



# **The Effect of Using "Chunking" on Developing EFL Literacy Skills Among Preparatory School Pupils**

*By*

**Dr. Fatma S. Mohamed**

Professor of EFL Curricula and  
Teaching Methods  
Faculty of Education  
Benha University

**Dr. Mona S. Zaza**

Professor of EFL Curricula and  
Teaching Methods  
Faculty of Education  
Benha University

**Dr. Abdellatef Elshazly Youssef**

Lecture of EFL Curricula and  
Teaching Methods  
Faculty of Education  
Benha University

**Doria Tamim Abdallah**

(English Language Teacher)

بحث مشتق من الرسالة الخاصة بالباحثة

# **The Effect of Using "Chunking" on Developing EFL Literacy Skills Among Preparatory School Pupils**

*By*

**Dr. Fatma S. Mohamed**

Professor of EFL Curricula and  
Teaching Methods  
Faculty of Education  
Benha University

**Dr. Mona S. Zaza**

Professor of EFL Curricula and  
Teaching Methods  
Faculty of Education  
Benha University

**Dr. Abdellatef Elshazly Youssef**

Lecture of EFL Curricula and  
Teaching Methods  
Faculty of Education  
Benha University

**Doria Tamim Abdallah**

(English Language Teacher)

---

## **ABSTRACT**

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of chunking on developing EFL literacy skills among preparatory school pupils. The participants were eighty pupils in second year from 25 January Preparatory School in Benha at Quliobeya Governorate. The participants of the study were divided into two groups, the experimental group (N=40) and the control group (N=40). The pre literacy test was administered to the participants before the treatment. Then, the experimental group was taught chunking using the lexical approach while the control group was taught using the traditional method. Then the post literacy test was administered to both groups. Results of the study revealed that the program using chunking was effective in developing EFL literacy skills among the preparatory school pupils.

### **Key words:**

Chunking , EFL literacy skills , the lexical approach.

**Introduction:**

Vocabulary is one of the essential and fundamental components of communication (Levitt, 1993). According to Diamond and Gutlohn (2006), vocabulary is the knowledge of words and word meanings. The knowledge of a word not only implies a definition, but also implies how that word fits into the world", described (Stahl,2005:19). Vocabulary knowledge is not something that can be fully mastered; it is something that expands and deepens over the course of a lifetime. In learning the English language, lexis or vocabulary is recognized as a vital factor for ESL or EFL literacy development (Coxhead,2006). That is, English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' lexical knowledge may determine the quality of their listening, speaking, reading and writing performances.

Vocabulary is central to language and of great importance to the language learner. It occupies an important position in language learning.It's one of the most essential components of EFL learning (Akbarian,2010). Many, if not most, EFL learners view lack of vocabulary as their single largest problem in EFL communication (Richards,2010). Thornburry (2002;114) states, "If you spend most of your time studying grammar, your English will not improve very much. You will see most improvement if you learn more words and expressions. You can say very little with grammar, but you can say almost anything with words".

According to Davies and Pears (2003:15), new vocabulary should not be presented in isolation and should not be learned by simple rote memorization. It is important that new vocabulary items be presented in contexts that are rich enough to provide clues to meaning and that students be given multiple exposure to items they should learn. Moreover, communication stops when learners do not know the word(s) they need although they have mastered grammar. So, vocabulary learning should be postponed until learners have mastered grammar (Barani et al.,2010). "By learning new words, students can increase their

listening, speaking, reading and writing vocabularies and can improve comprehension and production in EFL" (Al-Jarf,2007).

In order to learn vocabulary of any foreign language effectively and not to be forgotten, learners should store them in their long term memory to be able to retrieve them later on when needed. "Remembering new words is often not an easy job for learners. That is why teachers try to utilize various techniques to present new words to them" (Baleghizadeh and Naeim,2011). Language learners need all information of language to be learnt-including vocabulary-transferred into long-term memory (Alzahrani,2011).

There are many studies that examined students' vocabulary learning at different educational levels (e.g.; Nation, 1983; Horst et al., 1998; Qian, 1999; Hu and Nation, 2000; Zahar et al., 2001, Horst et al., 2005; Tekmen and Daloglu, 2006; Yu, 2007; Webb, 2009; Laufer and Ravenhorst - Kalvoski, 2010; Schmitt et al., 2011; White, 2014). These studies suggested that vocabulary knowledge may affect the ability to learn words incidentally through reading and writing. The reason for this may be that students with greater vocabulary knowledge are likely to have greater text comprehension, and this may allow them to pay greater attention to unknown words in the text to learn more vocabulary through reading and writing.

According to Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary (2000), literacy is the ability to read and write. Stromquist (2005) defined literacy as "individual access to reading and writing" (cited in Kell and Kell, 2014). Johnston (2003) showed that literacy achievement requires a more advanced set of complex skills, requiring numeracy, writing and reading in the English language.

In education for All Global Monitoring Report (2006), the most common understanding of literacy is that it is a set of tangible skills- particularly the cognitive skills of reading and writing- that are independent of the context in which they are acquired and the

background of the person who acquires them. Literacy can be viewed as an active and broad-based learning process. Reading and writing are important to help function in school, on the job, and in society. It is implicit in the right to education. It is recognized as a right, explicitly for both children and adults, in certain international conventions and included in key international declarations. As Rowsell (2012) confirmed that when our students write and read, they infuse this practice into their identities. Literacy learners bring their identities into the making of meaning, and as they learn to read, or put marks in their pages.

Rowsell added that literacy is probably the single-most important part of education. Without literacy, all other learning is impossible. Literacy involves using reading, writing, speaking, listening, and viewing to gain more knowledge. Without the ability to do any of these skills, there is absolutely no way to acquire more knowledge. Literacy is essential for learning. It is crucial that language arts teachers are not the only ones in the school stressing the importance of literacy. While the language arts teachers may be the only ones truly teaching literacy, it is the job of all educators to facilitate literacy learning. Literacy must come before any other learning can occur, and we cannot grow as a society without literacy.

Literacy is more than having the ability to read and write. It is about helping children to communicate with others and to make sense of the world. It includes oral and written language and other sign systems such as art, sound and sign language. Literacy also acknowledges the nature of information communication technology, and many other forms of representation relevant to children including screen based (NCCA, 2009). To perform well in reading and writing, EFL learners need a massive word store and a variety of lexicon. Fu (2005) stated that lexicon is crucial for successful communication. This is probably due to the role played by vocabulary in learners' reading and writing that cannot be denied or even ignored.

Although studies on vocabulary, in general, have dramatically increased over the past 20 years (e.g. Laufer and Nation, 1995; Engber, 1995; Paribakht and Wesche, 1996; Coady, 1997; Read, 2000; Nation, 2001; Meara, 2002 & 2005; Hiebert and Kamil, 2005; Nation, 2006 & 2007; Yu, 2007; Nation, 2008; Johansson, 2008; Donohue, 2010; Schmitt, 2010; Yu, 2010; Nation, 2011; Crossley, 2013; White, 2014; Yazdi and Kafipour, 2014; Dai and Zhour, 2015), there is scarcity on the systematic examination of the relationship among vocabulary, reading and writing. This may be partly attributed to the difficulties researchers encounter in collecting and analyzing read and written data.

A Lexical chunk is an umbrella term, which refers to any pair or group of words that usually appear together (Aish, 2014). Language is composed of chunks of words, and the fluent is the one who has a vast number of these chunks stored in memory, can recall them as needed and combine them appropriately. The main classroom job is to get as many of these ready-made chunks into the learner's long-term memory as possible. The aim of the language learning is to become so familiar with likely and probable combinations of and between chunks that one can produce effortlessly (Lewis, 1997)

Students must recognize and process chunks, and there must be a classroom activity that enhances this awareness on the student's part. It is not important to know which category of lexical items one is dealing with. What matters is that the students deal with it as chunks, stored in the mental lexicon and ready for use. From an information processing perspective, this is a more efficient way to learn vocabulary (Thornbury, 2002).

A number of writers has suggested that stress and intonation patterns may be the basis of chunking ability (Williams, 2002). Some emphasized that the lexical approach deals efficiently and economically with language, in that lexical phrases and intonation are dealt with together in the teaching and learning process (Lewis, 1997). Chunking is particularly important at the upper levels of proficiency. The ability to

deploy a wide range of lexical chunks both accurately and appropriately is probably what most distinguishes advanced learners from the intermediate ones (Thornbury, 2002).

Lewis (1993 & 2000) divided chunks into four categories summarized below.

- 1- Words and polywords: words and short idiomatic groups of words, e.g. if you please, give up.
- 2- Collocations: groups of words that occur together frequently, such as stormy weather, slippery slope, etc.
- 3- Institutionalized utterances: medium to sentence-length phrases which tend to be highly idiomatic with low variability. They are mainly used in spoken discourse and stored as wholes in memory. Examples include phrases like: gotta go, what do you mean and less 'phrase-like' chunks such as if I were you, I'd ..... So, institutionalization is the process through which a combination of words becomes recognized and accepted as a semantic unit (e.g., a collocation, or a lexical unit).
- 4- Sentence frames and heads: quite variable in terms of length, these chunks generally help structure written discourse, e.g. sequencers like firstly, ..... , secondly, ..... , phrases like as mentioned above, and even longer frames which provide structure for an entire text.

According to Thornbury, (2002), different types of chunks are:

- 1- Collocations (widely travelled, rich and famous, set the table)
- 2- Phrasal verbs (get up, log on, run out of)
- 3- Idioms, catchphrases and sayings (get cold feet, as old as the hills, mind your own business, takes one to know one)
- 4- Sentence frames (would you mind if ....?, the thing is ....)
- 5- Social formulae (see you later, have a nice day, yours sincerely)
- 6- Discourse markers (frankly speaking, on the other hand, I see your point)

According to Lewis, (1997:15) "fluency is the result of acquisition of a large store of these fixed and semi-fixed pre-fabricated items which are available as the foundation for any linguistic novelty or creativity".

Hsu's (2008) aimed to examine multiword lexical units enthusiastically promoted by textbook publishers from a more cautious perspective. A profile of multiword lexical units was established, based on three series of contemporary EFL/ESL textbooks published between 2003 and 2005. Within this profile, major multiword lexical units were recorded, categorized, and compared.

The previous study aimed to report whether: (1) There were types of multiword lexical units considered most important and should be taught immediately; (2) There was a suggested acquisition order for multiword lexical units and (3) There was agreed-on collection of common multiword lexical units among these textbooks. By presenting the analysis of multiword lexical units from the latest published textbooks, this study hoped to offer objective comments on the textbooks and possible suggestions for future EFL/ESL material design.

Zhao (2009:18) put some pedagogical suggestions that need to be taken into account when applying lexical chunks instruction. They are based on the work of Lewis (1993):

- 1- *Changing learners' concept of language acquisition*: Lewis (1993) proposed that lexis is the core of language while grammar plays a subservient role. It implied that lexical chunks should play a more important role in language proficiency than grammatical structure.
- 2- *Developing learners' awareness of lexical chunks*: Lewis suggested that "students need to develop awareness of language to which they are exposed and gradually develop ways, not of assembling parts into wholes, but of identifying constituent bits within the wholes" (Lewis, 1993). Therefore, teachers should not only introduce the importance of lexical chunks to learners, but



also establish the concept of lexical chunks in learners' minds, thus giving them opportunities to identify, organize and record lexical chunks.

- 3- *Teaching basic lexical chunks first*: Initial instruction should focus on relatively fixed expressions that occur frequently, rather than originally created sentences.
- 4- *Using corpora in class*: With the help of corpora, it may help teachers to choose appropriate corpora for students of different levels, needs and interests; on the other hand, it may encourage learners to discover the usage of lexical chunks by themselves.
- 5- *Doing chunk-related exercises and games*: Lewis (1993) suggested that "pedagogical chunking should be a frequent classroom activity". By doing exercises and games, learners can get more information about lexical chunks in a relaxed atmosphere.
- 6- *Associating functional efforts of lexical chunks*: Teachers may introduce the functions of lexical chunks in a given article. For example, when introducing the chunks like as far as I know ..... ; there is no doubt that .... , teachers may inform the learners that the functional effect of this kind of lexical chunks is evaluating.

Many studies were conducted to investigate the use of lexical chunks and bundles in language learning such as Lindstormberg and Boers (2008), Hyland's (2008) and Zhao (2009). Lindstormberg and Boers (2008) explored complementary means of facilitating chunk-learning. Evidence has been reported that L2 chunks which exhibit alliteration are significantly easier for learners to remember than similar, non-repetitive chunks. The researcher demonstrated that an evidently less salient kind of phonemic repetition, assonance, also has significant mnemonic effect. The relevance of this for language pedagogy is

underscored by estimates suggesting that phonemic repetition, including assonance, is ubiquitous in (English) phraseology.

Hyland's (2008) explored the forms, structures and functions of 4-words bundles in a 3.5 million word corpus of research articles, doctoral dissertations and Master's theses in four disciplines to learn something of disciplinary variations in their frequencies and preferred uses. The analysis showed that bundles are not only central to the creation of academic discourse, but that they offer an important means of differentiating written texts by discipline.

Zhao, (2009) investigated whether second language learners "lexical chunks competence in vocabulary learning has any correlation with their language production through analyzing results from a multiple-choice chunk test and a writing test. In addition, if the research shows that there does exist some relationship between these two competences, some pedagogical suggestions on using lexical chunks instruction in L2 learners' language acquisition will be brought forward.

Bareggi, (2006) pointed out that lexical chunks allow the production of natural successful language. Moreover, Nation (2001:321) pointed out that "by having chunks of language in long-term memory, language reception and language productions are made more effective".

There are some previous studies highlight the importance of lexical chunks and using lexical bundles in achieving language proficiency and fluency. Some studies measured their correlation to language proficiency and long term memory. In spite of being investigated in different levels, the use of lexical chunks proved to be effective in learning vocabulary and achieving language proficiency. These results agree with Lewis's (1993, 1997 and 2000) views that highlighted the importance of lexis and the use of collocations in developing vocabulary as the basis for proficiency in all EFL skills.

Multiword lexical units are semantically idiosyncratic to some extent, i.e., the unitary meaning of the expression cannot be determined

merely by combining the meanings of the parts. They are also syntactically peculiar, i.e., they often behave differently from similar-on-the-surface combinations that are syntactic structures rather than lexical units. Lexis is seen by Lewis not as a vocabulary list, but as a set of lexical items, most of which are multi-word chunks. Chunks include collocations, fixed and semi-fixed expressions and idioms, and according to Lewis, occupy a crucial role in facilitating language production, being the key to fluency (Moras, 2001).

There are some studies that confirmed that learners feel the lexical deficit as the major problem in their reading which in turns affects their writing. So, it is useful for language learners to receive training throughout a suggested program based on the lexical approach to develop their EFL vocabulary and literacy skills (Samir, 2007).

The lexical approach (LA) has emerged as an alternative to grammar based approaches since 1993 when the term lexical approach was coined by (Lewis, 1993). Lewis posited his ideas that vocabulary should be the most important aspect in teaching English stating that language is grammaticalized lexis, not lexicalized grammar (Lewis,1993). There were a number of objections to the lexical approach at the beginning; however, overtime, a lot of researchers have come out in favor and the lexical approach has found its way into the classroom.

According to Lewis (1993,1996,1997) and Bofman and Vamarasi (2006), there are many important principles of lexical approach such as :

- (a) language consists of grammaticalized lexis, not lexicalized grammar.
- (b) the grammar/vocabulary dichotomy is invalid; much language consists of multi-word "chunks". Thus, there is no clear difference between grammar and lexis; instead, they form the endpoints on a continuum, and much falls in the middle.
- (c) we learn both L1 and L2 in chunks \_\_i.e., in multi-word units, these include fixed phrases, idioms, strong collocations, and semi-fixed expressions. Thus, a central element of language teaching is raising students' awareness of, and developing

their ability to "chunk" language successfully. (d) since the primary goal of language courses is successful communication, fluency is to be stressed over accuracy. (e) grammar should be taught receptively, by raising students' awareness of structures through comparison and contrast. (f) evidence from computational linguistics and discourse analysis influence syllabus content and sequence. (g) a valuable method in learning lexis is the use of lexical notebooks. (Sanad, 2015).

It seems that the lexical approach is not popular among English teachers. This has resulted in vocabulary negligence and in particular, an unawareness of the importance of collocation in language learning. It is probably because teachers are more familiar with the grammar-translation methodology since they probably have the traditional mindset that mastery of the grammatical system is a prerequisite for effective communication (Olga, 2001). Later, they have been overwhelmed with the idea of the communicative approach. (Lewis, 2000) explained that the communicative approach concerns the expression and communication of meanings. With such an emphasis, fluency is obviously considered of more importance than accuracy. Students seem to be more proficient in two skills, i.e. speaking and listening, despite the fact that the approach itself emphasizes all the four skills.

The lexical approach puts the emphasis on getting students to notice lexical chunks during their exposure to English. This is called "noticing" or "conscious raising" and is considered the key for language acquisition. The teacher's role is to help the students develop their "noticing" skill, or in other words, to turn input (language exposure) into intake (language acquisition). Lewis uses the term to mean the deliberate effort on the part of the teacher to make the students aware of how the target language works. This implies that a central element of teaching should be raising our learners' awareness of the presence of chunks and hence their ability to use these building blocks themselves (Gibbon, 2006). That means students should be able to notice both form and

function of a lexical item. This may include pointing out language patterns and irregularities, drawing contrasts and letting students deduce rules (Lewis, 1996).

Lewis' new paradigm, OHE (Observe – Hypothesize – Experiment) is learner – centered and it's based on the belief that out of fluency comes accuracy and errors are regarded as creative experiments not as representing failure (Lewis, 1996). Lewis pointed out that the students first observes or notices as aspect of the language. Second, throughout the hypothesize phase, the learner comes up with a "hunch" as to how he might communicate in a given situation by training students to use vocabulary notebooks which prepared by the researcher. Third, throughout the experiment phase, the learner experiments the learnt and processed input through tasks prepared by the teacher.

As this paradigm is learner – centered, teacher's role is very important as his talk is the major source of learner's input. His role also, is represented in the selection of materials and tasks and the creation of an appropriate atmosphere, raising learners' awareness with lexical chunks and collocations, organizing the technological system, providing scaffolding to help learners and directing learners' attention to chunks which are as large as possible. Teacher is an editor and advisor rather than corrector and evaluative. The learner's role is the most important here, as he is a data analyst and his role is central during the three phases. The learner observes, discovers, identifies, turns input into intake, discusses in groups, analyzes, hypothesizes and finally experiments the learnt and processed input through tasks. In this way the learner replaces the idea that the teacher is "the knower with the idea" that the learner is "the discoverer" (Sanad, 2015).

Bofman and Vamarasi (2006) presented a paper to introduce the lexical approach (LA) to those readers who may not be familiar with it and to demonstrate some ways, it can be applied in the teaching of Southeast Asian languages. Finally, Bofman gives several lexically-

based exercises for teaching and learning of Thai. Consequently, there is a need to move from traditional approach to a learner-centered approach to develop learners reading.

Nattinger and Decarrico (1992) suggested several advantages of learning lexical phrases. First, learners can creatively construct sentences simply because the phrases are stored and reprocessed as whole chunks, and this can ease frustration and develop motivation and fluency. Second, since phrases have their origins in common and predictable social contexts, they are easier for learners to memories, as opposed to separate words. Third, phrases work as productive tools for communicating with other people. This can further create social motivation for learning the language. Fourth, since most phrases can be analyzed by regular grammatical rules, and classified into patterns, learning phrases can help learners understand grammatical rules of the language. Thus, lexis is central in creating meaning, grammar plays a secondary role in managing meaning. When this principle is accepted, the logical implication for teachers is that we should spend more time helping learners develop their stock of phrases, and less time on grammatical structures. So, the present study focuses in developing EFL writing skills throughout a suggested program based on the lexical approach.

### **Background of the problem:**

In spite of the importance of EFL literacy skills, there is a lack in EFL literacy skills among preparatory school pupils. Thus there is a need for finding an effective instructional approach for developing EFL literacy skills among preparatory school pupils.

In order to be fully sure of the problem of this study, the researcher conducted a pilot study including some texts. It requires students to read the text and answer questions that follow it. This test has been applied to forty second year preparatory school pupils. The results

of this pilot study confirmed the low level of the pupils in EFL literacy skills. So, it is clear that there is a great need for developing EFL literacy skills among preparatory school pupils. This study used chunking based program for developing EFL literacy skills among second year preparatory school pupils.

**Statement of the problem:**

The problem of the present research can be defined in the second year preparatory school pupils' inefficient literacy skills. Therefore, the present study is an attempt to investigate the effectiveness of chunking based program for developing the EFL literacy skills among second year preparatory school pupils.

**Questions of the Study:**

To face this problem, the present research is an attempt to answer the following questions:

- 1- What are the features of a program based on chunking for developing EFL literacy skills among second grade preparatory school pupils?
- 2- What is the effect of chunking on developing EFL literacy skills among second grade preparatory school pupils?

**Delimitations of the Study:**

The current research is limited into the following:

- Eighty second graders of preparatory school in 25 January School for Girls in Banha, Qalioubiya Governorate, Egypt.
- Some EFL literacy skills (reading and writing) required for the second year preparatory pupils.

**Hypotheses of the study:**

- 1- There is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental group and the control group in the literacy skills post test.
- 2- There is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental group in the literacy skills pre-post test.

### **Instruments and materials:**

To achieve the purpose of the study, two equivalent forms of EFL literacy skills test (prepared by the researcher), and a rubric for scoring them were used.

#### **Test of Literacy skills**

##### **Description of the test**

The present study used two equivalent forms of EFL literacy skills test ( a pre and a post test). The total number of test items was 76. The test items were based on a three point scale depth of processing for vocabulary as follows:

- Association - learning a form - meaning connection (question 2 & 3).
- Comprehension - recalling the meaning of previously met items (question 4 & 5).
- Generation - producing a novel response to items such as restating a definition in different words or making original sentences (question 1).

The test items were prepared also in the light of vocabulary knowledge and use. The test included a very large group of words that occur very infrequently and covers only a small proportion of the text being tested. The characteristics of those words are:

- Most of the words in the pre-test text are low frequency words, few are of moderate frequency.
- Most of the words in the texts tested are proper nouns which are of low frequency words.
- Most of the words are connected with the learners need to know.
- The test items also were prepared to reflect the lexical approach requirements, which are:
  - Common words as in question item (4- c) (5-D)
  - Polywords as in items (5- A)
  - Sentence frames (5- B)
  - Lexical phrases and expressions as in (5- c) (3)



### **The Validity of the literacy skills test: □**

In order to validate the literacy skills test, they were submitted to jury members in Curricula and Methods of Teaching English (n=9). They were asked to indicate the suitability of tests' content for the academic level of the pupils and the clarity of instructions. They also indicated whether the passages were difficult and long or not; the suitability of the test and how far each question measure the skills intended to measure and whether the questions cover all the skills in the study. In the light of the jury's suggestions and notes which took into consideration, the modifications were performed and the content of the test was modified in the final form.

### **Reliability of the literacy skills test:**

The test-retest methods was used to determine the reliability of the literacy skills test. As the researcher applied the test to the sample and re- applied them after two weeks. The reliability correlation of the pre test (0.79) and (0.92) for the post test. So, it can be noticed that there are high significant positive correlation between the sample scores on both the pre and the post tests. So the literacy skills tests are reliable.

### **Participants of the study:**

The participants of the present study consisted of 80 second year pupils from 25 January Preparatory School for Girls , enrolled in the academic year (2018-2019). Two intact classes were selected for participating in the study; class 2/A (n=40) served as the experimental group and class 2/B (n=40) served as the control group.

### **The Experimental Treatment**

A program was designed for developing literacy skills using chunking based program. It contained 5 sessions. Each session lasted for 60 minutes.

### **Procedures of the study:**

After the participants in the research have been selected, the researcher applied the EFL pre literacy skills test, then she applied the sessions of the training program using collocations in the 25 January a Preparatory school for Girls at Qaliobiya Governorate- during the second semester of the academic year 2018-2019. Each session included

the procedures of the strategy, stages of implementation, steps of implementation, task-requirements based on the strategy and activities as an application of the task through a reading text. By the end of all sessions, the researcher applied the EFL post literacy skills test to determine the effectiveness of chunking based program. The participants' EFL literacy skills were developed as a result of using chunking based program.

### **Findings of the study:**

The results of the research will be presented in the light of following hypotheses:

#### **1- Findings of the first hypothesis:**

The first hypothesis states that "there is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental group and the control group in the literacy skills post test".

For testing this hypothesis, t-value was calculated to reveal that the difference between the two groups in the literacy test (post test). To measure the effect size  $\eta^2$  of the treatment, in the literacy test. The effect size  $\eta^2$  was calculated through the following table as follows

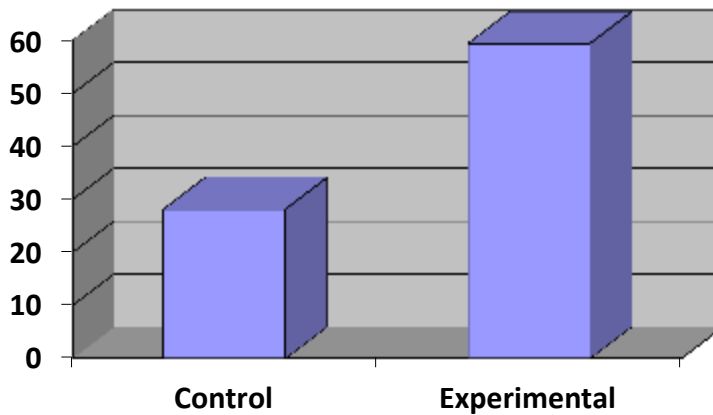
**Table (1) T-test between the mean scores of the experimental group and the control group in the literacy skills post test**

Group	No.	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-value	Df	a Sig	$\eta^2$
Experimental	40	59.53	9.71	13.16	78	0.01	0.79
Control	40	28.23	11.49				

It is clear that : "there is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental group and the control group in the post testing. The level of significance is (0.01). This significance is in favor of the experimental group. This proves the first hypothesis.

The effect size  $\eta^2$  of the treatment on the experimental group is (0.79). It is considered as big and appropriate value which indicates that the significance is attributed to the treatment effect. The following figure shows this:

**Figure (1) : The mean scores of the experimental group and control group in the literacy skills post test**



## 2- Findings of the second hypothesis:

The second hypothesis states that "there is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental group in the literacy skills pre-post test".

For testing this hypothesis, t-value was used to signify the differences in the pre\_ post test and the effect size  $\eta^2$  was also used to ensure and verify the treatment effect. The following table shows this:

**Table (2): T-test between the mean scores of the experimental group in the literacy skills pre - post test**

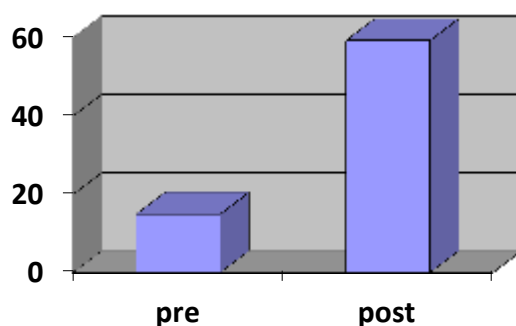
application	No.	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-value	df	a Sig	$\eta^2$
post	40	59.23	9.71	21.17	39	0.01	0.92
Pre	40	14.90	7.06				

It is clear that : "there is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental group in the pre \_ post

testing. The level of significance is (0.01). The difference is in favor of the post testing. This proves the second hypothesis.

The effect size  $\eta^2$  of the treatment is (0.92). It is a big and appropriate value which indicates that a great percentage of the difference is attributed to the treatment effect (The experimental one). At the same time, it indicates the effectiveness of the treatment in improving the pupils literacy skills. The following figure shows this:

**Figure (2) : The mean scores of the experimental group and control group in the literacy skills pre-post test**



**In sum**, it can be concluded that chunking based program is effective in developing EFL literacy skills among second year preparatory school pupils.

### **Conclusion:**

The present research attempted to develop the EFL literacy skills among second year preparatory school pupils through the use of chunking based program. The results of the current research proved the effectiveness of chunking based program in developing EFL literacy skills among second year preparatory school pupils. Therefore, chunking based program is recommended for second year preparatory pupils to develop their EFL literacy skills.

## References

- Aish, M., S. (2014). *The Lexical Approach (Collocations) in developing The Secondary Stage Students English Active Vocabulary*. An M.A. Thesis, Institute of Educational studies, Cairo University.
- Akbarian, I. (2010). *The Relationship Between Vocabulary Size and Depth* for Doi: 10.1016/j.System.2010.06.013.
- Al-Jarf, R. (2007). Teaching Vocabulary to EFL College Students Online. *CALL-EJ Online*, 8(2). Retrieved from: <http://callej.org/journal/8-2/al-jarf.html>
- Alzahrani, M. A. B. (2011). *The Effectiveness of Keyword-Based Instruction in Enhancing English Vocabulary Achievement and Retention of Intermediate Stage Pupils with Different Working Memory Capacities*. M.A. thesis, Faculty of Education- Taif University.
- Baleghizadeh, S. and Naeim, M. Y. (2011). Enhancing Vocabulary Retention Through Semantic Mapping: A Single-Subject Study. *The International Journal- Language Society and Culture*, 32,11-16, URL: [www.edu.utas.edu.au/users/tle/JOURNAL](http://www.edu.utas.edu.au/users/tle/JOURNAL).
- Bareggi, C. (2006). Proper Words in Proper Places Some "Modest Proposals" for introducing the Lexical Approach into your English Class. *LANG Matters* 5,(13),2-4. Retrieved from: <http://ppbm.langedizioni.com/varie/riviste/pdf/langmatters13.pdf>.
- Bofman, T. & Vamarasi, M. (2006). Teaching Thai and Indonesian with The Lexical Approach. *Journal of Southeast Asian Language Teaching*, 12, Retrieved from: <http://www.seasite.niu.edu/jsealt/Volume12Spring2006/Articles/Teaching%20Thai%20and%20Indonesian%20with%20the%20Lexical%20Approach.pdf>.

- Coady, J. (1997). L2 vocabulary acquisition through extensive reading. In J. Coady, and T. Huckin (Eds.). *Second language vocabulary acquisition*. New York: Cambridge University Press.225-237.
- Coxhead, A. (2006). *Essentials of teaching academic vocabulary English for academic success*. Thomson corporation: Boston.
- Crossley, S. (2013). Advancing research in second language writing through computational tools and machine learning techniques: A research agenda. *Language Teaching*, 46(2), 256-271.
- Dai, Z., and Zhour, Y. (2015). Empirical Studies on English Vocabulary Learning Strategies in Mainland China over the Past Two Decades. *Journal of Arts and Humanities*, 4(2),1-10. Retrieved from:<http://search.proquest.com/docview/1667001965?accountid=30906>.
- Davies, P., & Pears, E. (2003) *Success in English Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. Doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139150484.019>.
- Diamond, L. and Gutlohn, L. (2006). *Vocabulary Handbook*. California 94710.website: <http://www.corelearn.com>.
- Donohue, D. (2010). *Vocabulary and Reading Growth in Children with Intellectual Disabilities: The Influences of Risks, Adaptive Behavior and A Reading Intervention*. (A published PhD dissertation), Georgia State University, Department of Psychology, Psychology Dissertations.
- Engber, C. A.(1995). *The relationship of lexical proficiency to the quality of ESL compositions*. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 4,139-155.ISSN 1060-3743, [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/1060-3743\(95\)90004-7](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/1060-3743(95)90004-7).

- Fu, I. (2005). *Student approaches to learning chinese vocabulary* (order No.3255277). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Full Text; ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Global. (305415738). Retrieved from <http://search.ProQuest.com.docview/305415738?accountid=30906>.
- Gibbon, D.(2006). *In a word, some thoughts on Learning, Teaching and testing lexis. LANG Matters*, year 5, issue 13.7-8.
- Hiebert, A. & Kamil, M. (2005). *Teaching and learning vocabulary Bringing: Research to practice*. Mahwah, New Jersey: London.
- Horst, M., Cobb, T., & Meara, P. (1998). *Beyond a clockwork orange: Acquiring second language vocabulary through reading. Reading in a Foreign Language, 11*,207-223. Laufer, B., & Nation, P. (1995). *Vocabulary size and use: Lexical Richness in L2 Written Production. Applied Linguistics, 16*,307-322.
- Horst, M., Cobb, T., & Nicolae, I. (2005). *(Expanding academic vocabulary with an interactive on-line database.) Language Learning and Technology,9*,90-110.
- Lin, S. (2002). *Modeling a Supplemental Course Web Site for EFL Vocabulary Acquisition*. Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, University of Delaware, USA.
- Hsu, J. (2008a). *Lexical collocations and their impact on the online writing of Taiwanese college English majors and non-English majors. Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching. 4*(2), 192-209.
- Hu, M., & Nation, I.S.P. (2000). *Unknown vocabulary density and reading comprehension. Reading in a Foreign Language. 13*,403-430.
- Hyland, K. (2008). *As can be seen: Lexical bundles and disciplinary variation. English for specific purposes. 27*, 4-21.

- Islam, C. (2006). *Lexical approach: What does the lexical approach look like?*  
<http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/think/methodology/lexical-approach1.shtml>>ISSN1327-774X
- Johansson, V. (2008). *Lexical diversity and lexical density in speech and writing: a developmental perspective*. Lund University, Dept. of Linguistics and Phonetics. *Working Papers*, (53),61-79.
- Johston, J. (2003). *The effects of direct, explicit, and systematic instruction in phonological awareness in literacy acquisition for kindergarten and first grade students*. PhD. Duquesne University.
- Kell, M & Kell, P. (2014). *Literacy and language in East Asia, Education in The Asia – Pacific Region: Issues. Concerns and Prospects*. V.24.
- Laufer, B., & Ravenhorst-Kalovski, G.C. (2010). *Lexical threshold revisited: Lexical text coverage, learners' Vocabulary size and reading comprehension*. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 22,15-30.
- Nation, P. (1983). *Testing and teaching vocabulary. Guidelines*, 5,12-25.
- Levelt, W. J. M. (1993). *The architecture of normal spoken language use*. In G. Blanken, J. Dittmann, H. Grimm, J.C. Mrshall, & C.W. Wallesch (Eds.). *Linguistic disorders and pathologies: An international handbook* (pp.1-15). Berlin: Walter de Grayter.
- Lewis, M. (1993). *The lexical approach: The state of ELT and a way forward*. Hove, UK: Language Teaching Publications.
- Lewis, M. (1996). *Implications of a lexical view of language*. In: J. Willis & D. Willis. (Eds.), *Challenge and change in language teaching*. Oxford: Heinemann.
- Lewis, M. (1997). *Implementing the lexical approach*. Hove, UK: Language Teaching Publications.



- Lewis, M. (2000). *Teaching collocations*. Hove, UK: Language Teaching Publications.
- Lewis, M. (2001). *Teaching collocations: Further developments in the lexical approach*. Hove, England: Thompson-Heinle Publications.
- Lin, S. (2002). Modeling a Supplemental Course Web Site for EFL Vocabulary Acquisition. Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, University of Delaware, USA.
- Lindstromberg, S. & Boers, F., (2008). How Cognitive Linguistics can Foster Effective Vocabulary Teaching, In F. Boers & S. Lindstormberg (Eds.), *Applications of cognitive linguistics: Cognitive linguistics approaches to teaching vocabulary and phraseology* (pp.1-61). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Marzona, R. J. (2004). *Building background knowledge for academic achievement: Research on what works in schools*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Meara, P. (2002). *The rediscovery of vocabulary*. *Second Language Research*, 18(4),393-407. doi: 10.1191/0267658302sr211xx.
- Meara, P. (2005). *Lexical frequency profiles: A monte carlo analysis*. *Applied Linguistics*, 26,32-47.
- Moras, S. (2001). *Teaching vocabulary to advanced students: A lexical approach*. Karen's linguistics Issues, Available at: <http://www3.telus.net/linguisticsissues/teachingvocabulary.html>.
- Nation, P. (1983). *Testing and teaching vocabulary*. *Guidelines*, 5,12-25.
- Nation, P., & Warring, R. (1997). *Vocabulary size, Text coverage and word lists*. In N. Schmitt & M. McCarthy (Eds.). *Vocabulary: description, acquisition and pedagogy* (1<sup>st</sup> ed., PP. 6-19). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

- Nation, P. (2001). *Learning Vocabulary In Another Language*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nation, P. (2006). *How large a vocabulary is needed for reading and listening? Canadian Modern Language Review*, 63(1), 59-82.
- Nation, P. (2007). *The four strands. Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 1(1), 2-13. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.2167/illt039.0>.
- Nation, P. (2008). *Lexical awareness in second language learning*. Encyclopaedia of Language and Education. (Second edition) Volume 6: Knowledge about language. J. Cenoz and N.H. Hornberger (eds) New York: Springer Science, 167-177.
- Nation, P. (2011). *Research into practice: vocabulary*. *Language Teaching*, 44, 529-539. doi:10.1017/S0261444811000267.
- National Council for Curriculum and Assessment (NCCA), (2009). *Aistear: The early childhood curriculum framework*. Dublin: Author.
- Nattinger, J. R., & Decarrico, J. S. (1992). *Lexical Phrases and Language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Olga, D. (2001). *Genres and discourses in education, work and life*. Oslo University College, Norway.
- Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2000). (6<sup>th</sup> edition) Oxford University Press. Oxford.
- Paribakht, T. S., & Wesche, M. (1996). *Enhancing vocabulary acquisition through reading: A hierarchy of text-related exercise types*. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 52(2), 155-178. Retrieved from <http://search.proquest.com/docview/216427911?accountid=30906>.

- Qian, D. D.(1999). *Assessing the roles of depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge in reading comprehension. Canadian Modern Language Review. 56, 282-308.*
- Read, J. (2000).*Assessing vocabulary.* Oxford: Oxford University Press. doi:10.1017/CBO9780511732942.
- Richards, M.G. (2010). *Developing academic vocabulary independently (DAVI): A usability study.* MA. Thesis, Iowa State University.
- Rowell, K. (2012). *Literacy and education: understanding the new literacy studies in the classroom.* Second edition. British library cataloguing in publication data.
- Samir, L. (2007). *The importance of vocabulary development in reading comprehension in EFL classes. Revue Science Humaine (Human Science Journal). 28,(B), 45-56.*
- Sanad, H.A.E.(2015). *A program based on the lexical approach to develop English as a Foreign language (EFL) vocabulary and reading comprehension skills among secondary schoolers.* Ph.D. Thesis, Faculty of Education, Suez University, Ismelia, Egypt.
- Schmitt, R. (2010). Insights into vocabulary learning and acquisition, *Journal of applied linguistics, No.4(10)*
- Schmitt, N. (2010). *Key issues in teaching and learning vocabulary.* In R., Chocon-Beltran, C., Abbelo-contesse and M., Torreblanca-lopez, (eds.) *.Insights into Non-native vocabulary teaching and learning.* Multilingual Matters.

- Schmitt, N., Jiang, X., and Grabe, W. (2011). *The percentage of words known in a text and reading comprehension. Modern Language Journal.* 95,26-43.
- Stahl, S. (2005). *Four problems with teaching word meanings (and what to do to make vocabulary an integral part of instruction)*. In E.H. Hiebert and M. L. Kamil (Eds.), *Teaching and Learning vocabulary: Bringing research to practice* (pp. 95-114). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Stromguist, N. P. (2005). *The political benefits of adult literacy*. The university of East Anglia (UEA), Norwich <http://www.efareport@unesco.org>.
- Tekmen, E. A. F., & Daloglu, A. (2006). *An investigation of incidental vocabulary acquisition in relation to learner proficiency level and word frequency. Foreign Language Annals.* 39,220-243.
- Thornburry, S. (2002) : *How to teach vocabulary*. London : Longman.
- Webb, S. A. (2009). *The Effects of pre-learning vocabulary on reading comprehension and writing. Canadian Modern Language Review.* 65,441-470.
- White, R. (2014). *Lexical richness in adolescent writing, insights from the classroom : An L1 vocabulary development study*. (Unpublished MA Thesis) , Victoria University of Wellington.
- Williams, B. (2002). *Collocation with advanced levels*. In English . Autumn 2002. Available from: <http://www.britishcouncil.org>.
- Yazdi, M. , Kafipour, R. (2014). *A qualitative study of vocabulary learning strategies applied by Iranian undergraduate EFL learners in real learning setting. International Journal of language Academy.* ISSN: 2342-0251. Doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.18033/ijla.325>.

- Yu, G. (2007). *Lexical diversity in MELAB writing and speaking task Performances*. Span Fellow Working Papers in Second or Foreign Language Assessment. English Language Institute, University of Michigan.
- Yu, G. (2010). *Lexical diversity in writing and speaking task performances*. *Applied Linguistics*, 31,236-259.
- Zahar, R., Cobb, T.& Spada, N. (2001). *Acquiring vocabulary through reading : Effects of frequency and contextual richness*. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 57,4,541-572.
- Zhao, Y. (2009). *An empirical study of L2 Learners' use of lexical chunks and language production*. D\_ Essay in English Didactics, Kristianstad University College The School of Teacher Education English IV.