without being related between them and to their context.

This study will help learners to acquire the knowledge about lexical phrases and collocations of Business English and this will be easier for them to use the correct words and they will have a bigger repertoire of words to achieve communicate in a correct way.

### **5.3 Limitations of the study**

Referring about limitations found of this research, it was the issue to know if intermediate learners apply the correct lexical phrases in Business English conversation because the classification hasn't been applied in a classroom. This research can be implemented in other thesis because the topic and the results could be very significant for learners.

### **5.4 Suggestions for further research**

Based on the limitations observed on this research, it is recommended to teach intermediate learners the different groups of lexical phrases, the collocations and its functions. Also it is proposed to apply this instrument to intermediate learners, in this way they will notice the importance of this lexical phrases and then they will be able to perform this conversations. This is very important in order to know if intermediate learners are able to apply these lexical phrases in a transactional language when they face these different situations in their real life.

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## APPENDIX: INSTRUMENT

### FIRST SITUATION:

#### 1. BOOK A CRUISE (Receptionist vs. client)

A: Good morning, Norton's Travel. (Summoning: SI)

B: Yes, good morning. (Responding to summons: SI) I'd like to book a **Mediterranean cruise** please. (Requesting: SI) (Expressing politeness: SI)

A: Certainly, madam. (Responding-endorsing: SI) When for? (Time: NT)

B: 21<sup>st</sup> August for two weeks. (Time: NT)

A: That's fine. (Responding – Endorsing: SI) Would you like a **single or a double cabin**? (Offering: SI)

B: Single, please. (Answering: SI) (Expressing politeness: SI)

A: Could I **take your name**, please? (Requesting: SI) (Expressing politeness: SI)

B: Yes, it's Vicky White. (Answering: SI) How much does the cruise cost? (Quantity: NT) (Shopping: NT)

A: it's £1,650 per person, **including all meals**. (Answering: SI) (Quantity: NT)

B: Great! (Responding-endorsing: SI) Do I have to **pay in advance**? (Questioning: SI) (Shopping: NT)

A: Yes, you do. (Answering: SI) You pay a month before. (Asserting: SI) (Time: NT)

B: Right then. (**Responding-endorsing: SI**) Thank you very much. (**Expressing gratitude: SI**) (**Closing: SI**)

A: Thank you, Ms White. (**Expressing politeness: SI**) (**Closing: SI**)

## SECOND SITUATION:

### 2. - BOOK A TICKET (Receptionist vs. client)

A: Hello. Rail Express Enquiries – Tony speaking. How may I help you?  
(Summoning: SI) (Offering: SI)

B: Hello. (Responding to summon: SI) I'd like to **book a ticket** from London to Liverpool. (Requesting: SI) (Location: NT)

A: When do you want it for? (Questioning: SI) (Time: NT)

B: Tomorrow night. (Time: NT)

A: **Hold on a second**. Yes, there's one (Answering: SI) at 9 o'clock from King's Cross which reaches Liverpool (Location: NT) at 3 am. (Time: NT)

B: Good (Responding-endorsing: SI). **Make the reservation**. (Requesting: SI)

A: First class? (Questioning: SI)

B: Yes, please. (Answering: SI) (Expressing politeness: SI)

A: **Single or return?** (Questioning: SI)

B: Return, please. (Answering: SI) (Expressing politeness: SI)

A: That's £115. (Asserting: SI) (Quantity: NT)

B: Thank you very much. (Closing: SI) (Expressing politeness: SI)



### **THIRD SITUATION:**

#### **3 .- TELEPHONE CALL (Receptionist vs. client)**

A: Room service, how can I help you? (**Summoning: SI**)

B: Hello, (**Responding to summon: SI**) I'd like to order breakfast (**Food: NT**) for tomorrow morning, please (**Time: NT**) (**Expressing politeness: SI**)

A: Certainly. (**Responding-endorsing: SI**) Which room are you in? (**Questioning: SI**) (**Location: NT**)

B: Room 659. (**Answering: SI**) (**Location: NT**)

A: And what would you like to order? (**Offering: SI**) (**Food: NT**)

B: A continental breakfast, please. (**Food: NT**) (**Expressing politeness: SI**)

A: Right. (**Responding-endorsing: SI**) And what time (**Time: NT**) would you like it sent to your room? (**Offering: SI**)

B: Erm... at 8:30. (**Time: NT**)

A: OK. That's fine. (**Responding-endorsing: SI**) Will that be all? (**Questioning: SI**) (**Closing: SI**)

B: Yes, (**Answering: SI**) thank you. (**Expressing politeness: SI**) Good bye. (**Parting: SI**)

## FOURTH SITUATION:

### 4 .- TELEPHONE CALL (Receptionist vs. client)

R: Hello. Burton Electrics. (Summoning: SI)

BB: Could I speak to Mr. Evans (Requesting: SI) please (Expressing politeness: SI) on extension 225. (Location: NT)

R: Certainly. (Responding-endorsing: SI) **Hold on a minute** please (Asserting: SI) (Expressing politeness: SI). **I'll put you through....** (Asserting: SI) (Offering: SI) (Short pause)

R: I'm sorry. His line is **engaged busy**. (Refusing: SI) Would you like to leave a message? (Offering: SI)

BB: Could you tell him that Brad Barnes of Inigo Incorporated called and ask him to **call me back?** (Requesting: SI)

R: Certainly Mr. Barnes. (Responding-endorsing: SI) Thank you for calling. (Expressing politeness: SI) (Closing: SI) Good bye. (Parting: SI)

## FIFTH SITUATION:

### 5 .- TELEPHONE CALL (Receptionist vs. client)

Lyn: Hello. Bradford Road Rescue. Can I help you? **(Summoning: SI)**

Tom: My name's Tom Barker. **(Autobiography: NT)** I called your **breakdown service** **(Nominating a topic: SI)** over an hour ago **(Time: NT)** and no one's **turned up yet.** **(Asserting: SI) (Time: NT)**

Lyn: I'm sorry. **(Expressing sympathy: SI)** They must have **got stuck in traffic.** **(Asserting: SI)**

Tom: Have you got any idea how long they'll be? **(Questioning: SI)**

Lyn: They should be with you shortly. **(Answering: SI) (Asserting: SI)**

Tom: They've definitely set off then? **(Questioning: SI)**

Lyn: Oh, yes. **(Answering: SI)** Don't worry **(Expressing sympathy: SI).** Just stay with your vehicle and someone will be with you soon. **(Asserting: SI)**

Tom: OK. **(Responding-accepting: SI)** Is there anything else I need to do? **(Questioning: SI)**

Lyn: Just **turn on your hazard lights** and put your warning triangle on the road, please. **(Asserting: SI) (Expressing politeness: SI)**

Tom: I've already done that. **(Asserting: SI)** Oh, wait! **(Shifting turns: SI)** I think I can see the truck now. Yes, here they are! **(Asserting: SI)** Thank you. **(Closing: SI)** Bye **(Parting: SI)**

## **SIXTH SITUATION:**

### **6 .- MAKE AN APPOINTMENT (Secretary vs. client)**

#### **The hotel administration department.**

Jack: Good morning! And how are you today? **(Summoning: SI)**

Secretary: Good morning. How can I help you? **(Responding summons: SI) (Offering: SI)**

Jack: Jack Hudson. Absolutely Arizona Mineral Waters. Here's my card.  
**(Autobiography: NT) Can I see the manager? (Requesting: SI)**

Secretary: The catering manager? **(Questioning: SI)**

Jack: Yes, **(Answering: SI)** is he in? **(Questioning: SI)**

Secretary: Ms. Alvarez is in. **(Answering: SI)** Is she expecting you? **(Questioning: SI)**

Jack: Uh, no, she isn't. **(Answering: SI)**

Secretary: So you don't have an appointment. **(Asserting: SI)**

Jack: No I don't, but... **(Relator: DD)**

Secretary: Ms. Alvarez is in a meeting. **(Asserting: SI)**

Jack: I can wait... **(Asserting: SI)**

Secretary: Sorry. She has appointments all day. **(Refusing: SI) (Time: NT)**

Jack: Can I **make an appointment** (Requesting: SI) for tomorrow please? (Time: NT)  
(Expressing politeness: SI)

Secretary: She has her appointment book with her. (Asserting: SI) Can I call you later? (Offering: SI)

Jack: Uh, sure. (Complying: SI) You can leave a message at my hotel. (Asserting: SI)  
(Location: NT) (Spatial connectors: DD)

Secretary: Where are you staying? (Location: NT)

Jack: I'm staying at the Pioneer Hotel on Granville Street. (Location: NT) (Spatial connectors: DD)

Secretary: So you aren't staying here? (Questioning: SI) (Spatial connectors: DD)

Jack: Here? (Questioning: SI) (Spatial connectors: DD) On my **expense account**?  
(Questioning: SI) Are you kidding? (Questioning: SI)

Secretary: OK, Mr. Hudson. (Shifting turns: SI) Is any time tomorrow OK?  
(Questioning: SI) (Time: NT)

Jack: Sure. Yes. Any time's OK. (Complying: SI) (Time: NT) (Closing: SI)

## **SEVENTH SITUATION:**

### **7 .- APPLY FOR A CREDIT CARD (Employee vs. client)**

Man: Hello. Can I help you? (**Summoning: SI**)

Woman: Yes. (**Answering: SI**) Can I **apply for a credit card**, please? (**Requesting: SI**)  
(**Expressing politeness: SI**)

Man: Of course. (**Complying: SI**) I can help you with the form. (**Offering: SI**) (**Asserting: SI**)

Woman: OK. (**Responding-endorsing: SI**)

Man: Are you married? (**Questioning: SI**)

Woman: No, I'm not. (**Answering: SI**)

Man: What's your surname, please? (**Questioning: SI**) (**Expressing politeness: SI**)

Woman: It's Simpson. (**Answering: SI**)

Man: Can you spell that, please? (**Language: NT**) (**Expressing politeness: SI**)

Woman: S – I – M – P – S – O – N. (**Language: NT**)

Man: OK, What's your first name? (**Shifting turns: SI**) (**Questioning: SI**)

Woman: Helen. (**Answering: SI**)

Man: Thank you. (**Expressing politeness: SI**) Now, what's your address? (**Shifting a topic: SI**) (**Location: NT**)

Woman: It's 12, Village Lane, Crosston. (**Answering: SI**) (**Location: NT**)

Man: And the post code? **(Questioning: SI)**

Woman: CR293TP. **(Answering: SI)**

Man: When's your birthday, Miss Simpson? **(Questioning: SI) (Time: NT)**

Woman: 25<sup>th</sup> June, 1975. **(Answering: SI) (Time: NT)**

Man: Is your job **full-time or part-time**? **(Questioning: SI) (Time: NT)**

Woman: Full-time. **(Answering: SI) (Time: NT)** I'm a secretary. **(Autobiography: SI)**

Man: A secretary. **(Clarifying-audience: SI)** What's your employer's name and address? **(Questioning: SI) (Location: NT)**

Woman: Parker and Sons, 2, High Street, Crosston. **(Answering: SI) (Location: NT)**

Man. And what's the telephone number? **(Questioning: SI)**

Woman: It's 2325691 **(Answering: SI)**

Man: What is your salary, Miss Simpson? **(Questioning: SI) (Quantity: NT)**

Woman: It's £12,000. **(Answering: SI) (Quantity: NT)**

Man: Can you sign here, please? **(Requesting: SI) (Expressing politeness: SI)**

Woman: Of course. **(Complying: SI)**

## **EIGHTH SITUATION:**

### **8.- CONVERSATION (Manager vs. Employee)**

Mr. H: Paula, could I **have a word** with you please? (Requesting: SI) (Expressing politeness)

Paula: Of course, Mr. Harper. (Complying: SI) Is **anything the matter**? (Questioning: SI)

Mr. H: Well, (Shifting turns: SI) yes as a matter of fact. (Fluency devices: DD) I've noticed that you are usually late for work. (Asserting: SI) This just isn't good enough, Paula. (Asserting: SI) (Evaluators: DD)

Paula: Oh, I'm sorry, Mr. Harper. (Expressing sympathy: SI) It's just that (Fluency devices: DD) I have trouble **getting up** in the mornings. I'll try harder. (Asserting: SI)

Mr. H: But that's not all, Paula. (Shifting a topic: SI) (Responding-disagreeing) You sometimes leave your computer on, as well. (Asserting: SI)

Paula: Oh, sorry... (Expressing sympathy: SI) I suppose I just forget. (Asserting)

Mr. H: Also, (Shifting a topic: SI) (Relator: DD) I know that your work is usually of a high standard, (Asserting: SI) but (Evaluators: DD) you rarely meet your deadlines. (Asserting: SI) It takes you days to write a simple report... (Asserting: SI) (Time NT)

Paula: Well, (Shifting turns: SI) reports are quite difficult... (Asserting: SI)

Mr. H: ...and (Shifting turns: SI) I notice you often take very long lunch breaks, and return with bags of shopping... (Asserting: SI) (Time NT) (Food: NT)



Paula: I won't do it again, Mr. Harper. **(Asserting: SI)**

Mr. H: Paula, I have to be honest. **(Asserting: SI)** It is only because of the fact that you are always polite and courteous to our customers **(Asserting: SI)** **(Fluency device: DD)** that I am inclined to give you another chance. **(Asserting: SI)**

Paula: Yes, Mr. Harper. **(Responding-endorsing: SI)**

Mr. H: However, **(Logical connector: DD)** this is your final warning. **(Asserting: SI)** Do you understand? **(Checking comprehension: SI)**

Paula: Yes, Mr. Harper. **(Responding-endorsing: SI)** I'll try to do better. **(Asserting: SI)**

## **NINTH SITUATION:**

### **9.- JOB INTERVIEW (Manager vs. Employee)**

A: Well, Mr. Kent, **(Nominating a topic: SI)** why do you want to work for us?  
**(Questioning: SI)**

B: Because **(Answering: SI)** **(Logical connector: DD)** the Greenfield Daily is a small newspaper which has a good reputation. **(Asserting: SI)**

A: I see. **(Responding-accepting: SI)** Are you married or single? **(Questioning: SI)**

B: I'm married. **(Answering: SI)** **(Autobiography: NT)**

A: And **(Shifting a topic: SI)** what experience do you have working for a newspaper?  
**(Questioning: SI)**

B: Well, I have two year's experience as a gossip columnist. **(Answering: SI)**  
**(Asserting: SI)** **(Time: NT)**

A: When would you be able to start work? **(Questioning: SI)** **(Time: NT)**

B: Anytime after 1<sup>st</sup> September. **(Time: NT)** **(Temporal connector: DD)**

A: Good. **(Responding-endorsing: SI)** Do you have any questions? **(Questioning: SI)**

B: Yes. **(Answering: SI)** Could you tell me what qualities are required? **(Requesting: SI)** **(Questioning: SI)**

A: Of course. **(Complying: SI)** You have to be creative, knowledgeable and energetic. **(Asserting: SI)**

B: And **(Shifting a topic: SI)** could you tell me how much I would be earning?  
**(Requesting: SI) (Quantity: NT)**

A: £1,300 a month. **(Quantity: NT) (Time: NT)**

B: What are the working hours like? **(Questioning: SI) (Time: NT)**

A: 8 o'clock in the morning until 4. **(Time: NT)**

B: Okay. **(Responding-accepting: SI)** Would I need to work overtime? **(Questioning: SI)**  
**(Time: NT)**

A: No. **(Answering: SI)**

B: That sounds fine. **(Responding-endorsing: SI)** Thank you. **(Expressing politeness: SI)**

## TENTH SITUATION:

### 10.- ASKING FOR INFORMATION ABOUT A COURSE (Receptionist vs. client)

A: Hello – Bradbury Community College. Can I help you? (Summoning: SI) (Offering: SI)

B: Yes, (Answering: SI) I'm interested in taking your Business Management course. (Nominating a topic: SI) (Asserting: SI) Could you tell me what courses are available? (Requesting: SI)

A: Well, we have an introductory course that takes two months and an advanced course that takes two years. (Answering: SI) (Asserting: SI) (Time: NT)

B: Is the introductory course **full-time or part-time**? (Questioning: SI) (Time: NT)

A: It's full-time. (Answering: SI) (Time: NT) There are classes every day from 10 to 2pm. (Asserting: SI) (Time: NT)

B: That sounds perfect. (Responding-endorsing: SI) How much does it cost? (Quantity: NT)

A: it's £500, plus the cost of books. (Answering: SI) (Quantity: NT) (Shopping: NT)

B: Well, (Shifting turns: SI) it's a little expensive, (Shopping: NT) but I suppose I can **afford it**. (Asserting: SI) (Shopping: NT) How do I apply? (Questioning: SI)

A: Would you like me to send you further details? (Offering: SI)

B: That would be great! (Responding-endorsing: SI) (Closing: SI)

## **ELEVENTH SITUATION:**

### **11.- TICKET BOOKING CONVERSATION (Receptionist vs. client)**

Anita.- Good morning. I want to buy a ticket to Singapore. **(Summoning: SI)**  
**(Requesting: SI)**

Clerk.- Good morning. **(Responding summons: SI)** When do you want to travel and by which class, executive or business? **(Questioning: SI) (Time: NT)**

Anita.- Next Monday. Business class. **(Answering: SI) (Temporal connector: DD)**

Clerk.- OK. **(Responding-accepting: SI)** Please wait. **(Expressing politeness: SI)** Let me check the availability. **(Asserting: SI)**

Anita.- Sure. **(Complying: SI)**

Clerk.- Yes. **(Responding-endorsing: SI)** Tickets are available. **(Asserting: SI)** Shall I **block your ticket?** **(Questioning: SI)**

Anita.- Please. **(Answering: SI) (Expressing politeness: SI)** How much is fare? **(Quantity: NT)**

Clerk.- Just a minute... **(Asserting: SI)** That will be Rs-2400, madam. **(Answering: SI)**  
**(Quantity: NT)**

Anita.- Ok. **(Responding-accepting: SI)** Thank you. **(Expressing politeness: SI)**

Clerk.- You're welcome. **(Closing: SI)**

## TWELFTH SITUATION:

### 12. BOOK A TICKET FOR A FLIGHT (Receptionist vs. client)

Travel Agent.- Hello. How may I help you? (Summoning: SI) (Offering: SI)

Caller.- Hello yes, (Responding to summon: SI) I'd like to **make a flight reservation** for the twenty-third this month. (Requesting: SI) (Time: NT)

Travel Agent.- Okay. (Responding-accepting: SI) What is your destination? (Location: NT)

Caller.- Well, I'm flying to Helsinki, Finland. (Answering: SI) (Location: NT)

Travel Agent.- Okay. (Responding-accepting: SI) Let me check what flights are available. (Asserting: SI) And when will you be returning? (Questioning: SI) (Time: NT)

Caller.- Uh, well, I'd like **to catch return flight** on the twenty-ninth. (Answering: SI) (Time: NT) Oh, and (Shifting a topic: SI) I'd like the cheapest flight available. (Requesting: SI) (Quantity: NT)

Travel Agent.- Okay. (Responding-accepting: SI) Let me see. (Asserting: SI)

Caller.- Yeah! (Responding-accepting: SI)

Travel Agent.- Well, the price for the flight is almost double than the price you would pay (Shopping: NT) if you leave the day before. (Asserting: SI) (Time: NT)

Caller.- Ok. (Responding-accepting: SI) Let's go with the cheaper flight (Asserting: SI) (Quantity: NT) by the way, (Shifting a topic: SI) how much is it? (Quantity: NT)

Travel Agent.- It's only \$980 (Answering: SI) (Quantity: NT)

Caller.- Alright. **(Responding-accepting: SI)** Well, let's go with that. **(Asserting: SI)**

Travel Agent.- Okay. **(Responding-accepting: SI)** That's flight 1070 from Salt Lake City New York, Kennedy Airport, transferring to flight 90 from Kennedy to Helsinki. **(Asserting: SI) (Location: NT)**

Caller.- And what are the departure and arrival times for each of those flights? **(Questioning: SI) (Time: NT)**

Travel Agent.- It leaves Salt Lakes City at 10:00 am, arriving in New York at 4:35 pm, then transferring to flight 90 at 5:55pm, and arriving in Helsinki at 8:30am the next day. **(Answering: SI) (Time: NT)**

Caller.- Ok. It's perfect. **(Responding-endorsing: SI)** Thank you. **(Closing: SI)**  
**(Expressing politeness: SI)**

## **THIRTEENTH SITUATION:**

### **13 .- TELEPHONE CALL (Receptionist vs. client)**

Room service.- Good morning, Room service. **(Summoning: SI)**

Mary Jones.- Good morning. **(Responding to summons: SI)** This is room 113.

**(Location: NT)** I'd like some breakfast, **(Food: NT)** please. **(Expressing politeness: SI)**

Room service.- Right. **(Responding-endorsement: SI)** Excuse me. Mrs. Jones? **(Clarifying audience: SI)**

Mary Jones. That's right. **(Responding-endorsement: SI)**

Room service.- What can I do for you? **(Offering: SI)**

Mary Jones.- I'd like some grapefruit juice, marmalade, two scrambled eggs with two sausages, toast, and a pot of coffee, **(Food: NT)** please. **(Expressing politeness: SI)** How long will it take? **(Time: NT)**

Room service.- Twenty minutes, Lady. **(Time: NT)**

Mary Jones.- Great. **(Responding-endorsement: SI)** Thank you. **(Expressing politeness: SI)**

Room service.- You're welcome **(Closing: SI)** **(Expressing politeness: SI)**



## **FOURTEENTH SITUATION:**

### **14 .- TELEPHONE CALL (Secretary vs. client)**

A.- Good morning. Dixon Electrical. How can I help you? **(Summoning: SI)**

B.- Good morning. **(Responding to summons: SI)** Can I speak to the manager, please? **(Requesting: SI) (Expressing politeness: SI)**

A.- I´m afraid Mr. Smith isn´t in his office at the moment. **(Answering: SI) (Time: NT)**  
Can I **take a message?** **(Offering: SI)**

B.- Don´t worry. **(Answering: SI)** I´ll **ring back later.** **(Asserting: SI) (Time: NT)**

A.- All right. **(Responding-endorsing: SI)** Goodbye **(Closing: SI)**

B.- Goodbye **(Parting: SI)**